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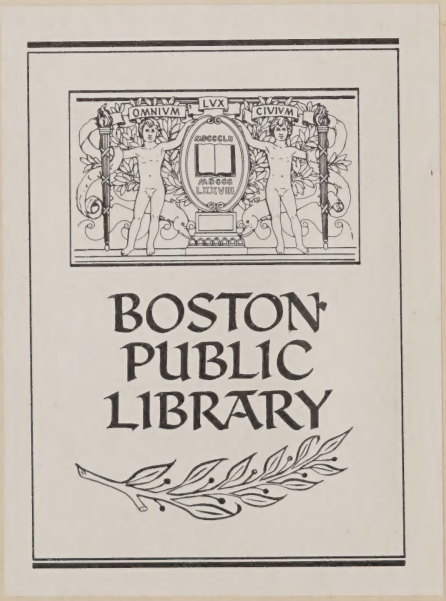

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The Week.

THE willingness of Mr. Reverdy Johnson to palliate or gloss over such (to say the least) doubtful transactions as Mr. Schenck's in London, combined with the readiness of the Centennial Board to let Mr. Forney go abroad to represent them with $25,000 of the Pacific Mail corruption fund in his pockets, are two signs of the times which we most earnestly commend to the attention of our readers at the beginning of this new century of the national existence. Do they not indicate strongly that the decline in the tone of public life by which we are all so much grieved and alarmed, is due fully as much to the easy good-nature and one-eyedness of the honest men as to the rascality of the knaves? Among the most important outworks of the citadel of public virtue are surely sensitiveness about the mere appearance of evil, dread even of vague reproach, and delicacy which fears dishonor as it fears a wound. Are they not being rapidly surrendered by men who know their value and are charged with their safe-keeping? Are we not getting to a point at which an officer may defy public opinion until he reaches the very door of the penitentiary, and at which the most indecent and reprehensible acts are tested, not by the unwritten code by which honorable men live, but by the criminal code as administered in courts of justice? Are we not now every day asked, when we condemn a thing on the part of a public man, to point out its place among the crimes in the Revised Statutes, and laughed at if we cannot find it?

Proceedings at Albany have begun with the organization of the Legislature and the reading of the Governor's message. The Legislature is said by the *Tribune* correspondent to be, "from the look of its faces," a great improvement on the last, the Senate being, according to "old Republicans," the ablest for twenty years; in fact, the abundance of material will cause a good deal of difficulty in making up the committees. Not so much as this can be said for its moral character, however, for there are "half-a-dozen dark spots" on it which will perhaps render the committee-making a little easier than if the whole body were as good as it appears to be wise. The Governor's message gives a flourishing account of the State finances. In 1846 (when the constitutional restrictions were adopted) the State debt amounted to about $24,000,000. This year it may be put down at $10,000,000. In the same period, the debt of this city (not constitutionally restricted) has swollen from $14,000,000 to $122,000,000. The Governor gives an account of the Canal-reform measures of the past year, shows that the falling-off in tolls has been over a million dollars, and recommends: 1st, further investigation, with a view to abandoning unnecessary work; 2d, disposal of unnecessary lateral canals; 3d, the early consideration by the Legislature of the constitutional amendment adopted by both Houses last year, looking to a complete change in the system of Canal administration; 4th, the continuance of the present reduction in tolls. The message contains a good deal of information as to the State institutions, and an account of the Gray Nuns Act, passed May 15, 1875, authorizing the State Superintendent of Schools to issue, "in his discretion," certificates of qualification to teach to graduates of the Sisterhood of Gray Nuns. Though apparently the grant of a special privilege, this act in reality, the Governor says, gave no new right, as the Superintendent has exercised the same privilege for eleven years; and, besides this, the Gray Nuns Act was virtually repealed by the amendment of the General School Act passed June 9, 1875. Notwithstanding this, however, the strong Protestant feeling of the Legislature against nuns, gray or of any other color will probably lead to another repeal of the act, so that we may feel that the schools are reasonably safe for the winter at least. The message ends with a discussion of taxation, the depression of business, and the currency. It is well written, and contains the germs of a sound State policy, but it is too long, like a good deal of Mr. Tilden's writing, and will not attract the attention it would get if it were shorter.

The Mayor, in his message to the Common Council, refers to the past year as one of economy and increased efficiency in city management, and makes good his assertions by figures which show an actual reduction in expenses. He points out that the sinking-fund, which always plays so important a part in the monthly and annual accounts, is devoted not to the extinction of the entire city debt, but only to certain specified portions of it, and that it is largely in excess of the amount required by law for this purpose; and suggests that some change ought to be made in the cumbersome machinery relating to the fund. The Mayor refers in terms of strong praise to the reduction of wages by the Commissioner of Public Works, to the substitution of Mr. Whitney for Mr. E. Delafield Smith, and to the present composition of the Police Board; and, while taking generally a cheerful view of the situation, hopes also a good deal from the Governor's Municipal Commission. With regard to the city debt, he discusses it in somewhat the manner of Lord Dundreary in dealing with similar topics, and it is clearly not his fault if neither he nor any other person can find out exactly what the debt is or whether it is increasing from year to year. Perhaps the most remarkable fact presented in the message is that, out of the $35,000,000 of estimates for 1876, nearly $28,000,000 is appropriated at Albany, or, in other words, that four-fifths of the business of the city government is wholly beyond the control of the city itself, and is carried on by a distant body, elected for a totally different purpose, and grossly ignorant and generally misinformed as to the whole subject. The message as a whole has been well received by the press, the *World* going so far as to say that "it is not a common thing for any city to have a Mayor who can make such a showing for himself." This opinion, however, is not universally held, as may be seen from the *Times*, which says the message is "a very commonplace production," and "mainly composed of dry, colorless details," and says that "it would be too much to expect any new light on the problems of city government" from such a man.

Governor Tilden has confirmed the removal of Matsell and Disbecker from the Police Board, and Mayor Wickham has put in two Republicans, De Witt C. Wheeler and Joel B. Erhardt, who are spoken of as well fitted for their places. The first act of the reconstituted Board was to elect General W. F. Smith president, thus ending the long fight which began last summer in the attack on Matsell by the General. The Board has also issued an order, which would be comical anywhere except in New York, addressed to the police force, and reminding them that any "dishonesty, carelessness, or inefficiency" in the discharge of their duties will be likely to lead to bad consequences to the public at large; acknowledging for themselves the same obligation to be honest, careful, and efficient; expressing the "earnest hope" that "every one from this time forward" will act with a "firm determination" to be guided by the same good motives. Promotions will in future be determined by merit, and "active participation in" or "discussion" of politics will not be allowed; rules will be in all cases enforced, "partiality or favoritism" will be punished, and it is announced also that "no member of the force will benefit himself under any circumstances by solicitation or intercession through any

person," as the Board will in future be guided by "qualification and record." There is, however, a strong feeling at Albany that the people will not endure such measures as these, and it is understood that the Reformers are considering the question whether it would not be better to remodel the charter, so as to put the administration of the entire government into the hands of some department not affected in any way by politics, and we believe Recorder Hackett is thought of as the fittest man.

The negro ex-Senator from Mississippi, Mr. Revels, has written an open letter to General Grant "concerning the situation." Since Reconstruction, he says, the people of his race in Mississippi have been "enslaved in mind by unprincipled adventurers," who were willing to "stoop to anything" to get power. The negroes were "naturally" Republicans, but, "as they grow older in freedom, so do they in wisdom"; and so, on finding out that they were being used "as mere tools," a great portion of them determined, by "casting their ballots against these unprincipled adventurers," to overthrow them; that the negroes were told that they must vote for men "notoriously corrupt and dishonest" because the salvation of the "party depended upon it"; and that any man who scratched his ticket was not a Republican. It was to "defeat this policy," he continues, that at the late election men united, "irrespective of race or party affiliation," and "voted together against men known to be incompetent and dishonest." The colored masses in Mississippi, he says, are unwilling to recognize these rascally officials as Republicans, as they "do not believe that Republicanism means corruption, theft, and embezzlement." These three offences, however, have been "prevalent" among the office-holders; and "to them must be attributed the defeat of the Republican party [in Mississippi], if defeat there was." Mr. Revels looks upon it as "an uprising of the people, the whole people, to crush out corrupt rings and men from power." He says also that the bitterness and hate between the races have been almost "obliterated" in Mississippi, and would have been entirely wiped out but for the efforts of these "unprincipled men" to keep it alive for their own purposes. This account of the matter, as it comes from a negro, can hardly be pooh-poohed as a "rebel lie." We hope it will be brought to Mr. Morton's attention.

The full Report of the Red Cloud Commission is a curious document, both for what it contains and what it does not contain. It contains a statement, for instance, that every witness was examined whose name was furnished by Professor Marsh and who could be got hold of; and yet a certain Mr. Fox, who was undoubtedly one of Mr. Marsh's witnesses, and we believe was within reach, does not appear to have been examined at all. On the other hand, it is only fair to say that the Board made up for any omission of this sort by allowing Smith, the pious Indian Commissioner, to go over the report at his leisure and interpolate evidence which he had not given. The best things in the Report, however, are the conversations of Mr. Delano, reported by Mr. Marsh. In one he observed to the Professor that he (the Secretary) was "a Christian, a gentleman, and not a thief," and in another he gave this advice:

"If you are a praying man, Mr. Marsh, as I hope you are, I beg you will take home this one thought and pray over it: whether it is right for you to be interfering with my Department when you ought rather to aid me in the great work of Christianizing and civilizing these 300,000 wards of the nation. Keep away from the newspaper men, and all will be well."

The withdrawal of Harvard and Yale from the Inter-collegiate Rowing Association was rendered probable last summer by the action of the two crews at Saratoga. They voted before the race, and therefore before they knew that they were both going to be beaten, that it would be better to withdraw. The recent action of Yale, therefore, in retiring her crew does not call for any other criticism than would have been proper at that time. Harvard, too, has been disposed to adhere to the resolution then formed, but she has concluded, and we think wisely, to give a year's notice of her intention to withdraw, and meantime to participate in the regatta of 1876, which is to be held again at Saratoga. There are a good many reasons why it would be better if there had never been any inter-collegiate rowing association at all, chief among which is the disgusting vituperation and abuse in which the whole subject now becomes involved the moment there is any discussion of it. Before the formation of the Rowing Association, rowing may have been local but it was at any rate decent, and whenever a race had been pulled the newspapers were not filled for weeks and months afterwards with charges and counter-charges, exposures and defences and denials, foul epithets and recriminations, as they have been for the last two or three weeks, and are regularly now after almost every race. The great value and beauty of athletic contests, next to the development of muscle, have always been considered to be the production of sound moral qualities, such as manly endurance of defeat, generosity in victory, good temper, and so forth. Athletic sports which produce billingsgate instead, and races which end in "letters to the papers" such as have been lately forced upon our notice, will do as much to injure the tone of college education as they can possibly do to develop muscularity.

Mr. Bowen, of the *Independent*, has discontinued his other libel suits against the Brooklyn *Eagle* in which the evidence in Philadelphia about his contract with Jay Cooke was taken, feeling, doubtless, that this evidence made his case hopeless. If we are not mistaken, his damages in these also were laid at $100,000, and he will thus be out of pocket by these two libels alone $199,000, which is a shocking example of the power of the press over private interests. Mr. Bowen has published a card explaining that, although he signed the contract binding himself to give "the exclusive interest and influence of his money and editorial columns" to the sale of the Pacific railroad bonds, he told Jay Cooke immediately afterwards that his editorial columns could not be used for any such purpose, with which he says Jay Cooke was satisfied, but somehow kept the contract as it stood, and Mr. Bowen went on drawing his cash and bonds under it. The explanation has been received coldly by the public, as far as our observation has gone. He has bought no pew at the Plymouth-Church auction this year—a circumstance which is well calculated to excite alarm among his subscribers, for they will naturally say, if he was so indiscreet and active a bond-broker, even when in good and regular and prominent standing in the church, what will he be when pewless and threatened with ecclesiastical censure?

The old year closed and the new opened on dull markets in Wall Street. The most important event of the week was the successful negotiation in London of two loans—one for £1,350,000, for the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad Co., and the other for £2,000,000, for the Philadelphia and Reading Railroad Co. Both loans were practically taken on the day that they were offered to the public—a fact which shows a strong tendency among English investors to take good American securities. The house in New York representing the negotiation had been selling sterling for several weeks, and it was conjectured at the time of sale that the bills were lent on the hypothecation of stocks in which there is speculation at the Stock Exchange; the announcement of the negotiation of these loans shows, however, that the bills which have appeared in such abundance were drawn in advance against the bonds of the two companies named, which it was correctly calculated would be taken in London as soon as offered. Every one interested in the price of gold and in the money market has reason to be thankful for the timely intervention of these loans, as had it not been for them gold would have been exported, the bank reserve would have been reduced by the loss of specie, and the money market would have been made stringent. As it is, gold has fallen, and money has at no time been fairly higher than seven per cent. for demand loans. The re-

serve of the banks is rising, by reason of the increase in specie, which promises to continue until currency begins to return from the West, when the legal-tender-note part of the reserve ought to increase until the opening of navigation in the spring. The last public-debt statement shows an increase during December of $1,915,000, which reduces the decrease for the last six months of 1875 to $8,856,531. It is gratifying that during the past year there has been a contraction of the Treasury legal-tender notes, the amount now outstanding being $371,827,000. The increase in the debt during December, and the small decrease during the last six months, is explained by the falling-off in the customs, and this by reason of the diminished demand for foreign goods on account of the severe economy so widely practised.

In the total imports into the United States during the eleven months ending with December 1, 1875, there was a falling-off of $45,918,000 compared with 1874, and $96,842,398 compared with 1873. The exports were also smaller than in 1874 by $44,588,000, and $38,838,558 less than in 1873. Reducing the exports to gold values, however, the result is that for the eleven months ending December 1, 1875, the exports exceed the imports $35,858,793 against $34,528,193 for the corresponding time in 1874; in 1873 the imports exceeded the exports $22,145,047. The exports since last year's crops were harvested have, so far as cereals are concerned, been interfered with by a widely ramified speculation in grain. As soon as our grain markets can be brought into proper relations with the foreign markets, the exports of grain should be resumed on a large scale. This can be done either by a decline in prices here or by an advance in the English markets; and the latest utterances of the *Mark Lane Express* raise the hope that the latter may be the case. In general trade the feeling is that, while the process of coming down to sound principles has been painful, we are near to the end, and in some departments at the end, and that during 1876 there will be realized a fuller measure of substantial improvement than has yet been seen. The gold value of $100 greenbacks has ranged during the week from $88 30 to $88 79.

The European papers during the past week have had a great deal to say about a "circular note," touching the affairs of Cuba, said to have been addressed by Mr. Fish to American representatives abroad; but there is the greatest variety in the reports of what it contains—so great that the New York *Tribune* alleges some of the European versions of it to be simply a rehash of an old Washington letter of its own. As well as can be made out, if the note has ever been sent, it is in substance an appeal to European opinion about the Spanish management of Cuba, and if so is, besides being a departure from the Monroe Doctrine, a somewhat dangerous precedent. A diplomatic appeal of this kind about the internal affairs of an independent power must look nearly or remotely to joint intervention, and joint intervention is always a kind of log-rolling. The power which proposes it in a matter in which it is mainly interested, is sure to be called on to render a similar service to its allies in matters in which they are interested, and so on, whence come "entangling alliances." If the mind of the Administration could be in some manner relieved of its feeling of responsibility for the conduct of Spain, and be filled with more distress about matters nearer home, we should all be glad.

The French Assembly was prorogued and virtually came to an end on Friday. The new one meets on the 8th of March next. The Permanent Committee, elected before the dissolution, contains thirteen of the Left to twelve of the Right. The provinces are now busy preparing for the new elections. No legislative body in French history has rendered France so much service as the one which has just broken up. It is a curious fact that it is the only one of revolutionary origin that has sat so long and dissolved peaceably and of its own accord, after determining the form of the government and providing a constitution by rational discussion, and which has not been agitated during its sittings by the fear of being dispersed by the troops. It may be safely said, too, that it is the only deliberative body in French history whose debates have had an educating influence on the French public, and in which the moderate men have steadily gained in influence as time went on, while the extreme Radicals have been pushed into the background. Its journals, in short, furnish the most encouraging chapter in French history, and when we contrast its management of the finances after the tremendous military and financial catastrophe of 1870–71 with that of the legislatures of the first Revolution, one cannot but be deeply impressed by the progress made by the country in good sense and sound morals. What is perhaps most curious in this remarkable episode in French politics is, that this on the whole most safe and useful of Assemblies has been from the first day the target of abuse, at times ribald, from nearly the whole Liberal press of Europe and America. Writers who groan habitually over the recklessness or haste of the French political temperament have been furious because the Republic was not proclaimed in the old style with loud yells as soon as the Commune was put down; and others, who ascribe the mis or tunes of France to her want of capacity for rational discussion, could not put up with the slow debates over the formation of the constitution, and were shocked that there should have been occasional excitement over questions so trifling as the choice between a monarchy and a republic.

The triumph of the Republicans in the election of the seventy-five life Senators by the Assembly is ascribed by the later advices from Europe to the cause to which we ventured to attribute it a fortnight ago, before the whole number had been elected, viz., the ability of the Republicans of the various shades to unite on candidates, while the Monarchists were broken into three irreconcilable factions. The result is that no Bonapartists or Orleanists have been elected, while there is a heavy majority of Republicans, and a small sprinkling of Legitimists, whom the Republicans do not mind, and with whose party they combined in the balloting. The fierce hatred of the Legitimists for the Orleanists and Bonapartists rendered any other combination impossible. Of course, there is not much likelihood that this proportion in the strength of parties will be maintained when the rest of the body is elected. The Bonapartists will undoubtedly fare better in many districts, but there is little hope anywhere for the Orleanists. In any event, it is almost certain that the Senate will be strongly Republican, which, while it will doubtless greatly strengthen the new constitution, is perhaps the very thing the framers of the constitution least expected.

The agreement between the three Eastern powers on the Turkish question has been embodied in an Austrian note, drawn by Count Andrássy, and that the drawing of it should have been left to him is a somewhat significant circumstance. It proposes in substance the equality of all religious denominations, but as this already exists on paper the note cannot mean simply the issue of fresh decrees, but the provision of some kind of organization which will make equality an actual fact. Accordingly, it is proposed to set up both provincial and communal governing assemblies, and to relegate to these bodies at once the power and duty of local taxation, and to abolish the modified serfdom in which the Christian tenants of the great Turkish landholders now live. But it is difficult to see how such changes can be practically effected without intervention. The Sultan has in a recent firman granted all these reforms and more, and in granting them unconsciously admits the substantiality of the complaints made by the insurgents. The peaceable establishment of governing bodies in which Christian influence would predominate, could not possibly be carried out under the protection of Mussulman troops. There is a report, which sounds improbable, that the Grand Vizier has applied to the Pope for his aid in the pacification of the revolted provinces.

THE CENTENNIAL YEAR.

USUALLY the opening of a new year only suggests reflections on the old one. People ask themselves how their situation compares with that of last New Year's Day, how they have lost and how gained, what they have to mourn and what to rejoice over in the twelve brief months. Those, too, who use the beginning of the year as a season for the making of good resolutions are apt to base them on the short experience of the year that has just closed, so that on the whole the New Year's moralizing is not apt to be very profound or far-reaching. Just now, if we were not entering on the Centennial year, most of our philosophers would probably confine themselves to rejoicing over the rapidity with which we had, in 1875, been passing through what is called "the process of liquidation," and over the prospect in 1876 of a real revival of business. We should count gleefully the number of thieves we had detected and punished during the old year, and the number of "rotten concerns" which had been cleared away to prepare for a "healthier condition of trade." We should do it, too, without thinking much of the amount of misery which "the process of liquidation" covers, of the number of cases in which the removal of "dead wood" marks not the culmination of a career of fraud or folly, but the close of a manful and honest strife with adverse fate or personal incapacity, or of the unarmed host behind the combatants who bear the misery of the defeat without the poor consolation of having at least tried to save themselves.

The opening of the Centennial year, however, carries the mind back over many panics and much "liquidation," and through many experiences that are not simply commercial. Hardly anybody of a thoughtful turn has entered on it without asking himself how, not this country simply, but the civilized world, has fared during the century which has nearly elapsed since the Declaration of American Independence. It has probably been asked more earnestly during the past week than it will be asked next July; for we are just now in the midst of a somewhat unhappy winter, and we are at the period of the year in which most people over forty are apt to be grave. Next summer we shall all be so busy in rejoicing, that all questioning will be put aside as inappropriate, even if the weather be cool enough to make it possible.

The very first thing which strikes anybody who compares the Christendom of to-day with the Christendom of one hundred years ago is that North America, as we may call it, while gaining enormously in political force and importance—that is, while rising from the position of a batch of feeble colonies into the rank of a first-class power—has not maintained its moral and social pre-eminence among the nations, if we rule slavery out of the problem. The distance which separated the social condition of the whites of the thirteen Colonies, and especially of those of New England, from the social condition of the population of any European country, as regards personal liberty and independence, moral culture and capacity in the transaction of business, was in 1776 enormous. The first actual observation of the supremacy of law over all classes and conditions of men which the French officers who took part in the struggle ever obtained, they obtained here, and the spectacle which so much excited their surprise would have been equally surprising to the officers of any other Continental power. In France, Germany, Russia, and Italy of that period, either large classes of persons were raised by usage above the law, or the field reserved by law to the discretion of the executive, either directly in express terms, or indirectly by the non-provision of any legal remedy for the abuse of power, was so great that it might be said that there was practically no restraint on the strong but such as the strongest chose to impose. It was, indeed, only in England that men were equal before the law, and that the law was irresistible. But then the equality before the law in England was largely neutralized by the inequality of conditions. Influence, therefore, was more powerful than the law in determining the rights of large bodies of persons. The poor-laws had already demoralized the laboring class by destroying their independence, and all the large chartered towns were close corporations, and contained a real proletariat or mob.

In the Colonies, on the other hand, circumstances had helped both to break down social inequality and to foster individual independence and self-respect in a very high degree, so that an Englishman would have been surprised a hundred years ago by the absence of a peasantry and of powerful men, and the general comfort and intelligence. No European could have come here during or before the Revolution without finding himself in a really new society, from which all that was most objectionable to satirists and moralists in the condition of the Old World was absent. In the last hundred years the advance of Europe in the matter of providing better protection for the individual man, and freer play for his faculties, has been very great. There is no country now in Christendom, except Russia, in which the rights of the citizen are not covered by the law, as administered by independent judges, and in which the arbitrary discretion of the executive is not restrained within very narrow limits. In this very important matter, therefore, the Old World has really caught up with us. America does not now enjoy the pre-eminence in it she did then, although it ought to be said that much of the improvement in Europe is neutralized by the growth of large standing armies and the attendant conscription. In the matter of judicial procedure, also—so important a part of any legal machinery intended for the protection of individual rights—the Colonies occupied the very foremost position reached by the English reformers of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries touching the value of judicial independence. The ideas of 1776 on this subject have been slowly gaining ground in Europe, and may now be said to be firmly established in all its leading states. On this point, however, our country has not held its own. There has been in all the States a greater or less alteration for the worse in the popular conception of the judicial character.

What the European observers and critics said, when the Revolution for the first time revealed to them this new community which had during the previous century and a half been silently growing up beyond the sea, was, that no respectable or enduring political organization could be based on social conditions of such exceeding and primitive simplicity, and that when the protecting and restraining hand of the mother-country was withdrawn, either whatever was exceptional in the social organization of the Colonies would disappear, or the attempt to weld them into an independent political power would break down. It is really the failure of this prophecy—the growth of a state on the foundation laid in the Colonial period, and without any marked change in the fundamental ideas and usages—which we have to celebrate this year. The rejoicing next July will be not over our having maintained the superiority to Europe which was visible in 1776, but over our having created a nation without any marked changes in our moral and social plans and foundations. In that sense, the experiment is universally admitted to be a success of the most striking kind. The government has been carried on on the lines traced out at the beginning, and, whatever else has happened, has become a strong government, whose will is obeyed in all places over which it claims jurisdiction, and which in a trial of physical strength is one of the most formidable in the world.

In considering the things in which the United States has retrograded, or appeared to retrograde, within the century, such as the matter of administration, in which this retrogression is undoubtedly well marked, the main plea of most of the apologists, viz., the influx of ignorant foreigners, is both disingenuous and insufficient. The influx of foreigners has been part of the growth of the country, which has converted the Colonies into a powerful and wealthy state, and made the waste lands a source of strength. Without it, it is safe to say, the purely political side of the experiment, the creation of a first-class power, would not have succeeded. To say that we had made no preparation for this state of things, too; that the strain it has put on our system of government is greater than it can bear; and that our political fabric is based on virtue, or presupposes general virtue; and that, when the supply of virtue falls short, things get out of order—is a very feeble and one-sided statement of the case. The foundation of this government is, and has always been,

the capacity of the people to see things as they are, and to adapt their legislation to the actual facts of their condition. This lies below all constitutions and laws, and the success of a government, no matter of what form, depends on the amount of it the people possess. There has been a temporary loss or decline of this faculty in the United States during the past seventy years, under the influence of the eager desire felt very soon after the Revolution to put the doctrines of the Declaration of Independence into actual practice, which led first to the remodelling of all the State constitutions, and next to the agitation against slavery. It is safe to say that nothing short of actual demonstration would have satisfied nine-tenths of the American people of the extent of the change which the growth of manufactures and of large cities, and the spread of rapid emigration by the aid of steam, have wrought in the character and circumstances of the population. There are many who are still not convinced, and talk fondly of this city as if it were a simple New England town where the deacons and the minister and the "fore-handed men" could have things all their own way if they would only go to the conventions and the polls. Even if this knowledge of the changes in the problem wrought since the Revolution had come sooner, the anti-slavery agitation would have prevented its bearing much fruit, so long and so thoroughly did that agitation absorb the thought and attention of the class into whose hands reforms naturally fall. Indeed, it is safe to say that it is only within five years that the mind of the country has been waking up to the fact that republican institutions, like others, do not work of themselves, and cannot be so constructed as to serve for all time; and we shall probably witness, during the next quarter of a century, a vigorous effort to regain the ground we have undoubtedly lost in all that relates to the administration of justice, the punishment of crime, the collection and disbursement of taxes, the procedure of legislation, and the protection of property against the taxing power of persons who have no interest in it. The proper place of the country, the place which its pretensions in a measure compel it to hold in these matters, is at the very head of the civilized world; and if we of this generation cannot claim it, let us hope our sons and grandsons will be more fortunate.

MR. REVERDY JOHNSON'S APOLOGY FOR MR. SCHENCK.

MR. REVERDY JOHNSON is a gentleman of whom everybody must speak with respect, both for his character, his career, his age, and his learning. But his good-nature sometimes outruns his discretion, as was manifest during his stay as Minister in London a few years ago. He has now allowed himself to be betrayed by it into an elaborate attempt to set Mr. Schenck right with the public in the Emma Mine matter. It would be very unfortunate indeed if any such attempt should succeed, for it would greatly add to the existing demoralization of all branches of the civil service. Mr. Johnson tells us nothing about General Schenck's connection with the mine that we did not already know. But he does tell the story in such a way—unintentionally, we are quite sure—as to mislead the public as to the real nature of the transaction. When General Schenck was first announced as a director and trustee of the Emma Mine in November, 1871—the very month, be it observed, in which he made his agreement with Park - we commented on the occurrence (Nov. 30, 1871) in the following terms in a paragraph in "The Week":

"The piece of news which has excited most talk during the week has been that of Mr. Robert C. Schenck's appearance on the London market as director of a new silver-mining company. This step on his part is a contravention of a positive rule of the State Department, which prohibits foreign ministers of the Government from engaging in any commercial speculation whatever. It is also a contravention of the general sound and old-established usage which forbids a man who, as an ambassador, is exempt from the jurisdiction of the courts of a country, to engage in enterprises in which other men similarly situated may render themselves liable to civil or criminal prosecution on the part of its citizens. The offence is aggravated in Mr. Schenck's case by the fact that the stock which he is lending his official position to push, is what is called a 'fancy stock,' in which no trustee, executor, or prudent man would invest in this country, and about which we venture to say he does not know anything; and there can be no doubt, for reasons we have given elsewhere, that the general belief will be that he has been paid for the use of his name, and this belief will bring discredit on the Government he represents. Supposing, too, as is not impossible, the scheme should prove, like hundreds of others of the same kind that have gone before it, one of those failures closely bordering on a swindle, or prove wholly a swindle, and the strong arm of the English law should lay hold of his brother-directors, what a nice position the American eagle would be in, flapping its wings over Mr. Schenck's head to save him from the legal consequences of conduct on the moral guilt of which the world would be unanimous."

In a leading article in the same paper, we drew attention to the mode in which bubble companies are put on the London market, by way of showing the probability that the promoters of the Emma Mine had secured General Schenck as a director for the sake of his official title. We said:

"Next in importance to the command of the press is the command of good substantial names on the board of directors, and this is in England, perhaps, a more valuable aid than any other. The usages of the London papers of influence make it difficult or impossible to get any direct editorial help in disposing of speculative stocks, and little is known of 'the great and good man' in the editorial chair, and therefore less importance is or would be attached to anything he said in recommendation of the bonds of an 'Air-Line' road or the shares of a Bear's Grease Company. Moreover, small investors in England are not quite so speculative as they are here, as the struggle of life is harder, and the chances of getting up after a fall much smaller; so they cling with some tenacity to consols or well-established securities. The darling weakness of the English mind is, however, as everybody knows, an admiration of rank or official position. There are few Englishmen who have the heart to doubt a lord or even a baronet, or refuse anything he asks, and they cover all men of high office with much the same reverence. On this weakness the speculators in London play with the same adroitness with which speculators here play on the American faith in the press, and especially the religious press, and with fully as much success. Instead of making terms with 'enterprising publishers,' they try to get imposing names on the board of directors—if those of a lord or two, or of a baronet, so much the better; a general or colonel is, however, not bad, and a knight is better than a mere 'esquire.' There have been, as is well known to everybody who has had any knowledge of the processes by which speculative securities are forced on the London market, cases in which broken-down peers and baronets who could not get a pair of boots on credit, have lived for years out of sums paid them for the use of their names on the board of direction of gold, and silver, and copper, and iron, and coal, and oil, and vinegar, and pepper companies; and it ought to be added that they have found even kinder and more considerate employers among Americans than among Englishmen, for the American speculators who appear in London generally take up the old British devices for getting at other people's money, and make ingenious improvements in them which greatly increase their efficiency.

"We believe there is no case on record, however, of their having got hold of a foreign minister until now, although, of course, his name would have been worth any money to them; and it must be said that, considering the sorrowful experience the public has had in this country of gold and silver mines during the last ten years, there has been a mixture of audacity and dexterity, in securing the name of the American Minister for the direction of a Western silver mine, which has never been surpassed in this particular field. Viewed in the light of recent mining history, it may safely be said that any new silver-mine or gold-mine enterprise of which the scene is laid in Utah, or Colorado, or Montana, or Arizona, is presumptively a swindle—that is, it may be honest, but the burden of proof lies on the promoters. Now, the burden of such proof in the case of this 'Emma Mine' is, from all we hear, heavy; and that its promoters should have perceived that they would need an ambassador to help them through with it, and should have got him, shows them to be men of the highest order of ability in their particular line, and yet not men of judgment—for, though an ambassador can do a good deal towards selling a fancy stock in a flunkeyish community, he is, owing to the responsibility of his position, a somewhat unreliable ally, and cannot compare to a nobleman; for an ambassador may to-morrow lose his office, while a nobleman cannot lose his title. The selection in this case is doubly unfortunate because, whatever Minister Schenck's name may do for a silver company, plain Robert C. Schenck can hardly help it much in England, and would not help it at all here."

Now, here is Mr. Reverdy Johnson's account of what actually took place, and his own characterization of it:

"A few days afterwards [after making his acquaintance], Messrs. Stewart and Park told Gen. Schenck of the mine and of the object with which they had visited London. They explained to him its great value, and enquired whether he would not take some of the shares. This the General declined to do until he had time to examine the proofs which they exhibited to him, among which was a report of Prof. Silliman. The examination he afterwards made, and, being satisfied with its result, he agreed to purchase five hundred shares at £20 a share, the price which other stockholders paid; but his means being limited, and that fact being communicated to Mr. Park, that gentleman agreed to loan him, and did loan him, the necessary amount to complete the purchase. For the security of this loan Gen Schenck pledged the shares, and gave Park as collateral property belonging to him in the United States fully sufficient to meet the obligation, and Mr. Park agreed to guarantee to him an annual dividend of 18 per cent., payable monthly. This dividend was paid regularly by the Company for thirteen months to Gen. Schenck and the other stockholders. At the time of this agreement, no proposition

was made or intimation given him that Park or Stewart, or either of them, desired him to be one of the directors of the Company, nor did he receive such a proposition until several days afterwards. Being then told that this would enable him to protect his own interests and the interests of other American stockholders, and without thinking there was any official impropriety in so doing, he consented, and was appointed a director. What induced him to believe that there was no such impropriety was, among other things, the fact that a company had been formed under a Portuguese charter for the construction of steam tramways at Lisbon, of which the Minister of Portugal, one of the oldest and most esteemed at this Court, Field-Marshal the Duke of Saldanha, was the projector and the chairman of the Board of Directors, and its stock was on this market. Neither at that time nor since has this step on the part of the Duke been censured.

"The guarantee referred to Mr. Park had, by its terms, the right to withdraw at any time, and did in fact withdraw, so that, in truth, it was no guarantee at all. Gen. Schenck was to receive the amount, apparently guaranteed, if the dividends were equal to it, and nothing really by virtue of the guarantee, when that guarantee was withdrawn. What he did receive, therefore, was strictly dividends, and when these ceased to be made he received nothing. The guarantee was of no advantage to him whatever, and did not place him in a situation better than that of the stockholders. It is impossible to suppose, even if he were a man of a different character, that he could have accepted this guarantee under any idea whatever that in doing so he would do injustice to the other stockholders.

Here, on the other hand, is Park's agreement with Schenck, of November 1, 1871, made, be it remarked, a few days after they had first met:

"LONDON, November 1.—Having this day made and delivered to T. W. Park my promissory note for £10,000, the consideration for which is, that sum to be paid for 500 shares in the Emma Silver Mining Company, and with the agreement that, if that number of shares of the capital stock shall not be allotted to me or distributed by the Board of Directors, he, the said Park, shall make up to me that number; now, then, further to secure to said Park the sum of £10,000 in one year from this date, I hereby agree to assign and do assign to him, with power to demand a transfer of the same on the books of the Company, 475 shares of my said stock after the same is allotted or assigned to me, at the end of one year from this date, or at any time thereafter, and to apply the proceeds, not exceeding the amount then due on said note, to the payment thereof; and in addition to this pledge of stock, and as other security on said note, if required by said Park, I hereby agree to execute and deliver to him, at any time within one year, on demand, a mortgage of my house and lot in Washington City, in the United States, at the corner of Fourteenth Street and Massachusetts Avenue, which I claim to be worth at least $30,000, and guarantee to be subject to no other encumbrance, except a deed of trust and note for $5,000 in the hands of Riggs & Co., bankers of that city, being a part of the purchase-money yet due from me, and held for the benefit of Mrs. Adams.

Witness my hand on the day and year above written.

"ROB'T C. SCHENCK."

"[Across the face of this document is written: 'Mortgage given for balance and this paper cancelled and given up on settlement, May 13, 1874.
T. W. PARK.']

"£10,000. LONDON, Nov. 1, 1871.

"On or before the 1st day of November, 1872, I promise to pay Trenor W. Park ten thousand pounds, for value received.

ROB'T C. SCHENCK.

"*Whereas*, Robert C. Schenck proposes to subscribe for (£10,000) ten thousand pounds par value of the stock or shares in the Emma Silver Mining Company, limited, a company proposed to be formed in London; and, *whereas*, I represent the owners of the property to be sold said Company, and am the vendor of the property to be conveyed, and receive in part payment of the purchase-money the amount to be paid by said Schenck on his proposed subscription;

"Now, in consideration thereof and of other good considerations, I hereby promise and agree with the said Rob't C. Schenck that said stock or shares shall pay a dividend of two per cent. per month while held by said Schenck, or that I will at any time on the request of said Schenck take from him said stock or shares and pay him therefor the par value.

"Provided always, that if at any time I offer to take said shares or stock from said Schenck and pay him therefor the par value, and said Schenck declines to receive par for said stock or shares, then I shall from that time be fully discharged from this agreement. T. W. PARK.

"LONDON, Nov. 1, 1871.

"Dec. 2, 1871.—Mem.—I have agreed that the guaranty of the dividend of two per cent. per month shall be reduced to one and a half per cent. per month. ROB'T C. SCHENCK."

The reader will observe that by this agreement Park gets nothing, while Schenck obtains a share in a speculation without any risk whatever. He contracts a debt to Park, but Park takes the stock as security. Should it fall below par, Schenck has the right of paying Park with it *at par* whenever he pleases, and, in addition to this, Park guarantees him high monthly dividends, and Schenck has also the chance of making money by the rise in stock. The only right Park reserves is that of getting out of his guarantee by offering par for the shares, which offer, however, Schenck is at liberty to refuse. The provision enabling Park to demand a mortgage on Schenck's house for $30,000 is clearly illusory, because there was nothing to be secured. Moreover, the demand had to be made within a year. It was not made within a year. When the mortgage was finally given and the above extraordinary agreement cancelled—that is, three years later (May 13, 1874), after the exposure had come—Park had lost his right to ask for it. It may have been to Schenck's credit that he then gave it voluntarily; but his giving it may also have been an attempt at the eleventh hour, and when two continents were ringing with the story of his disgrace, to give an air of honest business to a transaction which for three years previously had been one of the ordinary London agreements between a promoter of a bubble company and a titled "guinea-pig."

Now, what consideration did Park get for his great kindness? Why, the General's name on the Board of Directors, of course. Mr. Johnson would have us believe that there was no connection between the General's appearance on the Board and this agreement with Park. He says in his letter:

"At the time of this agreement no proposition was made or intimation given him that Park or Stewart, or either of them, desired him to be one of the directors of the Company, nor did he receive such a proposition until several days afterwards. Being then told that this would enable him to protect his own interests and the interests of other American stockholders, and without thinking there was any official impropriety in so doing, he consented, and was appointed a director."

Mr. Johnson's acumen has apparently failed him here, for further on he lets out the secret of the transaction thus:

"It is proper, also, to state that before he became a director he asked to be informed who were to be his associates, and this information was given him in a note from Mr. Stewart, dated the 3d of November, 1871, and was to the effect that they were gentlemen of the highest respectability and large wealth, including several Members of Parliament and extensive manufacturers, naming them."

It thus appears that while the agreement was signed Nov. 1, Mr. Stewart was writing him Nov. 3, or two days later, informing him who his associates in the directorship were to be. It is impossible to avoid the conclusion that this was in answer to an enquiry made simultaneously with the signing of the agreement, and that the use of his name was a part of the contract. He held the directorship just one month, resigning Dec. 6; but this was all the speculators needed, for in that short period, according to Mr. Johnson, not only had the stock been launched on the market with great success, but had actually risen from £20 to £30 a share, and General Schenck only resigned on finding what an uproar the matter made both in England and here. When the shares reached £30, Park, like a shrewd fellow, stepped up and offered par for the stock, and thus released himself from his guarantee, well knowing that Schenck would refuse. Had Schenck been equally shrewd, he would have accepted; but we dare say he was then under the impression that they would go higher. He has held on to them, and perhaps has lost money by them, but we cannot accept as a proof of his virtue what may have been simply defective knowledge of the character of the speculators into whose hands he had put himself after three or four days' acquaintance.

The charge of which neither Mr. Johnson nor anybody else can clear him is of having lent his name to speculators whom he knew very slightly, to help them to sell the stock of a mine of which he knew nothing, under such circumstances, and with such forms, as to lead English investors to suppose that he, a man of high position, had carefully examined the enterprise, and had invested in it his own money, and was running the risk of losing it, when the fact was that he had not carefully examined the enterprise, and that he had invested no money in it, and was running no risk whatever, but was the debtor of the vendors, and was really playing the part of a stool-pigeon. This is the gist of the transaction, stripped of all verbiage. Mr. Johnson, we are sure, will not say in cold blood that it is an honorable transaction; but even if he does, we trust, for the credit of the national name, he will not find many to agree with him. We have read, too, with unfeigned surprise Mr. Johnson's argument that there can be nothing wrong in General Schenck's conduct because the Government has neither recalled nor reprimanded him. Of all the rascals, great and small, by whom the Government has been served and

cheated during the last seven years, which of them has it dismissed except under overwhelming pressure from Congress and public opinion, and which of them has it allowed to retire into private life without a certificate of good character? Is not this callous indifference to the character of its subordinates one of the features of the present Administration which has caused and is causing honest and patriotic men most distress; and could there be a more striking illustration of the corrupting influence of use and wont than the citation, by a man of Mr. Johnson's standing, as a proof of an officer's innocence, of the fact that the friend and companion and patron of Boss Shepherd had neither censured nor punished him?

The part the poor Duke of Saldanha, General Schenck's "very much esteemed friend," has been made to play in this affair as a precedent is almost droll. The Duke, who is a man of great wealth, and is trying patriotically to revive industry and enterprise in his poor and sloth-stricken country, invested heavily in a Portuguese railway, and became a director of the company. Therefore we are told there was nothing wrong in General Schenck's pretending to invest, when he invested nothing, in a speculative enterprise of which he knew nothing, and into which, if sound, the capitalists of two of the richest countries in the world were sure to rush. It reminds us of the use to which Sir Robert Walpole is now constantly put by American jobbers and peculators. If you remark to one of these gentlemen that his corruption is shameful and dangerous, he is almost sure to ask you if you remember how corrupt English politics was in the days of Walpole. If you answer in the affirmative, he will ask you again whether English official life is not now pure; and if you say yes, he will declare joyously that American politics will also work out into purity eventually; and then begin stealing and cheating again with unbroken zeal and cheerfulness. In fact, a Walpole paragraph has now become so constant a feature in current apologies for rascality in public life, that we are almost surprised it has not made its appearance in Mr. Johnson's letter.

EFFECT ON EUROPE OF THE SUEZ PURCHASE.

PARIS, December 17, 1875.

THE happy settlement of the *Alabama* claims has made England free, and has allowed her to play again a part in European affairs. It must be confessed that Mr. Disraeli has understood much better than Mr. Gladstone the true interests and the true temper of the English nation. While everybody in England was turning against the North during the War of Secession; while Mr. Gladstone pronounced his unfortunate praise of Jefferson Davis, "He has made an army, he has made a navy, he has made a nation," Mr. Disraeli preserved a prudent silence; he foresaw what nobody around him would see, that the American people would successfully struggle for the Constitution and for the Union. So long as England could fear that if she were at war with a European power new *Alabamas* might issue from the American ports and sweep her commerce from the seas, she was crippled, and she had nothing with which to cover her impotence but non-intervention and economical theories. Mr. Gladstone was the candid exponent of this policy; but whoever knows England well must see that she is not yet resigned to playing the part of a mere witness in the drama of history. Her enormous wealth is like a river which is constantly swollen by rivulets; her colonies are as necessary to her as her constitution; she must be an Asiatic empire in order to remain a European empire.

Mr. Disraeli has seized his opportunity, and he has made a brilliant *rentrée*, as we say of an actor who has left the stage for some time and who comes again before the public. He has hit upon a scheme which could not but strike the imagination of the whole world. We recognize in the mysterious ally of the Egyptian Khedive the author of 'Coningsby' and of 'Lothair,' the man who cares little for precedents and for old rules, and who knows what the real forces are that govern modern society. In 'Lothair,' Disraeli has described the struggle of the Ultramontane secret societies and of the Revolutionary secret societies; and who could say that the Jesuits on one side and the Communists on the other do not represent the two opposite poles of modern politics? Looking for the forces which were at the command of England, Disraeli saw the huge force which is known under the name of capital. Let Prussia, Austria, Russia muster their millions of armed men, England can muster millions of pounds sterling. But England has something better than millions of pounds at her command: she has in India an unlimited supply of men, whom she can turn into soldiers. Not that such soldiers could meet European armies, but they could very well, under English officers, occupy that strip of land called the Isthmus of Suez, and the Valley of the Nile. It is impossible, or next to impossible, for any power to land an army in Egypt if the Mediterranean Sea is free to the English squadron; impossible, or next to impossible, for Russia to send an army by land to Egypt. The Ten Thousand of Xenophon have left us a record of their wonderful march; but what would become of a Russian Xenophon on his way from the shores of the Black Sea, and on his way to Syria and the Isthmus? Alexander carried his Greek legions to the very Valley of the Indus, but Asia Minor is now so impoverished that a large army could not well live off it. The possession of the Isthmus of Suez would secure India for England, and reciprocally India would secure Egypt and the Isthmus, for in the Persian Gulf and in the Red Sea England can find no rival; the sea of the Pharaohs is already an English lake. England holds its key at Aden.

Looking at it from all points of view, it is impossible not to admire the strategy of Mr. Disraeli. To have abandoned the bankrupt Sultan to his fate; to have confessed that all the declarations in favor of the integrity of the Ottoman Empire were mistakes, without gaining any positive advantage for England, would have been on the part of the English nation a sort of abdication. But seeing the Ottoman Empire on the verge of ruin, and knowing, as he did, that the three Emperors wished to exclude England from the final settlement of the Turkish question, Disraeli felt that something must be done; while, on the chess-board of the East, kings and pawns were moving in the dark round Constantinople, he boldly advanced his queen and placed her on the Isthmus of Suez. It is idle for the *Economist* and for other newspapers to discuss the purchase of the Suez shares on its own merits, to count the votes in the General Assembly of the shareholders, to treat the matter in a financial point of view. When Disraeli bought these 177,000 shares, he acted not as the director of a bank, but as a statesman. He indirectly informed Europe that he had chosen his objective in the Eastern Question; he behaved like a general who constructs a line and says: "On this line I will fight my battle." Europe was taken by surprise; for everybody was beginning to imagine that the British Lion had grown old and tame, and that his claws were cut. It is never safe to underestimate or undervalue any power. The Emperor Nicholas could not believe, during the negotiations which preceded the Crimean War, that England would go to war. Count Brunoff, who had been in London since 1840, and who knew Lord Palmerston intimately, kept informing his imperial master that the rage of the City over the despatches of Sir Hamilton Seymour would soon be dissipated; that the English people did not mean war. Nicholas learned too late that his ambassador had been mistaken. The Cobden school is weaker now in England than it was before the Crimean war, because since that time force has become the master of Europe. For more than ten years the English army has been slowly and quietly reorganizing; its cadres are splendid; they only need more men to fill them up. I have it from a French general who followed the autumn manœuvres in England that the small English force is a perfect nucleus; he admired the horses, the equipments, the men, the commissariat; in fact, everything. Let us now imagine a few thousands of such troops, a few marines landing in Egypt; who could dislodge them? The Pasha would soon become a mere vassal, like some Indian Rajah; English officers could organize an army of Fellahs; Sepoys could be sent by the thousand from India. We must be prepared to see England throw aside the thin veil of her ambition, take possession of the Isthmus, and reduce the Khedive to the rank of a mere lieutenant of Great Britain.

France was at first a little dismayed on hearing that the Suez Canal, the work of her engineers, the work of her diplomacy, had fallen into English hands. On second thought the French were rapidly reconciled to the semi-annexation of the Isthmus to the British domains. There was a time when we cared much for our influence in the East, but that time is past. The world will not forget that the canal is our work, that we cut it in spite of Lord Palmerston and his engineers, who made the most awful prophecies about the danger of letting the Mediterranean Sea run into the Red Sea. Let the trade of the whole world profit by our efforts; England, after all, cannot confiscate the canal. England made no efforts in favor of France at the end of the late war; but, then, neither did anybody else. Who dared to oppose, in the slightest degree, the ambition of Germany? France knows the Eastern Question no longer; there is but *one* question left for her, and she has no desire, no right, to tie her fate to any other. Let the three Emperors settle the fate of Constantinople, of Bosnia, of Herzegovina, of Bulgaria, of Roumelia, of Greece, of the Turks and their Sultan, we will look quietly on. We remember the Danish question:

Austrians and Prussians entered the Duchies together, and Sadowa followed. It is easy enough at a great banquet to drink each other's health. The great Emperors may talk as if they were angels come down from heaven to bring peace to the world. What does the word "peace" signify in the mouths of men who cannot appear except in uniform, who spend their lives in holding reviews? Shall we believe in the profound affection of Emperor Francis Joseph for Emperor Wilhelm? Are there no bones left in the fields of Sadowa? With the best will in the world, the solution of the Eastern Question is an extremely difficult problem. Turkey might become a sort of Switzerland of the East, for nature has prepared her better for a confederacy of small states than for an empire. You will find in the Valley of the Danube and in the peninsula of the Balkan many races, many religions, an extraordinary variety of culture. The Turks themselves cannot all be thrown into the Bosphorus, even if, according to the old and cherished prophecy which has become an article of faith among the Rajahs, a Christian emperor come back to Constantinople and enter Saint-Sophia on horseback. But this confederacy I am speaking of, will it be independent and neutralized like Switzerland? It seems hardly possible, in the present state of the population, with so many rivalries and old feuds. The Roumanians believe themselves to be a dominant race; so do the Serbs, who are not so numerous, but who are distinguished for energy and courage; so do the Greeks, who still wrap themselves in the glorious memories of the Hellenic civilization. And if the Eastern confederation or constellation of states is not quite independent, it will be constantly placed between the two opposite poles of Austria and of Russia.

It is the clear interest of Germany that Austria should become more and more an Eastern power. The interests of Prussia in the Valley of the Danube are only indirect, but are none the less strong: the time may be foreseen when the triple alliance of the present hour may be replaced by a sort of triangular fight. The rapid and bold move of England in Egypt has thrown the three powers into a sort of confusion: they are halting on the eve of the great events which everybody foresees, but of which nobody can well see the development and the end. *We* can say at least: "Suave mari magno turbantibus æquora ventis." France must remain quiet and neutral; she has trouble enough at home. She is steadily reorganizing her army, her finances; but she is still torn by conflicting parties. She tries constitutions, senates, republics with or without republicans: she has not yet found her equilibrium. This chaotic state has one advantage, at least: it will hinder France from recommencing some gigantic folly like the Crimean war. Necessity will do for us what our wisdom perhaps would not do; but in reality France feels very keenly that she owes it to herself to husband her resources, not to expose herself to any unnecessary perils. She has no desire to play the first power in the Eastern Question; she knows that in a storm many things must sometimes be thrown overboard to make the ship lighter. The approaching settlement of the Eastern Question must, therefore, and will remain entirely confided to the political wisdom and to the forces of England, of Russia, of Austria, and of Germany. Italy is ambitious, but will be too wise to endanger herself; the Latin races form, therefore, for the present, as it were, an island of peace in Europe.

Correspondence.

AN EXAMPLE OF CIVIL-SERVICE REFORM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your articles on civil-service management (and mismanagement) must have attracted attention, and it is to be hoped that they will exert an influence proportionate to their merit. I call special attention to the following quotation from your first editorial article in No. 543, which gives your views in a few words, and contains the only true doctrine of civil-service reform:

"The modern scientific method [*i.e.*, of maintaining the efficiency of a government service] which is in use in all other first-class Christian states, is to organize the civil service on principles of human nature, and secure honesty and efficiency by diminishing temptation and stimulating hope. . . . That is to say, they recognize the value of character, and employ men who, by having behaved well under observation for a long time, show that they are likely to behave well in the future; they recognize the weakness of the best men by shielding them as much as possible against temptation, by the provision of careful checks, by the payment of good salaries, or giving the equivalent of good salaries in the shape of security of tenure or social consideration."

These opinions should be held by all thoughtful persons, and, doubtless, are held by all who are not blinded by party zeal. If anything can be added to their force, it is only, perhaps, by showing that the method recommended has succeeded wherever tried. The following quotations show that the experiment succeeded where the conditions were much less favorable than they are among us. Referring to Lord Cornwallis's administration in India, Col. Chesney says:

"In vain was it asserted that, however well men were paid in India, at that distance they could not refrain from fee-taking or corruption in some form. The honorable soul of Cornwallis revolted at this theory." . . . "I am doing [writes Cornwallis] everything I can to reform the Company's servants, to teach them to be more economical in their mode of living, and to look forward to a moderate competency; and I flatter myself I have not hitherto labored in vain. But if all chance of saving any money and returning to England without acting dishonestly is removed, there will be an end of my reformation." . . . "Those effects began to appear sooner than viceroy or minister could have hoped; for we find Cornwallis writing thus, four months after the receipt of this assurance [*i.e.*, of Dundas's attention to his suggestions]: 'The Company has many valuable servants; the temper of the times is changing. Men are beginning to contrast their present expenses and their future views.' His unwearied war upon sinecures, jobbery, and fraud had already reduced the expenditure within the estimates, 'which never,' he writes, 'happened before'; while the civil service was beginning to feel the advantage held out to it by the honester system which refused [to use Cornwallis's words] 'to place men in great and responsible situations, where the prosperity of our affairs must depend on their exertions as well as integrity, without giving them the means in a certain number of years of acquiring honestly and openly a moderate fortune.'" ('Essays in Military Biography,' pp. 301, 302, 303.)

J. A. T.

Botetourt Springs, Va., Dec. 29, 1875.

CLEWS AND CLUES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: You are right; but what is *also* remarkable about the dispute between Mr. Henry Clews and the "eminent firm of B. H. Cheever and James Van Buren" is that this Cheever is the same Cheever whom Mr. Clews recommended his friend and fellow-director, Stockwell, to employ in his Washington lobby in 1872, upon the express ground that the eminent Cheever had helped the eminent Clews to get the fiscal agency! (See the report of the Pacific Mail investigation of last winter.)

It is also remarkable that when it came out that "Nestor" Shaw and the eminent Cheever had both obtained such employment through Mr. Clews, that gentleman made speed to save himself by saying that he had, indeed, introduced Shaw to Stockwell, but didn't know what for [of course not; they never do], but kept silence as to the eminent Cheever.

It is also remarkable that although nobody knows Mr. James Van Buren, the eminent banker, everybody here knows the eminent lobbyist, Mr. B. H. Cheever—everybody, that is, except Mr. Clews, who thought he was "a retired merchant"! Dear me!

It is also remarkable that the eminent Cheever's counsel in his suit against Clews should be the same firm that got the former managers of the Pacific Mail Steamship Company last February to sue (in the newspapers) all the recipients of the "subsidy corruption fund"—except Cheever, and a few more!

Now, write me down

An Humble Follower of Clues.

Washington, D. C., 1875.

Notes.

THE last number of Vol. IX. of the *American Naturalist* contains among other articles of interest a paper on "Odontornithes," by Prof. O. C. Marsh, the discoverer of these important fossil birds with teeth, which form a connecting link with the reptile class; and a paper on "Plants that Eat Animals," by Mrs. Mary Treat. The first number of Vol. X., with H. O. Houghton & Co.'s imprint, is distinguished by a cover with a new and improved design, and its contents are purposely of a more popular character than heretofore. A department of Geography and Exploration has been added to the General Notes, and departments of Scientific News, Proceedings of Societies, and Scientific Serials (selected contents) add to the completeness of the scheme. The borrowing of illustrations from books reviewed, which is so attractive a feature of *Nature*, is here imitated in the case of Judge Caton's 'Summer in Norway.' Dr. A. S. Packard, jr., will hereafter edit the *Naturalist*.——Prof. F. W. Putnam, Dr. Packard's late colleague, has been appointed Civilian Assistant on the United States Surveys west of the 100th meridian conducted by Lieut. Geo. M. Wheeler, and

is already occupied in preparing a report on the abundant and very valuable archæological and ethnological material collected by the exploration in Arizona, New Mexico, and California. The report will be profusely illustrated, and, we may venture to predict, will be the beginning of our scientific knowledge of the prehistoric civilization of the above-named regions. ——The *Tribune* has, after an interval of many years, resumed the publication of an index to its yearly issues, an instrument which would seem quite indispensable to the editing of any first-class daily paper. It is needless to add that the uses of such an index are not confined to the office of the paper for which it is prepared, nor to its subscribers; no newspaper can well dispense with it. In size and appearance this index will resemble the *Tribune Almanac*, with which it will also be bound up as well as sold separately.——The Surgeon-General's Annual Report shows a rather closer agreement than common in the health of the white and colored troops of the United States Army, the percentages of sickness being almost exactly the same. But the blacks still hold the second place in point of vitality, losing 16 per thousand to 11 of the whites.——The Surgeon-General's Office has also published a very comprehensive 'Report on a Plan for Transporting Wounded Soldiers by Railway in Time of War,' by Surgeon George A. Otis, U.S.A. The occasion of this report was the free offering to our Government of a plan of transportation devised by a Russian, Dr. Zavodovsky. Dr. Otis reviews the whole subject (which dates from the Italian campaign of 1859), and illustrates with wood-engravings all the essential features of the various contrivances. At the close he gives a bibliography of railway hospital transport. The Report is a mine of information.—— Col. James B. Fry has, with the assistance of Lieut.-Col. G. Norman Lieber and Prof Asa B. Gardner, prepared and privately printed a 'Sketch of the Adjutant-General's Department, United States Army, from 1775 to 1875, with some general remarks on its province, and a register of its officers.' This monograph, slight as it is in bulk, must have required much laborious research, and will be justly valued as a contribution to our Centennial literature. The office of Adjutant-General has been continuous only since 1802, and the Department only since 1813.——A correspondent writes us: "In Prof. Severini's Italian translation of the Japanese novel, 'Rin-Tei,' by Tane Hico, he states that 'it has been made known in America.' Can any of your readers inform me if it has been published here, by whom, and under what name?"——The indefatigable Paul Lacroix has in preparation, for early publication by M. Fontanes, an 'Iconographie Moliéresque,' intended as a companion volume to his 'Bibliographie Moliéresque,' recently reviewed by us.——Ginn Bros., Boston, announce 'Selections from Burke, Bacon, and Webster,' with critical notes, by Rev. H. N. Hudson; and a revised edition of Arnold's 'English Literature'——"D. S." desires us to say that at the close of his letter, which we published last week, he had written: "the feeling among business men is one of *hopefulness* for the future," instead of *hopelessness*, as we printed it.——A correspondent writes us that the contributor of the article on the Yale and Harvard Catalogues was mistaken in asserting that Natural Theology, Constitutional History, General Philology, and the History of English Literature are taught at Yale but not at Harvard; for although these studies do not appear in the Harvard Catalogue with just these titles, they are discoverable in the examination-papers. We believe that such is the case, at least in regard to Natural Theology and Constitutional History.

—The *Evening Post*, as we expected, fails to produce any defence to the charge of "journalism" we made against it last week. It has no quotations to make. It confines itself to telling a story about some one being ducked in a pond, and talks vaguely about the "drift" of a great number of articles, without giving names or dates. It also commits, strange to say, another act of "journalism" by repeating some of the remarks on the *Nation* to which we objected, leaving out the essential word "all." This sort of performance would not be possible in a private room between gentlemen. It ought not to be possible between newspapers. We accordingly admonish the *Post* severely, and warn it against the repetition of these offences. How much more manly is the course of the *Times!* This paper, when detected in "journalism," far from whiffling and quibbling, maintains a dead but dignified silence.

—What is most striking about Miss Woolson's paper on the Oklawaha, in the January *Harper's*, is its distinctly Southern literary value. The ladies at least of her party on the two days' trip up this tributary of the St. John, might have just before been interested spectators, as Queens of Love, Beauty, etc., at a "tournament." To the Northern reader they seem as curious as anything in the scenery amid which they flirted with their cavaliers, and recited poetry, and pronounced brown eyes as heartless and more dangerous than "the calmest blue or the coldest gray." A paper descriptive of "Cambridge on the Charles" contains a good deal of entertaining information, more or less accessible, about Harvard College and the scholars and other notables of the town, past and present. There are illustrations in abundance, but of the portraits only one can be pronounced excellent—that of Mr. Howells. Dr. Barnard finishes his learned review of the progress of the exact sciences during the first century of the Republic, and Dr. Theodore Gill more briefly tells of what Americans have achieved in natural science. Of necessity, these reviews cover the world's advance in knowledge, and are therefore good reading for other than Centennial reasons. The rest of the magazine does not call for special remark.

—The most important article in the *Galaxy* for January is by Captain Raymond, of the Corps of Engineers, on the National Surveys, and is mainly an argument in favor of placing these surveys under the Engineer Bureau. It must be admitted that the writer makes out a very strong case—a case, too, resting on so many points that it is not easy to condense his entire argument. At the same time, his argument is not entirely valid any farther than that it favors placing the control of the surveys under the head in question; it does not justify the conclusion that civilians should not be tolerated in such work except in entirely subordinate capacities. It is at this point that the real difficulty begins. That the present division of the surveys between the Department of the Interior and that of War, leading as it does to the same work being done by different parties and under different systems, is an evil, and that the Engineer Bureau is the one which, above all, is best qualified to select the men who shall conduct the surveys, will, we think, be very generally conceded by careful readers of Captain Raymond's paper. No better illustration need be given of the superior qualifications of the present Chief of Engineers in this respect than his selection of Mr. Clarence King to conduct the survey of the fortieth parallel. But the reason why men of science generally look with dread upon the proposed plan is that they regard it as a step to the entire exclusion of civilians from all positions of credit on the work. If they are to be employed at all, it may be as subordinates to men who really know less than they themselves, and who are to receive the credit of their brains. It may be replied that the very same objection would lie against the selection of a head by the Interior Department or by Congress, since such a head would be more likely to be incompetent and to need the help of subordinates superior to himself, than an engineer officer would. But in this case the civilian would have a much better chance to expose the shortcomings of his chief or to get him changed, than if that chief were an army engineer. The corps of engineers constitutes a sort of aristocracy—something entirely abhorrent to the scientific spirit of our times. It is true that its aristocracy is exclusively one of intellect, combined with the highest moral qualities, and therefore possessed of more claims on our consideration than any other aristocracy—one, indeed, of which our nation may well be proud. If any man of sufficient intellect could become a member of it, and if every member who showed the slightest decay of intellect dropped out of it *ipso facto*, we should be ready to put almost any department of the Government into its hands. But there is only one way into it, and that way lies through West Point. If, in placing the surveys under the Engineer Office, it were well understood to be a purely administrative measure, designed to secure the unity of plan and action so much needed, and to secure the selection of men by those best acquainted with what was to be done, there would, we apprehend, be little objection to it in any disinterested quarter. But the general fear entertained by the civilian naturalists and geologists of the country, that the proposed measure would in some way interfere with their portion of the work, or would result in their being placed in personal relations with the chiefs of the surveys less pleasant than those which subsist when the chiefs are civilians, is not wholly groundless. What military direction might result in we see in the case of the Army Signal Office, with barely a solitary civilian scientist in its employ, keeping as widely as possible aloof from the science of the country.

—"*Shallow.* And how doth my cousin, your bedfellow? and your fairest daughter, and mine, my god-daughter Ellen?
"*Silence.* Alas! *a black ouzel*, cousin Shallow."
—*K. Henry IV.*, pt. 2, a. iii. sc. 2.

What did Justice Silence mean by calling his daughter "a black ouzel"? is the puzzle on which contributors to *Notes and Queries* have been exercising their ingenuity of late. One guesses that Ellen was "a comely brunette"; another, that she was "still unmarried—a solitary bird"; a third finds her described in ornithology as "naturally shy and suspicious, jealous and distrustful," etc. No one suggests the explanation which to simple, non-critical readers might seem to lie on the surface. The owlish Silence will accept none of his gossip's compliments. He may have "been merry twice and once ere now," but is become pessimist and grumbler. All the world goes wrong with him when he is sober. Shallow—who believes that

"good phrases are surely, and ever were, very commendable"—asks after his friend's son: "I dare say, my cousin William is become a good scholar. He is at Oxford still, is he not?" "Indeed, sir, *to my cost*," is the sad response. "Many of mine old acquaintance are dead," chirrups Shallow. "We shall all follow, cousin," groans Silence. In the same humor, he meets the compliment to his "fairest daughter": "No *white blackbird*, alas! only a black ouzel, one of the commonest sort." "A poor virgin, sir, an ill-favored thing, sir, but mine own"—as Touchstone puts it. The ouzel was the common blackbird. We do not find that the name, in Shakspere's time, was ever given to other species, though the French (and adopted English) *merle* was sometimes extended to the field-fare, a larger thrush:

"Blacke byrdes or *ousels*, among wild foule hath the chiefe prayse, for lyghtnes of digestion," etc.—*Sir T. Elyot, Castell of Helth*, 1534.

"*Owsell*, the bird called a *Blacke macke*, with a yellow beake, a *blacke bird*."—*Baret's Alvearie*, 1580.

"*Merle* An wsell, a Blackmacke, a merle, or Blacke-bird."—*Florio*, 1611.

"*Merle* A Meadle, Owsell, Blackbird. *Merle noir*, The Blackbird or *ordinarie owsell*."—*Cotgrave*.

Chapman's

"Black, black as an ouzel,"

and Shakspere's

"The ouzel cock so black in hue,"

have been cited by writers in *Notes and Queries*. A *white* ouzel was a proverbial rarity—"Rara avis in terris, nigroque simillima cygno." Cotgrave (under *Merle*) gives the saying: "Je vous donneray vn *merle blanc*," as equivalent to "I will performe impossibilities, or bestow on you a most rare gift." "Alas!" says Silence, "I have only an 'ordinarie owsell,' cousin Shallow."

—Paper-money seems to have in Italy as well as in the United States the effect of inflating the demand for damages in libel suits. Full reports of the trial and conviction of Mr. S. W. Healy, in Florence, for defaming the character of Mr. Pierce Connelly, the sculptor, have not yet reached us. Mr. Healy, we believe, is in high spirits over the result, and is confident of a reversal of judgment in the Court of Appeals. He states that Mr. Connelly's first appreciation of the injury done his reputation was 200,000 lire ($40,000); "at the time of trial he came down to 35,000 lire, and at the last moment to 25,000. The Court gave him nothing."

—The necrology of 1875 is not so full of distinguished names as that of 1874. Among sovereigns and rulers few have died. The Emperor of China had the distinction of being one of the youngest, if not one of the most important of them. In Europe there died Frederic William I., ex-Elector of Hesse-Cassel, grandson of the Frederic II. who made the name of "Hessian" odious in this country, and a monarch "out of business" since 1866, when Prussia annexed his domain; and ex-Emperor Ferdinand I. of Austria, a very feeble sovereign, whose abdication was the one good stroke of his reign. In the professions most closely connected with government there have been several noticeable deaths. In the army and navy England has lost Commodore James Graham Goodenough, a very promising officer, who prepared the way for the annexation of the Fiji Islands, and was murdered by the South Sea Islanders; Lieut.-General Sir James Hope Grant; Sir Henry Kellett, a very active naval officer, who served with especial distinction in the war with China, and rescued Captain McClure, the Arctic explorer, in 1852–53. In this country there have occurred the deaths of Major-General Lorenzo Thomas, an efficient and respected officer, who had the misfortune to earn a short non-professional notoriety from the *ad interim* appointment of Secretary of War given him by Andrew Johnson; Rear-Admiral Charles H. Bell, a midshipman of 1812; Rear-Admiral Napoleon Collins, who ran down and captured the *Florida* in Bahia Bay, and was afterwards court-martialled and suspended for it; and General George E. Pickett, a West Point graduate, who distinguished himself on the Confederate side in the rebellion. In Europe have died General Heinrich von Zastrow, a member of a distinguished military family, specially commended for gallantry by the German Emperor during the Franco-Prussian war; General Charles-Auguste Frossard, governor of the Prince Imperial, and opposed to Von Zastrow, if we remember right, at Saarbrücken; the Swiss General-in-Chief, Guillaume-Henri Dufour, who saved his country from the "Sonderbund" in 1848; and Vice-Admiral Cyrille-Pierre-Théodore Laplace, who led two scientific Government expeditions around the globe. The deaths of American politicians have been numerous. The list is headed, of course, by Andrew Johnson, who signalized his short reappearance in politics by a bitter and characteristic opposition to the dominant party. Besides Mr. Johnson there were Henry Wilson, Vice-President of the United States, whose history of the anti-slavery struggle gives him a place in another department than that of politics; Senator William A. Buckingham of Connecticut; Senator O. S. Ferry of the same State; Jesse D. Bright, expelled from the Senate in 1862 for a letter of introduction to Jefferson Davis recommending a young man who had an improved firearm to offer the Confederacy; General Andrew Jackson Hamilton, ex-Governor of Texas; Francis P. Blair, jr., journalist, volunteer in the Mexican war, anti-slavery politician, Federal general, and U. S. Senator. Abroad, John Mitchel, the Irish agitator and journalist, died almost immediately after two elections for Tipperary; the first resulting in a vote of expulsion from the House of Commons, and the second promising much trouble. He was followed by his brother-in-law, John Martin, member for Meath, and also a nationalist, but much respected. Count Charles de Rémusat, orator, politician, author, beginning and ending his career as a supporter of M. Thiers, and Count de Jarnac, French Ambassador at London, also died. From politics to journalism is but a step, and we may mention here Frederick Hudson, for a long time managing editor of the *Herald*, and author of a history of journalism; and Henry Clapp, the founder of the *Saturday Press*, a very bright and clever organ of the now almost extinct school of New York Bohemians.

—Science in America has suffered a more than ordinary loss in the deaths of Professor Joseph Winlock, director of the Cambridge Observatory; of Chauncey Wright, for a long time connected with the *Nautical Almanac*; and of Amasa Walker, the political economist. England, too, has suffered heavily in the deaths of Sir Charles Lyell, to whom, more perhaps than to any other one man, is due the credit of having established geology as a strictly inductive or positive science; Professor J. E. Cairnes, distinguished in England as a political economist, but in this country as author of a work on the 'Slave Power'; Sir Charles Wheatstone, one of the foremost experimental investigators of the century; Sir William Edmond Logan, the organizer and for a long time the head of the Canadian Geological Survey; Admiral Sherard Osborne, admirable as an officer, a man of letters, and an Arctic explorer; Sir John Gardner Wilkinson, the great Egyptologist; W. J. Henwood, the mining geologist; and John Williams, for many years assistant-secretary of the Royal Astronomical Society, and discoverer of an improved process for taking impressions of ancient inscriptions, which was eclipsed by the progress of photography. On the Continent several deaths of importance have occurred, among others those of Dr. Oscar Peschel, of Leipzig, geographer, editor, and author; Claude-Louis Mathieu, a member of the French Academy of Sciences, and well known as an astronomer; Marc Séguin, engineer, reputed inventor of tubular boilers applied to locomotives and of suspension-bridges; Dr. Ferdinand Hitzig, Orientalist and Biblical critic; Samuel Heinrich Schwabe, discoverer of the periodicity of the solar spots and of the eccentricity of Saturn's ring; Dr. Wilhelm Bleek, comparative philologist; Georg Heinrich August von Ewald, the great German Orientalist and Biblical critic; Professor Friedrich Wilhelm August Argelander, an astronomer said to have performed the feat of charting more than three hundred thousand stars; Gustave Thuret, an eminent botanist; Dr. Hermann Ebel, the successor of Bopp at Berlin; Marie-Armand-Pascal d'Avezac, at one time president of the French Geographical Society, one of the founders of the Paris Ethnological Society, and a prolific writer on geographical subjects.

—The Church during the past year has not lost so many well-known members as the law. In England, the most noted lawyer who died was Lord St. Leonards, distinguished as a conveyancer and leading Chancery practitioner and as author of several legal treatises, the chief one being that on 'Vendors and Purchasers'; he was Lord Chancellor both of England and Ireland, and his name will be remembered outside the profession for a long time by the very remarkable circumstances attending the proof of his lost will by memory. While Germany has lost Robert von Mohl, the great Heidelberg lecturer on jurisprudence, in this country we note the deaths of Horace Binney, one of the oldest lawyers in the United States and the oldest living graduate of Harvard College; Thomas A. Jenckes, formerly member of Congress, a leading patent lawyer, and for some time engaged in promoting civil-service reform at Washington; Judge Joel Parker, formerly Chief-Justice of New Hampshire and afterwards professor at Cambridge; Judge Lewis B. Woodruff, one of our United States circuit judges, and a sound lawyer of the generation of Charles O'Conor, Oakley, Duer, Murray Hoffman, and Daniel Lord; Judge Theron Metcalf, formerly on the Supreme Court of Massachusetts and author of a valuable little treatise on contracts. The most distinguished preacher who died during the year was a Frenchman—Athanase-Josué Coquerel, since the death of his father, 1868, at the head of French Protestants. In England, the church and letters also have lost Bishop Thirlwall, the historian of Greece, and Charles New, the young missionary who made the first successful ascent of the equatorial

snow-mountain Kilimanjaro; while in this country Charles G. Finney, the revivalist preacher, a greater Moody of a former generation, died.

—Pure literature has suffered most heavily in Europe through the death of Hans Christian Andersen. Among the deceased men of letters are to be noted: Crétineau Joly, a fervent Legitimist, founder of a paper called *Le Vendéen*, and author of one or two historical works; Paul-Henri Foucher, brother-in-law of Victor Hugo, and a native Romanticist; Edgar Quinet, the "father of democracy," as he was called by Gambetta, author of many historical works, chiefly of an advanced liberal and propagandist type, and probably likely to be best remembered as having made modern France acquainted with the modern German advance in letters, science, and art, and also as one of the first Frenchmen who exposed the hollowness of the Napoleonic legend; Amédée Achard, a writer of second-rate fiction; Albert Jacquemart, the author of well-known works on the ceramic art; Johan Gabriel Carlén, the Swedish poet, editor, critic, connoisseur, and collector; Professor Heinrich Rückert of Breslau, son of the poet Rückert, distinguished as a historian; Émile Galichon, one of the earliest contributors to the *Gazette des Beaux Arts* and well known as an art-critic; Count Alexis Tolstoi, novelist and semi-political dramatist of old Russia; Pierre Larousse, educational publisher and author of the 'Dictionnaire universel du XIXe Siècle'; and Michel Lévy. In England, the most familiar names are those of Charles Kingsley, novelist, and exponent of muscular Christianity, and poet; George Finlay, the last of the original Philhellenes, who followed Byron and hoped for the regeneration of Greece, but later in life was an acute critic and exposer of the faults of Greek civilization, and author of many valuable contributions to literature on the subject; and Lord Mahon, the writer of many standard histories. Besides these, should be remembered Professor Key, the Latin scholar and grammarian; Augustus Mayhew, a contributor to *Punch*, and, with his brothers Henry and Horace, author of a series of humorous works and Christmas stories; Sir Arthur Helps, well—and we may say voluminously—known to readers on both sides of the Atlantic as author of 'Friends in Council' and other "social" books; Sir Francis Bond Head, formerly Lieutenant-Governor of Upper Canada, but altogether better known as the author of a graphic narrative of South-American adventure, of 'Bubbles from the Brunnen of Nassau,' a 'Fagot of French Sticks,' and other books; Canon William Selwyn, Lady Margaret's Reader in theology at Cambridge, and author of several works of a theological and classical character; Winwood Reade, African traveller, newspaper correspondent, and novelist; Dean Hook, author of the 'Lives of the Archbishops'; John Timbs, the industrious compiler of readable commonplace books of an antiquarian and gossipy sort; Rev. Robert Stephen Hawkes, the eccentric vicar of Morwinstow in Cornwall, and archæologist and poet as well; and Miss Bunnétt, a tireless translator from the German. In this country, no literary man of great note has died. The list includes the names of Col. Thomas Jefferson Randolph, grandson of Thomas Jefferson, and author of the 'Life and Correspondence' of his grandfather; Charles Sprague, the "Banker-Poet"; Samuel Gardiner Drake, the historian and biographer, and founder of the New England Historical Society; Maunsell B. Field, connected at various times with the public service, and author of a gossipy book of reminiscences; J. Ross Browne, traveller, and author of books made up from his travels; Mrs. Henry Field; Charles Dawson Shanly, Irish by birth, writer for the *Atlantic*, and editor of the short-lived *Vanity Fair* and *Mrs. Grundy*; John Harper, the well-known member of the publishing firm of Harper & Brothers; Mortimer Thompson, known to the reading public as "Q. K. Philander Doesticks, P. B.," a popular humorist of fifteen or twenty years ago, and to-day absolutely unread.

—To the long list of losses to art in France since the Franco-Prussian war must be added the names of Jean-François Millet, a painter of peasant life, well known in this country; Jean-Baptiste-Camille Corot, known all over the world for his landscapes; Louis-Antoine Barye, the animal sculptor; Jean-Baptiste Carpeaux, sculptor; Rohault de Fleury, Government architect; Jean-Frédéric de Waldeck, noted as a traveller and artist, and also as a centenarian, his age at death having been one hundred and nine years, one month, and fourteen days; Casimir de Balthazar, an historical painter; Henri Labrouste, architect; Isidore Pils, the pupil of Picot, and military painter. In England there died J. Birnie Philip, a sculptor, who had a share in the execution of the Albert Monument in Hyde Park; R. W. Buss, portrait and imaginative painter, and illustrator of works by Marryat and others; Alfred George Stevens, the noted decorative artist; Edward Welby Pugin, son, and in a measure the artistic heir, of the great reviver of Gothic architecture and ecclesiastical art in England; Frederick Walker, designer for some of Thackeray's writings, water-colorist, and painter in oils; Mr. G. J. Pinwell, one of the most prominent members of the Water-Color Society; and A. Boyd Houghton, a clever pictorial draughtsman of the *Graphic* corps. As coming under the general head of fine arts, we may add the names of Sir William Sterndale Bennett, one of the most successful of English composers, and professor of music; in France, of Jean-Baptiste Labat, composer and writer on music; and in this country, of Matthias Keller, the composer of the "American Hymn," not to be confounded with "America." The stage has lost, in England, William Bayle Bernard, the author of "The Nervous Man" and other farces; and George Belmore, the comedian. In this country no actors of eminence have died. The theatre in France has suffered an irreparable loss in the death of Pauline-Virginie Déjazet, on the stage for the extraordinary period of seventy-three years, in a great variety of parts, and so well known and admired an artist that 150,000 people are said to have turned into the streets on the occasion of her funeral.

—Not coming under any of the foregoing heads, are the deaths of William H. Aspinwall, known as a merchant who established steam communication between the Atlantic and Pacific coasts, and also for his services as commissioner to England for the purpose of preventing the sailing of the Laird iron-clads; W. B. Astor, noted as the richest inhabitant of New York; E. B. Ward, the Western spiritualist millionaire; Emile Pereire, the notorious French financier and founder of the celebrated Crédit Mobilier; the Swiss traveller, Munziger, made a pasha by the Khedive; Karl Mauch, the discoverer of the ruins of Zimbabye, or, as he at first supposed, the land of Ophir; George F. Trask, the great anti-tobacco agitator, and founder (it is said, too, the sole officer and member) of the "American Anti-Tobacco Society"; W. G. Ralston, the great projector and speculator of the Pacific coast; S. R. Wells, phrenologist; and James Chadwick, whom Cobden once spoke of as having made the most eloquent speech he ever heard against the corn-laws (the speech was: "Mr. Chairman, I cannot make a speech, but I will give you a thousand pounds").

—A pamphlet which, though short, possesses a good deal of interest, is M. Oppert's 'L'immortalité de l'âme chez les Chaldéens,' first published in the *Annales de philosophie chrétienne* for 1874, but issued separately in Paris in 1875. It contains a double translation in parallel columns, one by M. Oppert and the other by M. Lenormant, of an ancient Assyrian text describing the descent of Istar, the Chaldean Astarte, to the abodes of the dead, and the great difficulty of her escape. The document proves that there existed among the Assyrians a belief in the continued life of the soul after death, a fact which had not been established before the discovery of this inscription, and so, of course, by demonstrating a wider prevalence of this popular conception in ante-Christian times, gives stronger occasion for interpreting the Biblical verse about the "bringing of life and immortality to light through the gospel" in a sense which shall correct the notion, we suppose even now common enough among the less learned members of Christian churches, that immortality became first known under the Christian dispensation. The text had been already translated by Fox Talbot, Lenormant, Smith, and Schrader. Oppert and Schrader, who also has treated it in a separate publication, had the fullest form of the original. Smith also, though from less complete data, has indicated its true general sense. Some verses used in exoreisms, which M. Oppert quotes as illustrative, give occasion to an expression of strange difference of opinion between him and M. Lenormant. The verses occur in a bilingual tablet, Assyrian and Sumerian. M. Oppert prefers the adjective Sumerian to Accad or Accadian, as Accad (Genesis x. 10) is a Semitic term, and so not properly applicable to the idiom, which is Turanian. Both savants have translated the text, but while M. Lenormant, whose translation was prior, asserts that his was made from the Sumerian, M. Oppert declares that many of the words and phrases had been established by him from other documents, and that it is impossible to understand a Sumerian text that is not accompanied by its Assyrian translation. M. Lenormant, whose merit in developing the grammar of the Turanian idiom M. Oppert acknowledges, naturally magnifies his work, and says that the difference between the two translations is owing to the fact that the Assyrian is not always faithful and varies sometimes from the original. To which M. Oppert replies, though he admits the possibility of a difference in the genius of the two languages, that if the Accadian is translated differently from the Assyrian, one is translated wrongly: "moi aussi," he adds, "j'étudie les deux." He says, however, that, notwithstanding the differences of interpreters, the Accad is in a better condition than the Cypriote was lately. Even here M. Halévy's unfortunate essays have not prevented penetrating savants from recognizing that the Cypriote is a Greek dialect.

DARWIN'S INSECTIVOROUS AND CLIMBING PLANTS.*

I.

"MINERALS grow; vegetables grow and live; animals grow, live, and feel;" this is the well-worn, not to say out-worn, diagnosis of the three kingdoms by Linnæus. It must be said of it, that the agreement indicated in the first couplet is unreal, and that the distinction declared in the second is evanescent. Crystals do not grow at all in the sense that plants and animals grow. On the other hand, if a response to external impressions by special movements is evidence of feeling, vegetables share this endowment with animals, while, if conscious feeling is meant, this can be affirmed only of the higher animals. What appears to remain true is, that the difference is one of successive addition. That the increment in the organic world is of many steps; that in the long series no absolute lines separate, or have always separated, organisms which barely respond to impressions from those which more actively and variously respond, and even from those that consciously so respond—this, as we all know, is what the author of the works before us has undertaken to demonstrate. Without reference here either to that part of the series with which man is connected, and in some sense or other forms a part of, or to that lower *limbo* where the two organic kingdoms apparently merge—or whence, in evolutionary phrase, they have emerged—Mr. Darwin, in the present volumes, directs our attention to the behavior of the highest plants alone. He shows that some (and he might add that all) of them execute movements for their own advantage, and that some capture and digest living prey. When plants are seen to move and to devour, what faculties are left that are distinctively animal?

As to insectivorous or otherwise carnivorous plants, we have so recently here discussed this subject—before it attained to all this new popularity—that a brief account of Mr. Darwin's investigation may suffice.† It is full of interest as a physiological research, and is a model of its kind, as well for the simplicity and directness of the means employed as for the clearness with which the results are brought out—results which any one may verify now that the way to them is pointed out, and which, surprising as they are, lose half their wonder in the ease and sureness with which they seem to have been reached.

Rather more than half the volume is devoted to one subject, the round-leaved Sundew (*Drosera rotundifolia*), a rather common plant in the northern temperate zone. That flies stick fast to its leaves, being limed by the tenacious seeming dew drops which stud its upper face and margins, had long been noticed in Europe and in this country. We have heard hunters and explorers in our northern woods refer with satisfaction to the fate which in this way often befalls one of their plagues, the black fly of early summer. And it was known to some observant botanists in the last century, although forgotten or discredited in this, that an insect caught on the viscid glands it has happened to alight upon is soon fixed by many more—not merely in consequence of its struggles, but by the spontaneous incurvation of the stalks of surrounding and untouched glands; and even the body of the leaf had been observed to incurve or become cup-shaped so as partly to involve the captive insect.

Mr. Darwin's peculiar investigations not only confirm all this, but add greater wonders. They relate to the sensitiveness of these *tentacles*, as he prefers to call them, and the mode in which it is manifested; their power of absorption; their astonishing discernment of the presence of animal or other soluble azotized matter, even in quantities so minute as to rival the spectroscope—that most exquisite instrument of modern research—in delicacy; and, finally, they establish the fact of a true digestion, in all essential respects similar to that of the stomach of animals.

First as to sensitiveness and movement. Sensitiveness is manifested by movement or change of form in response to an external impression. The sensitiveness in the Sundew is all in the gland which surmounts the tentacle. To incite movement or other action, it is necessary that the gland itself should be reached. Anything laid on the surface of the viscid drop, the spherule of clear glairy liquid which it secretes, produces no effect unless it sinks through to the gland; or unless the substance is soluble and reaches it in solution, which, in the case of certain substances, has the same effect. But the glands themselves do not move, nor does any neighboring portion of the tentacle. The outer and longer tentacles bend inward (toward the centre of the leaf) promptly when the gland is irritated or stimulated, sweeping through an arc of 180° or less, or more—the quickness and the extent of the inflection depending, in equally vigorous leaves, upon the amount of irritation or stimulation, and also upon its kind. A tentacle with a particle of raw meat on its gland sometimes visibly begins to bend in ten seconds, becomes strongly incurved in five minutes, and its tip reaches the centre of the leaf in half an hour; but this is a case of extreme rapidity. A particle of cinder, chalk, or sand will also incite the bending if actually brought in contact with the gland, not merely resting on the drop; but the inflection is then much less pronounced and more transient. Even a bit of thin human hair, only 1-8,000th of an inch in length, weighing only the 1-78,740th of a grain, and largely supported by the viscid secretion, suffices to induce movement; but, on the other hand, one or two momentary, although rude, touches with a hard object produce no effect, although a repeated touch or the slightest pressure, such as that of a gnat's foot, prolonged for a short time causes bending. The seat of the movement is wholly or nearly confined to a portion of the lower part of the tentacle, above the base, where no local irritation produces the slightest effect. The movement takes place only in response to some impression made upon its own gland at the distant extremity, or upon other glands far more remote. For if one of these members suffers irritation the others sympathize with it. Very noteworthy is the correlation between the central tentacles, upon which an insect is most likely to alight, and these external and larger ones, which in proportion to their distance from the centre take the larger share in the movement. The shorter central ones do not move at all when a bit of meat or a crushed fly or a particle of a salt of ammonia or the like is placed upon them; but they transmit their excitation across the leaf to the surrounding tentacles on all sides; and they, although absolutely untouched, as they successively receive the mysterious impulse, bend strongly inward, just as they do when their own glands are excited. Whenever a tentacle bends in obedience to an impulse from its own gland, the movement is always toward the centre of the leaf; and this also takes place, as we have seen, when an exciting object is lodged at the centre. But when the object is placed upon either half of the leaf, the impulse radiating from thence causes all the surrounding untouched tentacles to bend with precision toward the point of excitement, even the central tentacles, which are motionless when themselves charged, now responding to the call. The inflection which follows mechanical irritation or the presence of any inorganic or insoluble body is transient; that which follows the application of organic matter lasts longer, more or less, according to its nature and the amount; but sooner or later the tentacles resume their former position, their glands glisten anew with fresh secretion, and they are ready to act again.

As to how the impulse is originated and propagated, and how the movements are made, comparatively simple as the structure is, we know as little as we do of the nature of nervous impulse and muscular motion. But two things Mr. Darwin has well-nigh made out, both of them by means and observations so simple and direct as to command our confidence, although they are contrary to the prevalent teaching. First, the transmission is through the ordinary cellular tissue, and not through what are called the fibrous or vascular bundles. Second, the movement is a vital one, and is effected by contraction on the side towards which the bending takes place, rather than by turgescent tension of the opposite side. The tentacle is pulled over rather than pushed over. So far it accords with muscular action.

The operation of this fly-catching apparatus, in any case, is plain. If the insect alights upon the disc of the leaf, the viscid secretion holds it fast—at least an ordinary fly is unable to escape—its struggles only increase the number of glands involved and the amount of excitement; this is telegraphed to the surrounding and successively longer tentacles, which bend over in succession, so that within ten to thirty hours, if the leaf is active and the fly large enough, every one of the glands (on the average, nearly two hundred in number) will be found applied to the body of the insect. If the insect is small and the lodgment towards one side, only the neighboring tentacles may take part in the capture. If two or three of the strong marginal tentacles are first encountered, their prompt inflection carries the intruder to the centre, and presses it down upon the glands which thickly pave the floor; these notify all the surrounding tentacles of the capture, that they may share the spoil, and the fate of that victim is even as of the first. A bit of meat or a crushed insect is treated in the same way.

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* 'Insectivorous Plants.' By Charles Darwin, M.A., F.R.S.' With Illustrations. London: John Murray. 1875. Pp. 461. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

'The Movements and Habits of Climbing Plants. By Charles Darwin, M.A., F.R.S., etc.' Second Edition revised, with Illustrations. London: John Murray. 1875. Pp. 208. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

† The *Nation*, Nos. 457, 458, 1874. It was in these somewhat light and desultory, but substantially serious, articles that some account of Mr. Darwin's observations upon the digestive powers of *Drosera* and *Dionæa* first appeared; in fact, this leading motive was to make sufficient reference to his then unpublished discoveries to guard against expected or possible claims to priority. Dr. Burdon-Sanderson's lecture, and the report in *Nature*, which first made them known in E. gland, appeared later.

A mistake on our part in the reading of a somewhat ambiguous sentence in a letter, led to the remark, at the close of the first of those articles that the leaf trap of *Dionæa* had been paralyzed on one side in consequence of a dexterous puncture. What was communicated really related to *Drosera*.

This language implies that the animal matter is in some way or other discerned by the tentacles, and is appropriated. Formerly there was only a presumption of this, on the general ground that such an organization could hardly be purposeless. Yet, while such expressions were natural if not unavoidable, they generally were used by those familiar with the facts in a half-serious, half-metaphorical sense. Thanks to Mr. Darwin's investigations, they may now be used in simplicity and seriousness.

That the glands secrete the glairy liquid of the drop is evident, not only from its nature, but from its persistence through a whole day's exposure to a summer sun, as also from its renewal after it has been removed, dried up, or absorbed. That they absorb as well as secrete, and that the whole tentacle may be profoundly affected thereby, are proved by the different effects, in kind and degree, which follow the application of different substances. Drops of rain-water, like single momentary touches of a solid body, produce no effect, as indeed they could be of no advantage ; but a little carbonate of ammonia in the water, or an infusion of meat, not only causes inflection, but promptly manifests its action upon the contents of the cells of which the tentacle is constructed. These cells are sufficiently transparent to be viewed under the microscope without dissection or other interference ; and the change which takes place in the fluid contents of these cells when the gland above has been acted upon is often visible through a weak lens, or sometimes even by the naked eye, although higher powers are required to discern what actually takes place. This change, which Mr. Darwin discovered, and turns to much account in his researches, he terms "aggregation of the protoplasm." When untouched and quiescent, the contents appear as a homogeneous purple fluid. When the gland is acted upon, minute purple particles appear, suspended in the now colorless or almost colorless fluid ; and this change appears first in the cells next the gland, and then in those next beneath, travelling down the whole length of the tentacle. When the action is slight, this appearance does not last long ; the particles of "aggregated protoplasm" redissolve, the process of redissolution travelling upwards from the base of the tentacle to the gland in a reverse direction to that of the aggregation. Whenever the action is more prolonged or intense, as when a bit of meat or crushed fly, or a fitting solution, is left upon the gland, the aggregation proceeds farther, so that the whole protoplasm of each cell condenses into one or two masses, or into a single mass which will often separate into two, which afterwards reunite ; indeed they incessantly change their forms and positions, being never at rest, although their movements are rather slow. In appearance and movements they are very like amœbæ and the white corpuscles of the blood. Their motion, along with the streaming movement of rotation in the layer of white granular protoplasm that flows along the walls of the cell, under the high powers of the microscope "presents a wonderful scene of vital activity." This continues while the tentacle is inflected or the gland fed by animal matter, but vanishes by dissolution when the work is over and the tentacle straightens. That absorption takes place, and matter is conveyed from cell to cell, is well made out, especially by the experiments with carbonate of ammonia. Nevertheless, this "aggregation" is not dependent upon absorption, for it equally occurs from mechanical irritation of the gland, and always accompanies inflection, however caused, though it may take place without it. This is also apparent from the astonishingly minute quantity of certain substances which suffices to produce sensible inflection and aggregation—such, for instance, as the one-twenty-millionth or even the thirty-millionth of a grain of phosphate or nitrate of ammonia !

By varied experiments it was found that the nitrate of ammonia was more powerful than the carbonate, and the phosphate more powerful than the nitrate, this result being intelligible from the difference in the amount of nitrogen in the first two salts, and from the presence of phosphorus in the third. There is nothing surprising in the absorption of such extremely dilute solutions by a gland. As our author remarks: "All physiologists admit that the roots of plants absorb the salts of ammonia brought to them by the rain ; and fourteen gallons of rain-water [*i.e.*, early rain-water] contain a grain of ammonia ; therefore, only a little more than twice as much as in the weakest solution employed by me. The fact which appears truly wonderful is that the one twenty-millionth of a grain of the phosphate of ammonia, including less than one thirty-millionth of efficient matter [if the water of crystallization is deducted], when absorbed by a gland, should induce some change in it which leads to a motor impulse being transmitted down the whole length of the tentacle, causing its basal part to bend, often through an angle of 180°." But odoriferous particles which act upon the nerves of animals must be infinitely smaller, and by these a dog a quarter of a mile to the leeward of a deer perceives his presence by some change in the olfactory nerves transmitted through them to the brain.

When Mr. Darwin obtained these results fourteen years ago, he could claim for *Drosera* a power and delicacy in the detection of minute quantities of a substance far beyond the resources of the most skilful chemist ; but in a foot-note he admits that "now the spectroscope has altogether beaten *Drosera ;* for, according to Bunsen and Kirchhoff, probably less than the 1-200,000,000th of a grain of sodium can be thus detected."

Finally, that this highly sensitive and active living organism absorbs, will not be doubted when it is proved to digest, that is, to dissolve otherwise insoluble animal matter by the aid of special secretions. That it does this is now past doubting. In the first place, when the glands are excited they pour forth an increased amount of the ropy secretion. This occurs directly when a bit of meat is laid upon the central glands ; and the influence which they transmit to the long-stalked marginal glands causes them, while incurving their tentacles, to secrete more copiously long before they have themselves touched anything. The primary fluid, secreted without excitation, does not of itself digest. But the secretion under excitement changes in nature and becomes acid. So, according to Schiff, mechanical irritation excites the glands of the stomach to secrete an acid. In both this acid appears to be necessary to, but of itself insufficient for, digestion. The requisite solvent, a kind of ferment called *pepsin*, which acts only in the presence of the acid, is poured forth by the glands of the stomach only after they have absorbed certain soluble nutritive substances of the food ; then this pepsin promptly dissolves muscle, fibrin, coagulated albumen, cartilage, and the like. Similarly it appears that *Drosera*-glands, after irritation by particles of glass, did not act upon little cubes of albumen. But when moistened with saliva, or replaced by bits of roast meat or gelatine, or even cartilage, which supply some soluble *peptone*-matter to initiate the process, these substances are promptly acted upon, and dissolved or digested ; whence it is inferred that the analogy with the stomach holds good throughout, and that a ferment similar to pepsin is poured out under the stimulus of some soluble animal matter. But the direct evidence of this is furnished only by the related carnivorous plant, *Dionæa*, from which the secretions, poured out when digestion is about to begin, may be collected in quantity sufficient for chemical examination. In short, the experiments show "that there is a remarkable accordance in the power of digestion between the gastric juice of animals, with its pepsin and hydrochloric acid, and the secretion of *Drosera*, with its ferment and acid belonging to the acetic series. We can, therefore, hardly doubt that the ferment in both cases is closely similar, if not identically the same. That a plant and an animal should pour forth the same, or nearly the same, complex secretion, adapted for the same purpose of digestion, is a new and wonderful fact in physiology."

There are one or two other species of Sundew—one of them almost as common in Europe and North America as the ordinary round-leaved species—which act in the same way, except that, having their leaves longer in proportion to their breadth, their sides never curl inward, but they are much disposed to aid the action of their tentacles by incurving the tip of the leaf, as if to grasp the morsel. There are many others, with variously less efficient and less advantageously arranged insectivorous apparatus, which, in the language of the new science, may be either on the way to acquire something better, or of losing what they may have had, while now adapting themselves to a proper vegetable life. There is one member of the family (*Drosophyllum Lusitanicum*), an almost shrubby plant, which grows on dry and sunny hills in Portugal and Morocco—which the villagers call "the fly-catcher," and hang up in their cottages for the purpose—the glandular tentacles of which have wholly lost their powers of movement, if they ever had any, but which still secrete, digest, and absorb, being roused to great activity by the contact of any animal matter. A friend of ours once remarked that it was fearful to contemplate the amount of soul that could be called forth in a dog by the sight of a piece of meat. Equally wonderful is the avidity for animal food manifested by these vegetable tentacles, that can "only stand and wait" for it.

Only a brief chapter is devoted to *Dionæa* of North Carolina, the Venus' Fly-Trap, albeit, "from the rapidity and force of its movements, one of the most wonderful in the world." It is of the same family as the Sundew ; but the action is transferred from tentacles on the leaf to the body of the leaf itself, which is transformed into a spring-trap, closing with a sudden movement over the alighted insect. No secretion is provided beforehand either for allurement or detention ; but after the captive is secured, microscopic glands within the surface of the leaf pour out an abundant gastric juice to digest it. Mrs. Glass's classical directions in the cook-book, "first catch your hare," are implicitly followed.

Avoiding here all repetition or recapitulation of our former narrative, suffice it now to mention two interesting recent additions to our knowledge, for which we are indebted to Mr. Darwin. One is a research, the other an in-

spiration. It is mainly his investigations which have shown that the glairy liquid, which is poured upon and macerates the captured insect, accomplishes a true digestion; that, like the gastric juice of animals, it contains both a free acid and pepsin or its analogue, these two together dissolving albumen, meat, and the like. The other point relates to the significance of a peculiarity in the process of capture. When the trap suddenly encloses an insect which has betrayed its presence by touching one of the internal sensitive bristles, the closure is at first incomplete. For the sides approach in an arching way, surrounding a considerable cavity, and the marginal spine-like bristles merely intercross their tips, leaving intervening spaces through which one may look into the cavity beneath. A good idea may be had of it by bringing the two palms near together to represent the sides of the trap, and loosely interlocking the fingers to represent the marginal bristles or bars. After remaining some time in this position the closure is made complete by the margins coming into full contact, and the sides finally flattening down so as to press firmly upon the insect within; the secretion excited by contact is now poured out, and digestion begins. Why these two stages? Why should time be lost by this preliminary and incomplete closing? The query probably was never distinctly raised before, no one noticing anything here that needed explanation. Darwinian teleology, however, raises questions like this, and Mr. Darwin not only propounded the riddle but solved it. The object of the partial closing is to permit small insects to escape through the meshes, detaining only those plump enough to be worth the trouble of digesting. For naturally only one insect is caught at a time, and digestion is a slow business with Dionæas, as with anacondas, requiring ordinarily a fortnight. It is not worth while to undertake it with a gnat when larger game may be had. To test this happy conjecture, Mr. Canby was asked, on visiting the Dionæas in their native habitat, to collect early in the season a good series of leaves in the act of digesting naturally-caught insects. Upon opening them it was found that ten out of fourteen were engaged upon relatively large prey, and of the remaining four three had insects as large as ants, and one a rather small fly.

"There be land-rats and water-rats" in this carnivorous Sundew family. *Aldrovanda*, of the warmer parts of Europe and of India, is an aquatic plant, with bladdery leaves, which were supposed to be useful in rendering the herbage buoyant in water. But it has recently been found that the bladder is composed of two lobes, like the trap of its relative *Dionæa*, or the valves of a mussel-shell; that these open when the plant is in an active state, are provided with some sensitive bristles within, and when these are touched close with a quick movement. These water-traps are manifestly adapted for catching living creatures; and the few incomplete investigations that have already been made render it highly probable that they appropriate their prey for nourishment, whether by digestion or by mere absorption of decomposing animal matter, is uncertain. It is certainly most remarkable that this family of plants, wherever met with, and under the most diverse conditions and modes of life, should always in some way or other be predaceous and carnivorous.

If it be not only surprising but somewhat confounding to our classifications that a whole group of plants should subsist partly by digesting animal matter and partly in the normal way of decomposing carbonic acid and producing the basis of animal matter, we have, as Mr. Darwin remarks, a counterpart anomaly in the animal kingdom. While some plants have stomachs, some animals have roots. "The rhizocephalous crustaceans do not feed like other animals by their mouths, for they are destitute of an alimentary canal, but they live by absorbing through root-like processes the juices of the animals on which they are parasitic."

SOME RECENT VOLUMES OF POETRY.*

A NEW volume of poems by Mr. Longfellow is a pleasure alike for the oldest and the youngest reader of poetry. No other living poet has so wide and so affectionate an audience as he, and that this should be the case is an indication of the good taste and good feeling of the average reader. Among the most marked civilizing influences of the literature of our time is that which has been exerted by Mr. Longfellow's poetry from the date of the original publication of the 'Voices of the Night,' thirty-seven years ago, to the present day. His successive volumes have been chapters of spiritual autobiography, with all the intimacy but nothing of the conceit of personal narrative. Sweet and sincere feeling has been expressed in verse as sweet as the sentiment by which it was inspired. The harmony of emotion and thought with the form of their utterance has seldom been more completely realized than in Mr. Longfellow's work. He has been steadily true to his own genius; always modest in performance, never straining his forces, never striving for factitious effect, but faithfully cultivating his art, and setting an eminent example of poetic virtues rare in these days of impatient and inconsiderate rhymsters. It is the character of the man that has shaped and moulded his verse into conformity with its own pure morality, generous sympathies, and delicate feeling. A new volume of such a poet is not to be criticised as if it were by an unknown writer. It comes to us invested with associations and memories. Its tones awaken familiar echoes. We read it with ears already attuned to its harmonies.

The 'Masque of Pandora' is a dramatic and lyric interlude, in which the well-known Greek myth is developed, not with classic severity of treatment, but with a romantic freedom that brings it into closer relation with modern moods of sentiment and reflection. The spirit of the poem partakes more of the grace and pathos of the legend than of its dread horror and of the boding mystery, whether of good or of evil, that attends the outcome of the deed of Pandora. We spoke last year of the domestic charm of the 'Hanging of the Crane,' and we can but repeat our sense of the success with which Mr. Longfellow has represented the inner circle of household joys and sorrows. His "Morituri Salutamus," though an occasional poem, rises, by virtue of its excellence, into the ranks of poems that outlive their occasion. All our readers are familiar with its manly and affecting simplicity and earnestness of address. We accept it as proof not of the age but of the perennial, healthy youth of the poet. But of all the contents of the volume, the last part, the Book of Sonnets, is that which shows Mr. Longfellow at his best. He is master of the form of the sonnet, and the form, by its very stress and limitations, seems to give completeness, compactness, and vigor to its contents. In these admirable poems, the poet, the artist, and the man find their fullest expression.

To turn from such perfected work as this to the sonnets of 'The New Day: a Poem in Songs and Sonnets,' is like the change from the lyre of Orpheus to the "pipes made of green corn" of Chaucer's "little herd grooms," on which, indeed, they play sweetly and deftly enough, but not yet with full power, and not yet as masters of nobler instruments. There is sincerity of emotion, delicacy of expression, seriousness of intention, and artistic capacity enough in Mr. Gilder's verses to give ground for hope that with larger experience and faithful culture he will write such poetry as will add preciousness even to these first works of his muse. He may fill these, indeed, with fuller virtue than they now hold if his future work show that this first volume was but the firm and modest foundation of genuine achievement. The qualities in this volume are indicative of true poetic sensibility, and of potential success. The defects are mainly those of youthful impressibility. The title of the volume, 'The New Day,' would hardly have been given to it if Mr. Gilder had not been moved by 'The New Life,' and his verse often suggests a reminiscence of Dante's love-poems, or those of some more recent poet. But youth has its charm, even when it is trying its wings. Its imitative flutterings are preludes to original flights. And the intensity and purity of Mr. Gilder's love are of the best possible promise as regards his future poetic accomplishment. We shall look for his next volume with sincere, sympathetic interest, and with great confidence that it will, if he can but hold fast his ideal, receive the welcome he would desire for it.

Mr. Lathrop's little volume deserves to be mentioned in similar terms. It is the work of a sincere and pure youth. His feeling and his expression are alike refined, and he has the sentiment of the poet and of the artist. His volume does credit to the society in which such sentiment is possible, but he will not object to the criticism that his range of experience is as yet too limited to give him a right to expect a wide recognition from the indifferent public as the poet of their needs, desires, and aspirations. The sentiments and the sensibilities of an individual must be fused into the great current of universal emotions and passions before the poet can claim an audience beyond the number of his personal friends, or of the few unknown to him with like natures to his own. Mr. Lathrop has the making of a poet in him, and it is long since we had to notice two volumes that gave more hope for the future of their authors than 'Rose and Roof-Tree' and 'The New Day.'

A generation has passed, full of marvellous turmoils and changes, since Mr. Cranch published his former thin volume of poems. Yet there are

* 'The Masque of Pandora, and other Poems. By Henry Wadsworth Longfellow.' Boston: James R. Osgood & Co. 1875. 16mo, pp. 148.

'The New Day: A Poem in Songs and Sonnets. By Richard Watson Gilder.' New York: Scribner, Armstrong & Co. 1875. Sq. 16mo, pp. 112.

'Rose and Roof-Tree: Poems. By George Parsons Lathrop.' Boston: James R. Osgood & Co. 1875. 16mo pp. 126.

'The Bird and the Bell, with other Poems. By Christopher Pearse Cranch.' Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 1875.

'American Boyhood. By Horace P. Biddle.' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1875. 12mo, 228.

'The Ship in the Desert. By Joaquin Miller.' Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1875. 16mo, pp. 203.

those who still remember its refined thoughtfulness and tender sentiment as the promise of better things to come. The book before us in many respects redeems the pledge given thirty years ago. There are few men who could write from personal experience a poem like the "Three Muses," and feel a just doubt whether to give himself wholly to music, painting, or song. It may be said, indeed, that the Muse is a jealous mistress, who exacts an individual devotion, and that Mr. Cranch's poetry would have been of firmer texture but for the irresolution engendered by this exceptional possibility of choice. But the same qualities that commended him formerly to a select circle of readers reappear now and with a riper charm. The same sensitiveness in giving back the shier influences of nature, of ethical unrest, and of friendship, will make this little volume welcome to those who love the unconscious personal revelations of a genuinely poetical and artistic temperament. Mr. Cranch sometimes strikes a deeper note, as in "The Century" and "The Nation," or a more sonorous one, as in the "Michael Angelo," but his characteristic tone is that of tender thoughtfulness, here and there interfused with playful humor. His main weakness, we should say, was in a lack of self-denial in letting a thing be after he has once fairly said it. His best poems would strike more home if the emotion were less prolonged.

'American Boyhood,' by Horace P. Biddle, is a distinctly original and interesting book, which would be vastly better in prose than in its present garb of verse. Mr. Biddle seems to have formed his poetic style on that of Warner, the author of 'Albion's England'—"a good, honest, plain writer," says Mr. Chalmers, "in the old-fashioned kind of seven-footed verse." The same words apply to his American successor, and there is an amusing mental surprise and sense of anachronism in reading contemporary verse so completely in the style of the late sixteenth century. "The following poem," says Mr. Biddle in his preface, "is an attempt to portray American boyhood, with its surroundings, as it was in the early part of the nineteenth century. It is mainly a picture of country boyhood, . . . the boyhood of all sections and of every class, blended into the unity American." If the author had been content with the less ambitious attempt to describe simply his own boyhood and that of his associates sixty years ago, his work would have been a more valuable contribution than it is to the knowledge of conditions of society which have almost everywhere passed away, and have left so little trace in memory, owing to the rapidity and greatness of the changes wrought during the last two generations, that a faithful and vivid picturing of them would possess a genuine historic interest. Whatever Mr. Biddle tells of his personal experiences, experiences which were those of a settler's son in Ohio at a time when the country was comparatively thinly settled, and ways of life were primitive and simple, is told with such directness and truthfulness as to give an entertaining and curious picture of men and manners. His very want of poetic imagination adds to the value of his memories. His account of the settlers' households; of the pursuits and amusements of men and women, boys and girls; of dress and manners, schools and churches, is full of freshness and valuable reminiscence. He preserves the details of many habits and customs of the primitive civilization of the West. His book is full of information of a kind of which less than could be wished is to be found in our literature. We regret that our space does not allow us to extract some portions of Mr. Biddle's narrative. It were to be wished that he would give us in prose (which his preface shows he writes better than verse) a series of detailed reminiscences of his own life unmixed with matters beyond his own observation.

Mr. Joaquin Miller's last volume, 'The Ship in the Desert,' will not do much to raise his poetical reputation, but will not detract from it. It shows the same merits and defects as his earlier works. The story is both unintelligible and uninteresting, but special parts of it are impressive from the force of the author's realistic imagination in the description of wild nature, and from the intensity of his feverish style. The real merits of Mr. Miller's work are constantly obscured by self-consciousness, affectation, and extravagance. He has imagination, but he possesses so little of the restraining sense of the artist that he constantly runs beyond the modesty of nature, and he has so little culture—so little real knowledge of character and history—that he lacks the measure which is the rule and test of all noble and permanent achievement. It is not surprising that his repute should be higher in England than in America. "We prefer," says one of his foreign critics, "the roughness of the backwoods of America to all the drawing room conventionalities of Europe." This is a mere matter of taste; but the roughness of the backwoods, modified as it is in Mr. Miller's poetry, has a very different effect in England, where it appears as a mere phenomenon, somewhat refreshing, it may be, in the midst of the conventionalities of the drawing-room, from that which it produces here, where it comes to us indissolubly connected with associations of coarseness, vulgarity, and barbarism. For instance, Mr. Miller sings a pæan over the first immigrants to California in the time of the gold-fever—"Those brave old bricks of Forty-nine!" as he terms them. He tells us, "Full were they of great endeavor," and that

> "The wide
> And storied age of chivalry
> Hath not one page like this to me."

No doubt many of these pioneers were not bad men, and many of them suffered and met death bravely. But their motives were not the highest, and such talk as Mr. Miller's concerning them is mere ludicrous rant, which to an American gives the measure of his common sense, while an Englishman unacquainted with the facts might fancy that Mr. Miller was celebrating men who really deserved to be ranked with heroes. In the pleasant 'Mémoires d'un Imbécile' the author tells us that his reading of poetry reconciled him, at least in part, "quant à la forme, avec quelques-uns de nos poëtes contemporains. Je dis *quant à la forme*, car, pour le fonds, je ne puis excuser leur insuffisance à la plupart, leur ignorance, leur insanité volontaire."

Nebraska; Its Advantages, Resources, and Drawbacks. By Edwin A. Curley. (New York: American News Co.)—Mr. Curley, an earnest and accomplished Englishman, who has resided many years in Nebraska, has given us a book of over four hundred pages upon that State, treating fully of its agricultural and other advantages, and at the same time pointing out its defects. His training has enabled him to treat of the composition of its soil, its geology, flora, and meteorological phenomena, in a manner which few could have done. While his book is the result of laborious investigation—journeying over each county and familiarizing himself with the settlers—his deductions are generally accurate and useful to all who are seeking homes in the West. By carefully prepared curves and shaded squares, deduced from official statistics, he shows that Nebraska has increased more rapidly than the States to the east of it, at the same stage of growth. The increase of population in Iowa was from one to three to the square mile in seven and a half years, while Nebraska was but six and a half years attaining this result. Also that New Zealand, the most favored colony of England, was thirty years accomplishing what Nebraska has done in twenty. His analyses are numerous and the results carefully tabulated. The lacustrine deposit, he says, is "one of the most valuable for agricultural purposes in the world, and prevails over more than three-fourths of the surface." This ranges from 5 to 150 feet in thickness, is practically inexhaustible, and is unsurpassed in qualities of soil. Moreover, "Nebraska, taken as a whole, is remarkably well supplied with water. In the eastern part the streams are frequent, but the prairies scarcely require it, as water can always be reached in never-failing quantities with driven wells from 15 to 45 feet, while windmills of cheap construction pump abundance of water for all farm purposes. Going westward the water is found deeper, until, passing the 98th meridian, it is not reached until we penetrate from 100 to 150 feet. The difficulty of insufficient water then commences." The discussion of this subject refers more particularly to the eastern half of the State. The rain-fall, which is ample in the eastern counties, where it is 33 inches annually, gradually decreases towards the west, as Mr. Curley's investigations prove. On page 260 he states that "some years ago the 99th meridian was given as the western limit of profitable growth of cereals without irrigation. More recently the balance of opinion has favored the 100th, and many settlers have pushed far westward of this boundary." "That, for the present, there is a western limit is certain, but our data for fixing it are entirely wanting." He ventures to predict that "it will be, when found, a very irregular line, curving eastward and westward." The sands commence about the 98th meridian, increasing to the westward.

Of the western half of the State, which is neither surveyed nor settled, our author says but little. Of the vicinity of the town of North Platte, meridian 100° 20′, he remarks: "Irrigation can be usefully employed for 150 miles east of it," while there is no agriculture to the west of it or in its vicinity without irrigation. Respecting the great advantages for grazing possessed by the western portions of Nebraska, it appears from actual data that for cattle, sheep, and horses a profit ranging from 25 to 60 per cent. is realized, with the use of large capital, so long as pasturage and winter food cost nothing. But Mr. Curley has failed to represent sufficiently the imperative necessity of shelter and prepared food in exceptionally severe winters. The chapter, however, gives a fair idea of the magnitude of an interest which is soon to spread over the vast dry region of our country. The "Herd Laws" of Nebraska, which render fencing unnecessary, are of the greatest importance to poor settlers, and relieve the people from an im-

mense outlay of unproductive capital. Still, nearly all farmers experiment in hedges; the Bitter Willow succeeding best. Timber-fields grow with amazing rapidity.

The healthiness of the State is shown to be remarkable, owing to the small amount of malarious country and the unusual winds, which might otherwise be objectionable. Although there are extremes of heat and cold, they are considered scarcely worthy of attention and are of very short duration. Mr. Curley's discussion of the grasshopper is interesting and instructive. He says that the ravages of the grasshopper of 1874 will be a check to emigration, and that though this check is of the nature of a panic, without rhyme or reason, it nevertheless cannot be ignored or reasoned away; that the sufferings of that year were more due to drouth than to grasshoppers, and, had it not been the first season of settlements, would have been no worse in its effects than the drouths that occur every dozen years in all countries. It appears that the northeastern portion of Nebraska, comprising a region fully equal in value for wheat-growing and general agriculture to Iowa and Southern Minnesota, is scarcely settled from the want of railroads. Population has been greatly impeded by the large belts of land held by speculators, but time and *taxes* are rapidly disposing of these difficulties. Mr. Curley, possibly from want of data, fails to give sufficient prominence to the fact that six-sevenths of the population of Nebraska is confined to less than one-fourth of the State—its eastern portion—for the reason that much of the western part is unsuitable for agriculture.

To sum up, this is an honest and sincere work, the best of its kind within our knowledge, and what is needed for every State and Territory of the West. The many illustrations which embellish it are excellent, and the sectional maps of the several counties of Nebraska are beautifully and accurately executed, and valuable for reference.

Notes of Travel in Southwestern Africa. By C. J. Andersson. (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1875.)—To those who have admired the author of 'Lake Ngami' and 'The Okavango River' as an intrepid explorer and an enthusiastic naturalist and sportsman, this book will be a sad disappointment, for it is a record of his personal misfortunes and sufferings, culminating in his death in the heart of the wilderness. In the opening chapters we find Andersson settled as a large trader at a place called Otjimbingue, a hundred miles or so inward from Walvisch Bay. Here he had established himself in the midst of the Damaras, intending to raise cattle and sheep for the market at Cape Town and to carry on a trade in ivory with the elephant-hunters. His first trouble was with the Namaquas, a tribe living between Damaraland and the Cape, who refused to allow his cattle to pass through their territory. Obtaining reinforcements from the Cape, he brought them to terms; but this relief was only temporary, for a fierce war soon broke out between the Namaquas and Damaras, in which Andersson not only took part but acted as leader of the Damaras. In the battle which ensued he was deserted by his followers, was himself desperately wounded, and lost all his cattle and other property. After great suffering he finally arrived at the Cape, where he remained for a year under medical treatment and unable to move about; he finally recovered, but was a cripple for life, one leg being three inches shorter than the other. As soon as he was well he returned to Otjimbingue and endeavored to rebuild his fortunes, but in this he was not successful, the "lung sickness" carrying off his cattle, and the elephants becoming scarce in his neighborhood. Although far from being in good health, he then determined to follow the elephant-hunters northward into Ovampoland. He remained a short time at the villages of Ondonga, but misfortune again overtook him in the loss of a large lot of ivory, which was stolen *en route* to the coast. Then, although suffering greatly from wounds and fever, he decided to push northward and explore the Cunené River and cross it into the Portuguese possessions of Benguela. He reached the Cunené River, but having an altercation with the ferrymen was unable to cross; and a few days later he died of fever near its banks.

The synopsis which we have given of this book will suffice to show its local and personal character. It contains no geographical information, for the country had been previously described by Andersson and Mr. Galton, nor are there any of the well-told stories of wild sport which abound in 'Lake Ngami,' for the author was too ill to hunt, and was not often in good hunting-grounds. He had, however, considerable time to pursue his studies in natural history, and we have three interesting chapters on the "Game Birds of South Africa" (with exact measurements), on the habits of the vulture, and on the leopard and its congeners. Andersson's great work, to which he constantly alludes, was to have been an exhaustive treatise on the 'Avi Fauna of South Africa'; this was unfinished at the time of his death, but the editor states that an abridgment of it has been compiled and published by Mr. John Henry Gurney. The chapter on the diagnosis and treatment of the lung sickness, "that is so terribly fatal to both tame and wild animals in Southern Africa," is instructive in view of its relation to the formidable Rinderpest. A moot point is raised between the author and Dr. Livingstone as to the effects of eating the meat of animals which have been slaughtered on account of this disease. Livingstone states that "it causes a malignant carbuncle, which, when it appears over any important organ, proves rapidly fatal." Andersson contends that "it may be eaten with perfect impunity, at least in Southern Africa. For more than two years hardly anything else appeared on my table, and in no instance has any disagreeable consequence followed." This would seem to be conclusive, but most people would practically accept Livingstone's opinion, or at least defer a personal experiment as long as possible. Another interesting chapter is that devoted to missionary labors, in which the author makes some very sound criticisms to the effect that it is necessary to civilize a savage before evangelizing him; and, while wishing well to the missionaries, he thinks they overestimate their success.

The present book will add but little to the reputation acquired by Andersson in his fifteen years of residence and exploration in the wilds of South Africa; the completed portion was written when suffering from sickness and of course not at his best, and the remainder (about one-third) is made up of the rough notes of his journal, which are nearly unintelligible. The whole tone of the book is solemn and gloomy, and lacks the joyous excitement and enthusiastic vigor of its predecessors; but its very sadness enlists our sympathies in the fate of a man who pursued with such indomitable spirit, and to the bitter end, the rude life of hardship which he had chosen for himself.

Die Psychologie des Mordes, von Franz von Holtzendorf. (Berlin: Carl Habel; New York: L. W. Schmidt. 1875.)—In this interesting pamphlet the eminent author undertakes to show that it is inexpedient to preserve juridically the distinction, based on the presence or absence of premeditation, between murder and manslaughter. He proves by statistics that the same motives occasion both crimes, the difference merely being that some classes of motive have a more sudden and, so to speak, resistless power over the will of the criminal. Cupidity, for instance, produces more murders than manslaughters; hatred and vengeance more manslaughters than murders. He thinks that absence of premeditation ought not to reduce the punishment, as it now does; and maintains—what at the first glance seems a paradoxical thesis—that a society in which premeditated murders should predominate over manslaughter would be more civilized than one in which the manslaughters were most numerous. "For it would be a society in which the moral power of resistance to the first movement of passion (overwhelming in barbarians) had already become effective. That very weighing of the means and the results of the crime which now legally aggravate the offence, must operate, in many cases concealed from statistics, negatively—namely, to prevent a manslaughter which, without it, would probably have taken place." A curious statistical result which he brings forward in support of this view is relative to the ages of manslaughterers and murderers respectively. In Prussia, during three years, three persons between the ages of 18 and 24 were accused of murder to every one that was accused of manslaughter. Between the ages of 40 and 60, the crimes are about equal in frequency, with manslaughter, however, a little ahead; over 60, manslaughter largely predominates. This shows, according to the author, that with the "hot blood of youth" the power of reflection also is conjoined, whilst in old age, in cases where equal passion exists, the controlling will has become weaker.

He argues statistically also that, taking all cases of violent killing together, the chances of an execution for any given criminal are very slight. And in particular is "the prognosis favorable" if, in the execution of the deed, it can be made to appear the result of passionate excitement. Laying great stress on the element of certain execution in the minatory effect of a law, Von Holtzendorff thinks this state of things very demoralizing; and without discussing at all which form of punishment is best (capital or not), he concludes that we should punish manslaughter and murder alike. By maintaining the existing presumption that all forms of manslaughter involve less guilt than the mildest form of murder, "we paralyze, as it were, the ethical powers of resistance against the waves of criminal passion in those circles of the population which are most prone to deeds of violence."

We recommend this important and original little work to all who do not care to consult Von Holtzendorff's larger book upon the same subject.

What we Saw in Australia. By Rosamond and Florence Hill. (New York: Macmillan & Co. 1875.)—This stout volume is an excellent book of its kind. It relates the adventures and observations of two maiden ladies who, in 1873, went out to Australia to visit some relatives, and took advantage of the occasion to gather a large amount of useful information. They are model travellers—energetic, good-humored, appreciative, observant—and they are also exemplary narrators. They are always exact and definite; they have evidently been zealous and careful in collecting their facts; and they are not afraid, on all occasions, to go into minute detail. The only drawback to their book, indeed, is that its pages are rather clogged with small particulars—as, for instance, that in the Town Hall at Adelaide, "beneath each window and about eight feet from the floor there is a ventilator," or that, in Tasmania, having sent a message to the telegraph office, they found an hour later that it had not been despatched, and the clerk returned them their shilling—a finale at which they "could not but feel highly satisfied." If Australia is not a picturesque country, it is not the fault of the Misses Hill, who make the most of their opportunities for entertainment, and express the liveliest admiration for the scenery of Mount Brown, Mount Remarkable, the Razor-Back Hills, the Murray River, and other local attractions. But their attention is chiefly devoted to the penal and penitentiary establishments, and their first visit on arriving in an Australian town is usually to the prison. Of these matters they have evidently made a special study, and are qualified to speak with authority; persons interested in similar enquiries will find in their book an abundance of facts and figures. The Misses Hill passed most of their time at Adelaide in South Australia, but afterwards went to Melbourne and Sydney, and, before returning home, paid a visit to Tasmania. They complain of the great ignorance which prevails in England as to Australian distances, and smile at the naïveté with which people who have friends going to New Zealand commend them to the civility of other friends in Australia. Sydney is, by sea, 1,100 miles from Adelaide, and New Zealand a six days' voyage, by steamer, from the nearest Australian city. This volume will perhaps be found a trifle dry to readers who resort to it for mere amusement, but—except for a little excess of rose-color—it cannot fail to be valuable to persons who desire information about Australia for practical ends. Unless for ends that are pretty sternly practical, our authors do not represent England's great antipodal empire as a very attractive residence. Their picture of it suggests a duller and more mechanical form of our own Western civilization—a West minus the politics and the "humor." The chief entertainment seems to be in making parties to visit "boarded-out children" and hear "lady-preachers." But upon the public works and internal administration of the country the Misses Hill are exact and exhaustive, and their book, moreover, is written in a most correct and agreeable style.

Library Notes. By A. P. Russell. (New York: Hurd & Houghton. 1875.)—It is usually thought invidious to call a man a bookworm, and there is a common impression that great scholars are not always great thinkers. The compiler of this agreeable volume may, however, in no unflattering sense be spoken of as a voracious reader. There are readers and readers—the readers who sift and weigh, and the readers for whom any printed matter has a more or less sacred character. Mr. Russell belongs rather to the latter class; he is not a critic, but a collector. He collects extracts as some other people collect almanacs and medals, and his hospitality is altogether impartial. It ranges from Thomas à Kempis to the author of 'Six Months at the White House,' and from Marcus Aurelius to Señor Castelar. His extracts are classed under heads, in the Emersonian taste—"Insufficiency," "Types," "Mutations," "Standards"; but the connection between the example and the category is not always very manifest. It is difficult to see, for instance, in what way it illustrates the subject of "Rewards" to quote from Crabbe Robinson that dogs sometimes kill themselves by barking at their own echo. This, however, is but a small drawback, as the book is of course meant to be very irregularly handled. Mr. Russell has been a multifarious reader, and if his taste is not always infallible—he has a limited sense of differences of value, and quotes dull passages with the same relish as fine ones—his book is the fruit of a real passion for literature, and is full of curious reflections and out-of-the-way facts. It justifies its title, and the reader, in turning its leaves, seems to inhale the pleasant, half-musty atmosphere of a well-conditioned but well-used old library.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*
Abbott (J. S. C.), American Pioneers and Patriots: Geo. Washington	(Dodd & Mead)
Buck (E.), Massachusetts Ecclesiastical Law; new ed.	(Congregational Pub. Society)
Baumstark (Prof. D. A.), Ausführliche Erläuterung des Allgemeinen Theiles der Germania des Tacitus, swd.	(L. W. Schmidt)
Baker (W. S.), American Engravers and their Works	(Gebbie & Parrie)
Church Almanac for 1876	(Pott, Young & Co.) 0 40
Du Boisgobey (F.), Search for Ancestors, swd.	(R. M. De Witt) 1 00
Fry (J. B.), Sketch of the Adjutant-General's Department, 1775 to 1875	(New York)
Johnson (Mary S.), Memorials of Charles Stoddard	(Congregational Pub. Co.)
Moulton (C. W.), Review of Gen. Sherman's Memoirs Examined, swd.	(Robt. Clarke & Co.) 0 50
Porter (Ad'l D. D.), Memoir of Commodore David Porter	(J. Munsell) 3 00
Prayer-Gauge Debate	(Congregational Pub. Co.)
Stubbs (Prof. W.), Constitutional History of England. Vol. 2	(Oxford) 4 50
Wessely (J. E.), Zur Kenntniss und zum Sammeln der Werke des Kunstdruckes, swd.	(L. W. Schmidt)
Werner (Rev. A.), Bonifacius, Apostel der Deutschen, swd.	(L. W. Schmidt)

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"The work forms an opulent treasury of information concerning Oriental manners and customs. It is to so great a degree the product of his own experience that it is pervaded by an atmosphere of freshness and vitality which entirely removes it from the region of scholastic discussion, and almost from that of didactic statement. It has all the vividness of poetical description, though founded on the accurate comparison of facts, with no symptom of the indulgence fancy. . . . Dr. Van Lennep has certainly performed a valuable service to Eastern geography, as well as to the literature of the Bible, by this copious collection of facts in illustration of the subjects. His work presents the sum of existing knowledge with regard to it in a singularly lucid and attractive form, furnishing an Oriental library of great interest in itself."—*N. Y. Tribune.*

"The branch of study thus indicated is not entirely new, but no writer so well equipped as Dr. Van Lennep has hitherto entered the field. Besides being a man of parts and learning, he has spent almost a lifetime in the East, and enjoyed unrivalled opportunities of intercourse with all classes of the people. A considerable portion of his picture, therefore, is drawn from the life."—*Appleton's Journal.*

". . . It merits the highest praise, showing, as it does, evidences of minute and careful research, commendable scholarship, and great patience in the gathering of material. The style is simple, yet possessing high literary merit."—*Boston Saturday Evening Gazette.*

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 13, 1876.

The Week.

CONGRESS reassembled on Wednesday, and on the same day Senator Morrill introduced a resumption bill, not as a party measure, he said, but "on his own responsibility." It authorizes the Treasury to sell bonds (bearing interest at not more than 4½ per cent.) for legal tenders, and retire the legal tenders; provides that all contracts made after January 1, 1878, shall be payable in gold, unless otherwise specified in advance; and requires all national banks to hold in coin as part of their reserve, from January 1, 1877, one-fourth of the whole, from January 1, 1878, one-half, and from October 1, 1878, three-fourths. The bill gave rise to a slight debate, during which Mr. Thurman took occasion to use some strong language as to the behavior of the majority in passing the resumption bill of the last session without debate, or even giving the minority a fair opportunity of examination. The bill was referred to the Committee on Finance. On Monday the vexed question of Mr. Ferry's powers and rights was raised, four resolutions being submitted by Mr. Morton, to the effect that the tenure of a President *pro tempore* of the Senate elected at one session does not expire at the meeting of Congress after the first recess, the Vice-President not having appeared to take the chair; that the death of the Vice-President does not have the effect to vacate the office of President *pro tempore* of the Senate; that the office of President *pro tempore* of the Senate is held at the pleasure of the Senate; that the Hon. Thomas W. Ferry, the Senator from Michigan, who was elected President *pro tempore* of the Senate at the last session, is now the President *pro tempore* by virtue of said election. Of these, the first two were unanimously carried. Mr. Conover, of Florida, has introduced some resolutions calling upon the President to "declare and maintain the strictest neutrality between the Government of Spain and the people of Cuba," and to put in force and operation "the same provisions made and enacted by the Government of Her Majesty the Queen of Spain, on June 17, 1861"—which means, we presume, a recognition of belligerency.

In the House there has been more activity. On Wednesday Mr. Casson introduced a resolution for the purpose of catching unwary Democrats, commending the soldiers and sailors for their gallant services, and urging their claims to office and to pensions; but the Democrats were not to be caught, and the resolution was agreed to amid great laughter. This was followed shortly after by another bumcombe measure, introduced by Mr. Fort of Illinois, insisting that the "wise and just" principle adopted by the vote on Mr. Casson's resolution ought to apply to the subordinate offices in the House of Representatives, and that in all such offices Union soldiers ought to have the preference over Confederates; but the previous question was not seconded, and, on motion of Mr. Fernando Wood, it was referred to the Centennial Committee. The next day the Centennial Appropriation came up, Mr. Hopkins from the committee reporting a bill granting $1,500,000, one-third payable immediately, and the remainder in four monthly instalments, with a proviso that the Government shall not be further liable for aid or for any debts contracted. This was referred to the Committee of the Whole. The Democratic majority then showed its indisposition to meddle with the currency question at present by voting down the previous question on an anti-contraction resolution, and referring it to the Committee of Ways and Means, and also adopted a resolution for the appointment of a select committee on the Mexican border outrages. On Monday there was an amnesty struggle, Mr. Randall having introduced a bill to amnesty everybody, and Mr. Blaine having offered an amendment excepting Jefferson Davis, which led to a good deal of filibustering, the defeat of Mr. Randall's bill for want of a two-thirds vote, and finally to a speech by Mr. Blaine, who went over the history of amnesty, showed that the Republican party was entitled to the lasting gratitude of the South for its clemency since the war, explained that only about 750 rebels were unamnestied now, and justified his amendment excluding Davis from any general amnesty on account of his criminal connivance at the Andersonville barbarities during the Rebellion.

There are a good many reasons why amnesty should be refused Jefferson Davis, and we agree with Mr. Blaine in thinking his moral responsibility for Andersonville one of them. Mr. Hill of Georgia, an ex-Confederate Senator, who replied to Mr. Blaine, had a right to deny this responsibility, but he made a great mistake in attempting to whitewash the rebel prisons. He was addressing men who had seen the skeletons that came alive out of Andersonville or had survived the horrors of Belle Isle, and he might as well have offered statistics to prove that there had been no Rebellion as that the names of those and other Southern prison-camps are not justly to be for ever infamous as scenes of needless, wanton, devilish inhumanity. One who has ever read of the Federal prisoners' makeshifts for shelter, or, as was still possible after the war, has seen the burrows into which they crawled, or has ever stood before a collection of the implements which they shaped as best they might, knows how long a step towards savagery they were driven to take by their savage keepers. On this subject the North has made up its mind, and Southern members of Congress who desire to get "the bloody shirt" out of politics had better refrain from following the example of Mr. Hill. Difficult as it is to prove Davis's direct part in these atrocities, it is more difficult to relieve him of immediate moral responsibility for them, seeing that he was not in ignorance of the facts, and that he never lifted a finger even by way of protest. It is worth while to remind Congressmen, too, that Wirtz was found guilty by a court-martial of "conspiring and confederating" with Jefferson Davis, and others, in the cruel treatment of Federal prisoners for which he was hung. It would be simple stultification to amnesty his military superior, who looked upon his conduct with indifference or approval.

The President has sent to the Senate the name of E. C. Billings as United States Judge, in place of Durell, who resigned to avoid impeachment. When his intention of making this nomination was first announced, a good many people expressed the belief that it was impossible, inasmuch as it would simply be getting rid of Durell to put in his place the man who advised the acts for which Durell was removed. Billings has been a good deal "mixed up" in Louisiana politics. His enemies say he is the same Billings who had a great deal to do with the illegal midnight order issued by Judge Durell, by the aid of which he and his political friends captured the State government; the same Billings who was Kellogg's counsel; the same Billings who wrote to Kellogg with a view to suppressing evidence before the Senate Committee. This cannot be, however; for we know that General Grant is greatly interested in the reform of the judiciary at the South, and only the other day expressed unfeigned surprise on hearing that Moses and Whipper had been made judges by the South Carolina Legislature. He could hardly believe it, and was reported as calling the particular attention of his informant to the fact that these were not common political places, but *judicial* offices, requiring men of training, high professional standing, purity, and honor to fill them. The fact is, we suppose, that he is just now so much engrossed with devising schemes for our protection against the Pope and the churches that he has hardly time to look into qualifications for office or keep the run of mere politics.

Some of our journalists shed much lustre on their vocation last week when they accepted Mr. Reverdy Johnson's decision in

the Schenck case as final. The question of Schenck's guilt or innocence is not in the least a legal question; it is a moral one; and it belongs to a class of subjects on which journalists are constantly preaching—some of them with loud yells and vituperation. If there be anything in the world on which they proclaim their competency to pass final judgment, it is stock transactions and official propriety. The idea that they would let a lawyer, however eminent, settle the right or wrong of such things for them, has probably never until now entered anybody's mind. But last week, although they had had all Mr. Johnson's facts before them for some weeks, some of them, on reading him, surrendered their judgment with as much docility and alacrity as if they were boarding-school misses listening to an exposition from a minister, and had never heard of such naughty men as Park and Stewart, and had to have stock operations and bubble companies explained to them. "Dear me!" they said, "and so poor General Schenck was calumniated by those wicked editors after all; isn't it too bad? There is Mr. Reverdy Johnson, who says he has done nothing wrong whatever, and what a pity he did not speak sooner, and save the dear old General all this fuss and worry. But how dreadful of Mr. Park and Mr. Stewart to deceive him in this way about their horrid mine, and their shares and things, and get all his property away from him. They have already got his house now, Mr. Johnson says, and he will have nowhere to live when he comes home. Why, he'll have to go to a hotel, won't he?"

The Wiard correspondence came into Mr. Johnson's hands soon after he wrote his letter about the Emma Mine affair, and he judiciously handed it over to Mr. Schenck himself, who wrote an unctuous letter in reply, not denying the genuineness of his letter to Wiard, but explaining that he made nothing by agreeing to push the Machado claim. The case as it now stands, with Mr. Schenck's own explanation before us, and one since made by Wiard himself, is that Schenck, being in a sort of partnership with this Wiard (who is a person of very indifferent reputation) in the manufacture of ordnance, received after he went to England notice of the conclusion of a contract between Wiard and a certain Machado, by which, if Schenck took up a claim made by the latter and obtained payment of it, Wiard was to receive $100,000, but nothing if the payment was not obtained by Schenck. Schenck, on hearing of this, did not repudiate the arrangement or rebuke Wiard for making it, but rebuked him for letting his name appear in the papers, and, about the contract itself, said "he would look into the case and ascertain what could be done"—*i.e.*, would see whether he could not earn the money for Wiard. From letters since published, it appears that Wiard had the contract altered to suit Schenck's objections, meaning, we suppose, that he left his name out. Schenck is now very indignant over the publication of his "private papers," and declares he cannot understand the "strangely cruel malignity" with which he has been "recently pursued." We think we can throw some light on the matter. He is "pursued" because he has been, while American Minister in London, engaged in disreputable transactions, by which hundreds of honest foreigners have been grossly cheated and dishonor brought on the American name, and because those decent Americans who are sensitive about the national fame want him to resign and come home. If he will do so, millions will hear of his return with joy, and we are sure the press will stop "meddling with his private affairs." Apropos of Mr. Schenck's operations, we have to call attention to the report that Mr. Francis Thomas, the late United States Minister to Peru, is now before the courts of that country in a case arising out of his lending money to several Peruvians at 18 per cent. interest, on pledge of necklaces, brooches, rings, and other jewels. In fact, he seems to have been doing a small pawnbroking business during his diplomatic service, and he is now applying to the courts for permission to sell his pledges. The question which this naturally suggests, and which we trust has occurred to Mr. Fish, is, what shall we next hear of in this line? We may mention here that the Centennial Commissioners deny having in any way accredited Forney to act for them in Europe. But he has nevertheless been passing himself off as their agent, and giving himself the lofty title of "International Commissioner," and has been making as much noise in Europe as the Commission itself, and the Commission have accepted such service as he has chosen to render. Now, we hold they are, considering his character, bound to repudiate and disown him. There are surely moral contributions due to the Centennial as well as material ones, and the Commissioners ought to be the first to make them. No man ought to speak for them anywhere in times like these who is not above reproach.

The Mayor has nominated Fitz John Porter as Commissioner of Public Works for six years, but there seems to be little chance of his confirmation. The aldermen are politically, of course, opposed to the Mayor, though the great reform tide which carried them into office has subsided somewhat since the election. The service rendered by General Porter to the public in making a stand against the communistic system of public works has at last attracted the attention of the property-owners themselves, and a number of taxpayers petitioned the committee having the matter in charge for a hearing. This was rather late in the day for a movement of the sort, and it is much to be regretted that these same gentlemen did not bestir themselves before the election, when they might have done much to arouse public opinion to a sense of the true nature of the "reform" movement, and have prevented the reformers from carrying all before them. The committee of course reported adversely. What this movement really was, was beautifully shown the other day in the solemn passage by the aldermen of a resolution binding themselves not to vote for any commissioner who would not pledge himself in advance to pay the laborers two dollars a day. It was then pointed out to the aldermen that such a pledge would, under the constitution and laws, amount to felony, and any one giving it would have to be indicted; on learning this, they reconsidered the vote. The "reform" papers are very calm now, and seldom refer to the late election, except in a dignified and remote way, as a matter with which they had nothing to do and which was decided wholly by "the people."

The suits between Mr. Bowen and the Brooklyn *Eagle* were not compromised. Mr. Bowen withdrew unconditionally, although the defendant's answer contained a list of bubble companies which, it alleged, had been puffed, for money, in the columns of the *Independent*, and of offers or threats, in the nature of blackmail, made by the publisher of that paper to induce people to advertise with him. The case is a pretty shocking one, but we doubt if it will make much impression on the ministers who write for Mr. Bowen or on the clerical trustees of the Congregational Union. The *Methodist* had recently some very good observations on the rapid growth among us of a good-humored and even jocose view of stealing (including, we presume, under that term all dishonest modes of getting money), somewhat resembling the view common among the Latin races about unchastity. We smile now, and the clergy have begun to join us, when we hear or say that so-and-so has been lying or cheating or levying blackmail. The *Methodist* wants to have the ministers take the matter up seriously in their pulpits, and preach about it. We propose that they do not wait till they go up into the pulpit, but take it up in the vestry and in their studies and in their newspaper offices, and *act* as if they really thought there was a certain force in the Eighth Commandment.

Two resumption bills of importance have made their appearance in the House, one introduced by Mr. Morrison, and the other by Mr. Payne, of Ohio. The former directs the Treasury to accumulate a coin reserve "from all sources in excess of the requirements of the public debt," till it amounts to thirty per cent. of the outstanding Government notes; requires every national bank to retain the coin

interest paid on its bonds deposited against circulation, to the amount of the present legal reserve, and in addition to this an amount sufficient (together with these legal reserves) to equal thirty per cent. of its circulation, the whole to be held as a coin reserve against circulation; repeals the Legal Tender Act, the repeal to take effect as soon as the thirty per cent. is actually on hand in the Treasury and the banks; and, finally, repeals so much of the Resumption Act of last year as pledges the Treasury to resumption on January 1, 1879. Mr. Payne's bill also repeals this pledge; establishes a fund for Treasury resumption consisting of five per cent. of all the specie coming from customs; requires the banks also to retain and accumulate five per cent. of their bond interest as security for the redemption of their notes; and provides that the date of resumption shall be determined at a conference between the Secretary and the banks. Both these bills have an air of sincerity, as they provide the means of resuming; but the practice of repealing pledges when making new ones makes the new ones no more valuable than the old. If there should be a Republican majority in the next Congress, why should they not put a stop to this accumulation of gold and try something else? The moral of it all seems to be, Get the currency out of the hands of Congress as soon as possible.

The foreign money markets have been more or less agitated during the week by the apprehension of political complications in regard to the Eastern question, but at the close there was a more tranquil feeling. The Bank of England took another step to prevent the flow of gold from its vaults to the Continent by putting its minimum discount rate up to five per cent. This step proved effectual so far as Paris was concerned; and although exchange between London and Paris has not been changed to the degree of warranting the shipment of gold from the latter to the former, yet as the week closed the rates of sterling at Paris were tending to that point. Exchange between New York and London has continued steady, all the bills on London against the recent negotiation of Baltimore and Ohio and Philadelphia and Reading bonds not having been sold apparently. These bills have been taken by bankers who have been importing United States bonds, and who, had it not been for this supply, would have been compelled to send gold to London—the available supply of commercial paper having been no larger than was needed to meet the demand of merchants having remittances to make. The gold market has been firmer than during the preceding week, on account of the foreign news respecting the Eastern question, and because it is seen that, unless something intervenes to check the return of United States bonds to this country, gold will soon begin to figure in our exports. The New York banks, however, are gaining gold by reason of the Treasury interest payments, and now hold nearly $25,000,000. The condition of the money market has not been notable, except for the efforts of Stock-Exchange speculators to check the downward tendency of rates. Currency is flowing to this centre from all points. The January investments have had their usual effect on all classes of good securities, and prices have advanced. In the movement of the leading staples of the country there has been more activity both in cotton and Western products. The gold price of $100 greenbacks has ranged during the week between $89 88 and $88 30.

The *Daily Bulletin* has been publishing some statistics, which are certainly worth attention, as to the taxation imposed upon us since the war. In 1870, the taxes of all kinds levied amounted to about $730,000,000, and it is safe to say that they have not been materially reduced since. Putting the annual national savings at $500,000,000, our taxes amount to considerably more than our surplus. That we were able to pay such taxes and still accumulate wealth showed undoubtedly a great elasticity and a steady progress; but it was also clear that at no distant day this elasticity would give out and progress come temporarily to a standstill. The comparison made by the *Bulletin* between the growth of population and that of taxes does not seem so conclusive as a mere statement of the enormous figures the taxes themselves have reached. Since 1860, the population may have increased 40 per cent., while the ordinary expenses of the Government may have increased 200 per cent.; but then the wealth of the country may have increased in a far greater ratio than the population. And we may say the same thing of the relation between the increase in New York of 36 per cent. in population to 300 in taxation. A comparison between the increase of the market value of real estate and the increase of the burdens it has to bear would show more strikingly than anything how bad a system we have been enduring. The gradual process by which, in thriving cities like New York and Boston, taxation has gradually risen through wasteful expenditure and fraud, till in many cases the assessed valuation of property equals or is even higher than its actual value in the market, is a very good gauge of the progress from good government to bad.

There is naturally more excitement in Europe over the Thomas, or Thomassen, or Alexander affair than here, because the victims lived there; but, considering the terror that the affair has added to ocean travel, and the great extent to which ocean travelling is done by Americans, the wonder is people are not more troubled here. Nothing, or next to nothing, would seem to have been discovered as yet about his antecedents. Even his wife denies all knowledge of his real name, after eleven years of married life; but he appears to have been a man of education, and of sufficient charm of manners to have been a favorite in society in Dresden. His crime called out a discussion in the German press, in which he was set down as a legitimate product of American civilization, which roused the indignation of the Americans in Germany, and led to a foolish meeting to protest, besides some apparently fruitless enquiries into Thomas's origin. He is also furnishing material for studies in morbid psychology to the London papers, the *Spectator*, in particular, finding him a rich subject. One of the mysteries it finds in him is that he should be willing to kill so many people in order to get a little money, but we suspect he is not singular in this. Thousands of criminals would kill many hundreds to get a thousand dollars, if it were necessary or easy. The attempts to throw railroad trains off the track, and the despatch of unseaworthy ships to sea, and wholesale arson for the sake of plunder, are illustrations of just the state of mind that is found so puzzling in Thomas, and these have not been very uncommon. The curious thing in the case is that a man of so much nerve should have committed suicide on seeing his scheme miscarry, for the slaughter can hardly have appalled him. What is perhaps most alarming about it is the indication it affords of the gradual ascent of crime among the better educated classes, and the turning of keen commercial ability to criminal enterprises. On this subject, the history of the silent conflict which has gone on for years between safemakers and the better class of burglars would throw some instructive and entertaining light.

It appears probable at this writing that England, France, and Italy will give in their adhesion to Count Andrássy's note, if they have not already done so, and it has been presented to the Porte and replied to. There is little doubt it has been taken in good part, and a promise made to execute it. The general belief in Europe is that the execution will be guaranteed by an Austrian military force; but Austria herself proposes as yet only consular and ambassadorial supervision, and denies that any order has been given for the mobilization of her troops. There are still reports of fighting, with severe reverses for the insurgents, but no reverses are now likely to daunt them, with Europe in consultation over their case. The Sultan is reported as still utterly insensible to the situation, and busy with the construction of a grand mosque which will make his memory illustrious.

GOVERNOR TILDEN ON THE NATIONAL FINANCES.

WHAT Mr. Tilden says about the national finances is worthy of attention on other than economical grounds, because he is the only Democratic politician of prominence, unless Mr. Bayard can be called a prominent politician, who professes to have, and has promulgated, any strong and clearly-defined opinions on the subject. Nor is there anything remarkable in his giving so much space to it in his message. In fact, the suggestion that he should confine himself in that document to the discussion of State affairs borders on the absurd. As long as this State pays from fifty to eighty millions a year of the taxes of the Federal Government, and is the principal commercial State in the Union, the condition of the currency, and the mode of collecting and disbursing the revenue, must be matters of paramount importance to its people. Moreover, it is difficult to overestimate the value of the discussion of financial questions in a rational manner by persons whose position gives them the ear of the farmers. We in the great cities, who see profound thinkers and eminent economists in the horse-cars every day by the dozen, and are burdened by the quantity of reading matter which besets us, have little idea of the care and perseverance with which the country voter works through a President's or a Governor's message, or even the oratory of the *Congressional Globe*.

Mr. Tilden's position with regard to the currency is that it is fallacious to suppose that the amount of the currency has any constant or determining influence on prices; that prices are mainly raised by the extension of bank credits, and that this extension is called for by a feverish condition of the popular imagination about the probable course of trade in the immediate future; that because low prices and a small volume of currency, and high prices and a large volume, have often been found concomitant phenomena, they have been erroneously put in the relation of cause and effect; that it has been supposed, but is not true, that if everybody found himself with two gold coins in his pocket instead of one, he would pay double price for his commodities; and, finally, that the ratio of currency to prices is not accurately computable. This is nearly all true; but, like nearly every proposition in economical science, is true with many limitations and reserves, into which we do not purpose entering here. Mr. Tilden evidently introduces it all with the view of preparing us for the theory, which he seems to entertain, that we do not need contraction in order to get back to specie payments; and he pushes this theory into prominence evidently by way of a sedative for the popular nerves, which he thinks are unduly excited by fear that the resumption of specie payments will be attended by a great convulsion. He undertakes to show that we can get back to specie payments without any extraordinary disturbance of trade or industry or contracts. Whatever can be done ought to be done to make this clear, because Mr. Tilden is quite right in attaching great importance in all financial matters to the condition of the popular mind. Finance is really a department of psychology, though constantly treated as if it were a branch of mechanics. Now here is Mr. Tilden's plan:

> "After eleven years of convulsion without a restoration of specie payments, it [the public temper] now claims a restoration of specie payments without a convulsion. The problem does not seem difficult. Resumption by the Government will accomplish completely resumption by the banks. The Treasury has only, by gradual and prudent measures, to provide for the payment of such portion of the outstanding Treasury notes as the public, not wishing to retain for use, will return upon it for redemption. The sum required in coin, if the preparations be wisely conducted so as to secure public confidence, will be what is necessary to replace the fractional currency and to supply such individuals as prefer coin to paper for their little stores of money; and also what is necessary to constitute a central reservoir of reserves against the fluctuations of international balances and for the banks. To amass a sufficient quantity by intercepting from the current of precious metals flowing out of this country, and by acquiring from the stocks which exist abroad, without disturbing the equilibrium of foreign money markets, is a result to be worked out by a study of all the conditions and the elements to fulfil those conditions, and by the execution of the plans adopted with practical skill and judgment. Redemption beyond this provision of coin can be effected as other business payments are effected—or in any method which converts investments without interest into investments upon interest, on terms the holders will accept—and by such measures as would keep the aggregate amount of the currency self-adjusting during all the process, without creating at any time an artificial scarcity, and without exciting the public imagination with alarms which impair confidence, contract the whole large machinery of credit, and disturb the natural operations of business. The best resource for redemption is that furnished by public economies, for it creates no new charge upon the people; and a stronger public credit is certain to result from sounder finance, and will reduce the annual cost of the national debt."

It cannot be said that this is very clear. We have examined it closely, and cannot find in it anything definite enough for the public mind to take hold of and ponder, or anything on which it is possible for the friends of speedy resumption to rally. How is the Treasury to know how much of the outstanding Treasury notes the public, "not wishing to retain for use," will return upon it for redemption? If it does not know, or cannot approximate to it pretty closely, how is the Treasury to prepare for redemption "by gradual and prudent measures"? The theory of the greater number of intelligent resumptionists is that the Treasury must contract—that is, destroy on receiving them—a sufficient number of greenbacks to do away with the discount on them, or, in common parlance, to do away with the premium on gold. There is no escaping from this process. The Secretary may either destroy greenbacks which he receives in payment of Government dues or he may go into the market and procure greenbacks for destruction by selling gold, as he does now. The latter Mr. Tilden would doubtless call "redemption," and the former "contraction"; but they are essentially the same thing, and one or other is inevitable, and to the extent necessary to remove any profit in the exchange of legal tenders for coin. The reason is obvious. As long as the discount on paper exists, it is impossible to say how much gold would be necessary to enable the Government to resume and continue specie payments. The probabilities are that more would be necessary than it could possibly accumulate, or, at all events, accumulate without causing serious disturbance in the money markets of the world, because as soon as it was announced that the Government would begin to redeem on a certain day, the eagerness to save the discount on the greenbacks would be great enough to cause a run on the Treasury, and to throw the public mind into a condition of feverish excitement, and to throw the Treasury off its balance. Mr. Tilden talks of "such individuals as prefer coin to paper for their little stores of money," as if they were a small and insignificant body. They are a small and insignificant body when gold and paper are at par. Give them the right to save even five per cent. discount on their paper, and they would include everybody you meet in the street. There is, in short, only one indication to which the Treasury can trust in this matter, in trying to ascertain how much paper there is in excess of popular needs, and how much it must get out of the way before it can safely offer to redeem all Government notes on presentation, and that is the amount of the discount on greenbacks. This may not bear an accurate mathematical relation to the excess of paper now afloat, but it bears a sufficient relation for practical purposes. Let the Government either buy and destroy greenbacks or receive and destroy greenbacks until $100 in legal tenders brings $100 in gold in Wall Street, and it may then safely offer to pay gold to such individuals as prefer coin to paper for their little stores of money, for they are the only persons who will come to it.

Then, again, how much coin is "necessary to constitute a central reservoir of reserves against the fluctuations of international balances, and for the banks"? Does Mr. Tilden mean that the Government should undertake to form this reservoir, and if so, why? How does it come to be part of the duty of the Government to provide the means of settling international balances? Is not this the duty and business of bankers? What, too, is the method or measure "which would keep the aggregate amount of the currency self-adjusting" during the process of resumption? If Mr. Tilden himself knows of any such instrumentality, he ought to have described it in distinct terms. If he does not know of it, he ought not to impose the duty of providing it on the Government. It is safe to say that no such process has as yet been revealed in financial history. The aggregate amount of the currency is determined every-

where by its redeemability in coin and the exportability of the coin. There is no sign of the discovery of any other, except through the total cessation of international trade, and we regret to see vague intimations like this thrown out by prominent men that there is some agency within the reach of legislation by which the amount of money needed by the country can be fixed from time to time. It is these shadowy allusions which create the chimeras which the Kelleys, Butlers, and Phillipses go about preaching to the workingmen, and which are really, by their bad effects on the popular imagination, the greatest obstacles to a return to a sound currency.

THE TAXATION OF CHURCH PROPERTY.

THE most conclusive reply, considered from a merely controversial point of view, that has been made to General Grant's proposal to tax church property, is contained in the letters on the subject written by Tax-Commissioner Andrews, and now appearing in the *Times*. The President in his message announces the "accumulation of vast amounts of untaxed church property" as an evil that, "if permitted to continue, will probably lead to great trouble in our land before the close of the nineteenth century." He estimates the amount of this untaxed property to have been, in 1850, $83,000,000; declares that in 1860 it had doubled; estimates the present amount at $1,000,000,000, and predicts that by 1900 this property, "without check," will reach a sum "exceeding $3,000,000,000"; and, solemnly assuring us that such accumulations will not be looked upon "acquiescently" by the taxpayers, but may lead to "sequestration through blood," advises the taxation of all property equally, "exempting only the last resting-place of the dead, and possibly, with proper restrictions, church edifices."

In reply to this gloomy warning Mr. Andrews shows, first, that New York (and there is no material difference of law on this subject throughout the country), defines "church property," which the President says is growing at such a fearful rate, as simply "every building for public worship"—in other words, the churches and meeting-houses—and "the several lots upon which such buildings are situated," and the "furniture" belonging to them. Secondly, as to his suggestion that the "last resting-place of the dead" be exempted, Mr. Andrews shows that cemeteries, at any rate many of the most important of them, lying near cities which prohibit burials within the municipal limits, are mere stock companies "earning and declaring dividends," and "just as fairly subject to taxation as a bank of discount." In the third place, Mr. Andrews shows very conclusively that the figures given by the President—except those taken from the census for past years—are mere guesswork. Any one who looks at them will see that the President assumes that because the value of church property doubled in ten years between 1850 and 1860, therefore it has done the same and much more ever since. On the same principle it can be shown that the population of any thriving village in the United States will, in a given number of years, equal that of New York. Finally, even admitting the President's wild figures, there would still be no danger of "sequestration through blood," for the simple reason that the whole vast $3,000,000,000 would in 1900 not belong to one privileged church, but would be divided among forty or fifty, none of which could be united against the others in a communistic raid, except on grounds which would prove fatal to its own possessions, while no possible division of forces into the churches on one side and the taxpayers on the other is possible, since it is the taxpayers who compose the churches, and therefore any movement to "sequestrate through blood" would be a movement of property-owners to destroy their own property for their own benefit.

But though Mr. Andrews thus conclusively disposes of the President's feeble attempt to put forward a church policy, the facts and arguments which he has thus far adduced do not touch the general question of church exemption at all. The main, and indeed only, ground on which the exemption of church property from taxation in modern times can be made to rest is a moral one. Church possessions stand, it is said, on a different footing from all other kinds of property from the fact that they are devoted to higher uses—to uses which it is peculiarly the interest of the state to foster. Differing as they all do from one another in points of creed and dogma, the churches are at one in their general aim of keeping alive and elevating the moral tone of the community, of setting before it lofty standards of purity, of right, and noble examples of self-devotion and sacrifice, and of applying to human action ethical sanctions of a higher order than those of the courts of justice or even of worldly opinion. Churches are, in fact, corporations which perform a very essential, difficult, and praiseworthy office, without pay or reward in this world. So meritorious and necessary has this service seemed to be in other countries that the state has taken the church under its protection in various ways. In this country, however, it has been left to take care of itself; it gets no state support, or countenance, or honor, and is left to struggle for existence as best it may. In a peculiarly commercial society like our own this places it at a positive disadvantage. Other "institutions" have for their support the universal desire of mankind to earn a livelihood and to save a competence. Law or medicine will never suffer for want of state support, simply because all people will pay lawyers to save their property from damage, or doctors to save their bodies from disease. The church, however, has no such motives to appeal to. It does not teach men to be economical, prudent, or thrifty; it teaches generosity, forgiveness, self-sacrifice, and a number of other virtues not at all calculated to help a man in "getting on" in the world. Is it fair to suppose that such an institution as this will pay its way, and are we not bound to do what we can for it by exempting it from the usual burdens of property? In other words, the church is an institution of the highest possible utility to the state, for its object and practice is to spread abroad voluntarily a love of truth, justice, and right, on which the well-being of the state depends. To foster such a public object as this by a small grant (for this is what an exemption amounts to) seems little enough.

If the modern church were what this argument represents it to be, there might be nothing to say in reply; but as it is, the advocate of the taxation of church property might fairly object, Your picture of the modern church is a fancy sketch. You have brought forward as a description of the existing church a collection of ideal views, which bear no resemblance to the reality. The modern church is no doubt, so far as the men who unselfishly devote their lives to it in the pulpit and in missions are concerned, an institution aiming at the noble object you mention; but so far as it consists of a number of associations with the right to take and own property, to sell pews, to buy organs, to hire ministers and organists, to erect costly buildings on expensive corner lots, it resolves itself into corporations of a purely business character, conducted on purely business principles. When we examine the reasons why in any thriving modern community a man owns a pew, or becomes a shareholder in a religious corporation, in nine cases out of ten it turns out to be that he expects to get back, in social consideration and other solid advantages, every cent that he puts into it. On Sundays, indeed, he and his family get returns for the investment a good deal like those which a club-man derives from his club on week-days. His church is to him a sort of Sunday club, out of which the family gets society, social consideration, some good music, and the "privileges of the house." The money which he and his friends put in, if spent in accordance with the principles which are preached from every pulpit every Sunday morning, would go first to the erection of a modest, unostentatious house of worship, which would be put up on a side street and not a "corner lot"; and, second, to bringing within the reach of the poor (*i.e.*, the class especially in need of help and enlightenment) the benefits of religious and moral teaching. Instead of anything of the kind, the money goes first to the purchase of the most expensive lot that can be got for the money at command; second, to the erection of a gorgeous church a little bigger and higher than any put up before; third, to what we may call a band of music, a little more skil-

ful than any other in the neighborhood; and fourth, if possible, to the salary of a minister who will, by striking preaching, attract more money. Everything, from the corner-stone up, is based on money, and the result is, as we say, a Sunday club, from which those most in need of religious help are rigidly excluded; in other words, the main object of the state subsidy is wholly frustrated. It would only be a little step further if churches were carried on like a railroad or bank, with "puts" and "calls" on the stock sold in Wall Street, and an occasional "gobble" of one church by its wealthy neighbor further "up the avenue." Indeed, as a curious illustration of the effect of this business system on church morality and decency, take the story which has been recently published without contradiction in this city with regard to a well-known church that is practically bankrupt, that the stockholders, feeling that the church was "good" for the first mortgage, but for no more, were going to let the second mortgagees foreclose, so that the church might be "bought in" at the price of the first mortgage. The pastor himself is reported to have said coolly in an "interview" that the second mortgagees will have to be "left out in the cold," or, in other words, that the church will be reorganized as a broken-down railroad or an insolvent bank might be.

That there is a great deal of truth in this cannot be denied, and it all points necessarily to taxation of those branches of the church to which it applies. So long as the church was an organization which did a noble and necessary work, which nobody else would or could do, and among those who could not do it for themselves, there was the same (or a greater) reason for exempting it from taxation that there is still for exempting schools and colleges; but if, in certain quarters, as is the fact, the grant of the subsidy has simply resulted in the abandonment of this work, and the conversion of the church into a collection of Sunday clubs for wealthy people who manage them with an eye to the main chance, the reason for the grant, or the exemption, is so far gone. It is hardly necessary to say that the church organizations to which this applies are the wealthy churches of the cities. The country churches—or, in other words, the church at large—stand on a different footing. But the accumulations of property in the shape of churches in the cities are pretty sure to use the name of "church" as a cover to a good many social objects which are not elevated and have a distinct money value. There is still one church, it is true, which does keep up its proper work among the poor and unenlightened, and which is, if any church is, entitled to exemption on that ground. But, on the other hand, the Catholic Church in this country is, perhaps, in as little need of assistance from the state as any, for it has a firmer hold than any other on the affections, veneration, and superstition of its members. There is no church which is able to obtain more money than it, from both rich and poor. It is, indeed, now building in this city a cathedral far surpassing in expense any edifice for church purposes previously put up in this country. The effect of a tax on city church property hereafter acquired would, in the case of the Catholic Church, amount to little more than putting it on a level with the Protestants, while in the case of the latter it would simply be the withdrawal of a bonus to real estate and social speculations of a most demoralizing kind.

THE REVIVAL OF THE LIBERAL PARTY.

London, December 20, 1875.

I MENTIONED to you last year that the leaders of the Liberal party in this country had opened a club in London which, in honor of the long connection of the House of Cavendish with their party, they called the Devonshire Club—the Duke of Devonshire being the head of the House of Cavendish, and his eldest son, the Marquis of Hartington, being the leader of the Liberal party in the House of Commons. A friend has just shown me the rules of this successful institution, and it is somewhat curious to observe that the condition of membership, as laid down by these rules, has become the party watchword. "Those persons only are eligible for admission," the rule states, "who, entertaining liberal principles, recognize individual freedom of political opinion combined with unity in party action." The composition may not be Addisonian—one can hardly imagine Addison speaking of "entertaining a principle"—but the idea of Parliamentary Liberalism which the framers of the rule apparently intended to embody in grammatical English is tolerably clear. The idea has been expressed by Lord Hartington on three different public occasions—at Lewes last spring, at Bristol about six weeks ago, and at Sheffield last week. It comes to this, that the individuals composing the Liberal party in Parliament and in the constituencies may entertain any opinions in the direction of freedom which they like, and may express them freely, provided only that when they are called upon to vote, either in the House of Commons or in the constituencies, they sink their individual opinions in favor of the measure, or the candidate, which, or whom, the bulk of the Liberal party favor. This is the only creed by which the Liberal party can exist as half of the Government of the country. Lord Hartington has seen this early, and has lost no opportunity of giving articulate expression to it, and his propaganda has not been altogether fruitless. The gaps in the Liberal ranks are closing up both outside and inside Parliament. The sheep of the front Opposition bench who were left without a shepherd when Mr. Cardwell retired to the House of Lords, and Mr. Gladstone went forth like David with a sling and a stone to do battle with the huge Ultramontane Philistine, roamed aimlessly about the hillside, not knowing how to turn or where to find a bell-wether for their guide. But now they have found in Lord Hartington the animal they want, and one after the other they have given him their adhesion, and are browsing peaceably together and putting on a good consistent flesh, as well-disposed sheep ought to do. Mr. Forster, Mr. Stansfeld, and Mr. Göschen have all openly expressed their willingness to be led by him. Mr. Lowe probably liked him better than any one else from the beginning, except himself, and he knew that he himself was never possible. Sir William Harcourt may not quite like to see his own pretensions brushed aside; but his likings or dislikings in the matter are not of much political importance. And in the body of the House of Commons Lord Hartington's position is now well established. The speech which he made at the close of the session reviewing the proceedings of the Government, and his character for political frankness and consistent honesty, have told among all but the most factious of those who sit upon his side of the House. They know him to be a man of high honor, of good sense, and of an intellectual capacity quite as great as that of any other possible leader. They see that he is willing to sink his own natural tastes and predilections, which are not necessarily those of the politician, in the interest of the party, and to serve it by leading it, and by bringing all the great influence of his house and connection to bear upon and advance its welfare. Mr. Fawcett, Mr. Mundella, and Mr. Trevelyan may be regarded as the leading men of the Left Centre in the House of Commons—if, without leading to confusion, I may borrow a term from across the Channel. They were the chief supporters of Mr. Forster in the contest for the leadership of the Opposition last year. Indeed, unless I am mistaken, they constituted the triumvirate who conducted the negotiations on his behalf. The two first, in addressing their constituents recently, have openly and directly owned allegiance to Lord Hartington, and Mr. Trevelyan has indirectly done the same thing. Mr. Trevelyan is one of the best of the younger men in the House of Commons, and he has had the good luck, or the good sense, to be prominently identified with some of the most telling Liberal movements of the last ten years. A Radical Association starting in Manchester appointed Mr. Trevelyan their president. They held a meeting the other day which their president, owing to illness, was unable to attend. Their proceedings and speeches, in which they repudiated the leadership of Lord Hartington, were marked by such eccentricity that Mr. Trevelyan found himself compelled to write from his bed of sickness formally resigning his office of president. He has recently, before his illness, been occupied in bringing out a life of his uncle, Lord Macaulay, and this work has to some extent detached him from politics; but from the action which he has taken in the matter of the Manchester association it may fairly be conjectured that when he returns to his political duties he will be as loyal to Lord Hartington's leadership as he has always been to the party which Lord Hartington leads.

The moderate Liberals, therefore, and the Left Centre inside the House of Commons, having accepted Lord Hartington, who, you may ask, are those who refuse such obedience as a Liberal Opposition yields to any leader? They may be divided into three classes—Irish Home-Rulers, Irreconcilables, and Fanatics. The Home-Rulers represent only themselves, and any small influence which they might have had during the last days of Mr. Gladstone's administration is practically gone. Mr. Disraeli is independent of their support, and openly—almost ostentatiously—disregards them. Lord Hartington has told them that the Liberal party will never coun-

tenance their policy, and his words have been endorsed by every man of sense on this side of the Irish Channel, and by most men of sense upon their own side. Even the Radical Association at Manchester declined to buy their support at the price of the disintegration of the Empire. The game, in short, is played out, and before the Irish members can be successfully troublesome to either the present or to any future administration they must originate a policy which commends itself to the practical intelligence of the ordinary Briton.

The Irreconcilables are not numerous, neither are they influential. There always will be some of them in every Parliament, and they must be considered in estimating the available forces of the Liberal party. They generally vote with them, and thus help them when in Opposition; but when the party is in power they are a source of embarrassment rather than of strength. The Fanatics are even fewer than the Irreconcilables. Sir Wilfrid Lawson and Mr. Plimsoll I should put in this class, and perhaps Mr. Jenkins—a gentleman who holds some office connected with Canada—and the distinction I should draw between them is this: that the two former are objectively fanatical for the advancement of a moral principle, or the welfare of a class, while the fanaticism of the latter inclines rather to the side of subjectivity.

If inside the House of Commons the doctrine of individual liberty combined with unity in party action is gaining converts, it appears also, from such sources as are available, that outside in the constituencies it is also making way. You may divide the great Liberal party into five, ten, or twenty sections. For convenience, I would here limit the division to five: Moderate Liberals (including the Whigs), Radicals, Workingmen, Permissive-Bill men, and Scotch farmers. In the constituencies, the first three are pulling fairly well together, while the two last are fighting for their own hands. In the municipal elections the Liberals have had marked successes, and although too much importance must not be attached to this, it shows at least that the three principal sections of the party have not been, thus far, at each other's throats. A seat which seemed hopelessly lost at the general election has just been gained after a keen contest, and one or two seats which are at present vacant are not unlikely to be successfully contested—one of them by a workingman's candidate. In a Scotch constituency a Moderate Liberal, connected by birth with some of the leading Whig families, withdrew in favor of a tenant-farmer for fear of dividing the party and endangering the seat, thus setting an example of loyalty and discipline which can hardly fail to be beneficial to his party. These are all indications of a reviving sense of stability in the party, and are pointed to by the party managers with something which might almost be considered pride. But the best, or worst, sign of returning vitality is the alarm which the Conservative press is showing at these Liberal manifestations. Whatever be in the future, the people who work the Conservative oracle are determined that it shall not be their fault if the Conservative organizations become indolent and supine while the Liberals are up and doing.

GERMAN CONSTITUTIONALISM ON TRIAL.

GERMANY, December 20, 1875.

THE rupture between Bismarck and the National Liberals, with the prediction of which we have been bored every day these last three or four months, has yet to take place. Bismarck is meek as he has never been before, and if his passion gets the better of him and he turns to the pouting-corner with his old threat—they may see how the play will go on without him—he is at once coaxed to face about, and the end of the quarrel is sure to be: "It was not meant so at all." A rupture is, for the present, very unlikely, for the simple reason that the party of the *juste milieu* are pretty sure of holding their own for some time to come, and Bismarck is anything but eager to face once more a majority on the opposition benches. Of all the other parties only the Ultramontanes could possibly secure a relative majority of the seats in the Reichstag if they had the support of the Government, and to suppose that Bismarck could ever for a single moment entertain the thought of "going to Canossa," is absurd. The "Conservatives" are only in a limited sense entitled to the name of a party, for they are not backed by an independent public opinion. The seats they hold they owe to local influences in districts where with the mass of the people not only the political judgment but also the political instinct is weighed down by feudal traditions. Finally, a league between the *Fortschrittspartei* and the Government is evidently out of the question, as the *Fortschrittspartei* is in fact only the extreme left wing of the National Liberals. The threatened crisis, so far as a rupture between the Government and the actual majority in the Reichstag is meant by it, is, therefore, undoubtedly chimerical. On the other hand, it cannot be denied that, though both parties are fully aware what extreme folly it would be to break their alliance, yet both have become more sensitive to the pressure of the ties by which they are indissolubly bound together. Bismarck wished to find the majority more pliant, and he has plainly intimated that he hopes to see his expectations gratified at the next election. The Liberals are confident that he will be deceived in this, and it is certainly to be wished that it may be so. A majority still more yielding than the present one would be a worse than useless chorus, granting everything before they even properly know what they are to be asked for. If the six "political paragraphs" of the 'Novelle' to the Penal Law had been passed, almost the entire nation would have felt as if it was hardly worth while to have a Reichstag. What limits would there have been to obsequiousness after such proposals had been consented to? Bismarck affects to believe that the Reichstag has not truly represented public opinion in this respect, and now all the papers influenced by the Government are repeating the insolent assertion day after day. It is hardly credible that the first official of the Empire can, to such an extent, be misinformed about public opinion. The truth is that the mere proposing of these paragraphs has been felt as a deep insult and as a grave sign that we have not yet seen the last of the fight for the fundamental principles of constitutional liberty. All the six paragraphs affect the liberty of the tongue and of the pen. It is said that they were considered necessary to shield not only the state, but even society itself, against the dangers from which they are beset by Ultramontanism and socialism. If that be true, then the people think better of themselves than the Government does. The people do not think any gag-laws necessary to save them from being swallowed up by either the Black or the Red Sea. They are fully satisfied to rely for their salvation on the power of enlightenment, and they are convinced that in our day no one can be enlightened who is forbidden to speak out his own opinion; in other words, that there are no better means than gag-laws to make all the Blacks and all the Reds genuine fanatics. But this is not all; they take still higher ground. If there is any fundamental tenet of constitutional liberty which we can boast of having already *in succo et sanguine*, it is the conviction that there can be no liberty where the law does not reign. Now, the text of these paragraphs had hardly been published when they were known all over the country by the name of the "india-rubber paragraphs." If they had become law there would have been no law, for that is no law which at the same time means everything and nothing. The accused would not have been judged according to the law, but according to the individual opinions of the individual judge on certain political and social questions. Nobody could have possibly been a gainer; everybody would have necessarily been a heavy loser—the accused, judges, Government, and the people at large. We could not afford to have such a poison dropped into our young political life, not even for the sake of keeping Bismarck at the helm.

The Government organs affect great astonishment that the question is still discussed with a certain animus, though the Bundesrath and Bismarck have kept strictly within the constitutional limits. This is true. They have submitted to their defeat, Bismarck only indulging in a broad hint that they might try whether they would have better luck the next time. That may be very unwise, but it certainly is not unconstitutional. We must, however, beg his defenders to excuse us if we are able to see a little further than the end of our noses. There was another disagreement between the Bundesrath and the Reichstag about the proper way for providing for the necessary expenses of the Empire. In this case Bismarck submitted to his defeat, so far as the form is concerned, with still better grace. He commenced his speech with the solemn declaration that the Bundesrath had never entertained the thought of laying hands on the constitutional privileges of the Reichstag; if they refused their assent to the propositions of the Bundesrath, upon them the responsibility would rest, but their decision would of course be final. The semi-official papers have been very indignant that this declaration has been received with astonishingly little "gratitude" by the Liberal press, and even a paper like the Cologne *Gazette* gravely denies the truth of the charge. Now, it seems to me that our constitutionalism would be a rather strange thing if we owed "gratitude" to the Chancellor for assuring us that a most flagrant breach of the constitution is not meditated by the Bundesrath. And yet it is true that there are a great many people who think the "charge" well founded.

The other day I heard two well-known generals declare with great emphasis that, if Bismarck were no longer backed by the "iron will" of the Emperor, he would at once be "absolutely nothing." Though this is putting the case somewhat too strongly, there is still a good deal of truth in it; but whether it is a thing to be proud of is another question. If in the German people the monarchical spirit is developed to such a degree that a

man of the genius and of the achievements of Bismarck becomes next to nothing as soon as the Emperor conceives a dislike to him, then it goes beyond the limit where it is necessarily an element of national strength, and it may easily become a source of national weakness. I believe it does go with us beyond the proper limit, though I am satisfied that it is far from being so strong as some people imagine, because they unconsciously apply to Germany what is true only of Prussia. Backed by King William, *Herr von* Bismarck was able to come out as the victor in the conflict with the Prussian Landtag, though he handled the constitution of the country with fearful recklessness. Whether *Prince* Bismarck, backed by Emperor William, would be victorious if he dared to make the experiment of a similar conflict with the Reichstag and Germany, is at least very doubtful. In the debate on the ways and means, he warned the Reichstag not to forget how young the Empire was; a pressure which it would easily stand ten or twenty years hence might be too great now. The remark was made principally with a view to the governments of the different states, but it certainly applies just as much to the people of the different states, and I trust Bismarck is too much of a real statesman not to be aware of that. This is our best safeguard against a repetition of the "conflict-tragedy," and we do not doubt that it will prove to be strong enough.

PICOT'S CORNELIAN BIBLIOGRAPHY.

PARIS, December 4, 1875.

IS the taste which is known under the name of bibliophilism a sign of decadence or not? I confess that many good reasons might be given in favor of the affirmative. It is perhaps only when the creative genius is exhausted that men begin to be devotees of this new religion of the past which consists in the careful collection of the finest and rarest books. I have often been struck to find in the libraries of our best writers the cheapest and commonest editions of the great writers; but it may be only that these writers are poor, and cannot compete with our great bibliophiles. The greatest collector of the present time in France is a young gentleman who belongs to the family of the Rothschilds, and who may be said to have an unlimited supply of money. He has devoted himself to collecting the original editions of our great classics, and the gentleman who helps him in this useful work, M. Picot, has already published two great works on Racine and on Corneille. The 'Cornelian Bibliography' which has just appeared may be considered as the type of a new class of publications, which may be styled "books upon books." There was a time when Taschereau could find on the quays of our Seine the original copies of the tragedies of Corneille for five francs—when Cousin bought the collection of all these original plays for one hundred and sixty francs; now, an original piece of Corneille's is the *rara avis* which is only discovered at long intervals, and the collection of them can be found in but very few libraries, as it is equivalent to a small fortune.

Corneille, who may be called the tragedian *par excellence*, did not at first understand his own genius; he began to write comedies, and, it must be confessed, very poor comedies. Such pieces as 'Mélite,' 'Clitandre,' 'L'Innocence délivrée,' 'La Veuve, ou le Traître trahi,' 'La Galerie du Palais, ou l'Amie rivale,' 'La Suivante,' 'La Place Royale, ou l'Amoureux extravagant,' can only be looked upon as the first mistakes of a great man. These pieces appeared between 1633 and 1639. Corneille revealed himself in the tragedy of 'Medea,' and soon afterwards in the famous 'Cid.' The 'Cid' was first represented in the year 1636, and was only published a year afterwards. It is rather strange that it was at the instigation of a bishop—the Bishop of Châlons—that Corneille abandoned the imitation of Seneca, whom he had followed in the 'Medea,' and followed the inspirations of the Spaniards, of Guillem de Castro, of the Romanceros of the 'Cid.' The success of the 'Cid' was prodigious. Pellisson says, in his 'History of the French Academy': "People were not tired of hearing it; one heard of nothing else in good society—everybody wanted to know it by heart. Children learned it, and in many parts of France it became proverbial to say: 'It is as fine as the 'Cid'!" There is no doubt that Anne of Austria was much flattered on seeing the Spanish heroes brought on the French stage, and her protection was more powerful than the enmity of the great Richelieu. The quarrel of the 'Cid,' in which Scudéri took part, seemed like the literary counterpart of the Fronde. Real genius will always assert its right, and Richelieu, who could cut off the heads of the first noblemen in France, could not pluck a leaf from the laurel crown of the timid and modest Corneille.

It is always interesting to follow the history of some work of art. The eighteenth century was not in a Cornelian or heroic mood; the 'Cid' was neglected till the First Napoleon revived it. Talma gave new life to it, and in our time Rachel did her best to give to the world a true *Chimène*. The piece had two hundred and forty-two representations from 1680 to 1715, during the difficult period when France carried on war with all Europe; it was played one hundred and ninety times from 1799 to 1814. Since then it has never been completely neglected, but it can only be acted when a real tragedian can be found.

The animosity of Corneille's enemies seems to have cowed him for a time, though public opinion was with him. He was on the point of abandoning the stage. "He writes nothing," says Chapelain in a letter which Sainte-Beuve had long in his possession, and has left to our National Library, "and Scudéri has gained this, at least, by his quarrels—he has disgusted him with the stage and has stopped his voice. I have, as much as in my power, warmed him and encouraged him to avenge himself on Scudéri and on his protectress by making soon a new 'Cid.'" I do not understand the allusion made to Anne of Austria; this passage of a letter from Chapelain to Balzac seems to prove that her protection was far from useful to Corneille. Corneille may have had some personal reasons for abandoning the Spanish legends and for returning to the classic Romans. 'Horatius' came out in 1640; it was played on the first night before Richelieu. It was played as many as six hundred and twenty-four times during the reign of Louis XIV. It has been said that the following tragedy, 'Cinna,' was inspired by a desire to preach pardon and generosity to the great Cardinal. 'Cinna' came out a little after 'Horatius.' The fashion was still to play tragedy in the costume of the time. Just fancy Augustus dressed as a courtier, with silk ribbons, lace, and a long sword. The women wore high heels and a long train, and had their hair high on the head, adorned with pearls and lace. Under Louis XIV. 'Cinna' was only played one hundred and thirty-nine times in Paris and twenty-seven times at court. It became afterwards the favorite piece of Napoleon I., though he was little inclined to follow the example of Augustus's generosity towards conspirators. The best criticism on 'Cinna' was made by the great Condé. In the famous scene where *Augustus* reminds *Cinna* of all that he has done for him before reproaching him with his treason, when *Augustus* says to *Cinna* that he would be nothing if the Emperor had not covered him with honors:

> "Ta fortune est bien haute; tu peux ce que tu veux;
> Mais tu ferais pitié même à ceux qu'elle irrite
> Si je t'abandonnais à ton peu de mérite"—

here Condé loudly exclaimed: "Voilà qui me gâte le 'Soyons amis, Cinna.'"

The mind of Corneille was eminently heroic and religious. It is well known that he applied his great genius to the translation in verse of the 'Imitation of Christ'—that admirable book in which the true Christian spirit breathes on every page, and which will go down to all future ages wrapped in a poetic mystery. He had abandoned, perhaps with reluctance, the Spanish heroes who fought with Islam under the sign of the cross. After the fashion of his age, he lived chiefly with the ancients; but he soon found in Roman history an episode in which he could show his Christian feelings. 'Polyeucte' is perhaps the highest expression of his genius. What could be more tempting to his mind than to represent a Roman warrior who, touched by the divine grace, becomes a martyr of the new faith? The religious dramas called the 'Mystères' had long disappeared from the French stage. They had never been the amusement of the higher class of society. Victor Hugo has well painted, in his 'Notre Dame de Paris,' the class of writers of mysteries in the person of Gringoire, and the prejudices which used to crowd round the representations of the Passion, as the peasants of Bavaria still do in our time in the Oberammergau. It was a bold enterprise to revive the religious drama, but Corneille succeeded in it, and 'Polyeucte' was as successful as the 'Cid.' The piece had first been read at the famous Hôtel de Rambouillet, before the "Précieuses," and had been coldly received. It was played in 1640, and was warmly applauded. The part of *Pauline* is considered the most difficult in the French *répertoire*. Mademoiselle Rachel was afraid of it, though she played it very well. When she knelt down and said, "Je suis chrétienne," she had the real appearance of a martyr, and it was impossible not to remember that she belonged, as a Jewess, to the race which is characterized by the deepest religious feeling. There was no impropriety in her saying "I am a Christian." What she really meant was the assertion of monotheism in the face of the pagan polytheism; and the Semitic race has always been the exponent of the monotheistic idea. *Pauline* became in the end the favorite part of Rachel. She played it on the eve of the day when she was forced to leave the Théâtre Français.

I will not dilate long on the other pieces of Corneille. 'La Mort de Pompée,' the subject of which was taken from Lucan, the favorite author of the great dramatist, was followed by a comedy which has remained one of the best of the French stage, 'Le Menteur.' It is even now constantly played at our great national theatre, and it is not too *démodé*, as the French say. There is a wonderful animation in it; the liar is made almost interesting; he does not lie from any base motive; he is the victim and slave of his own imagination, and he deceives himself more than he does the others. He is the true French or Gascon liar, a character which could hardly be well understood in an Anglo-Saxon country, where a lie is always supposed to have a base and almost a criminal object. Balzac, in the true bombastic style of the 'Menteur,' wrote to Corneille after the representation: "You will be Aristophanes whenever you choose, as you are already Sophocles."

The 'Suite du Menteur' has no connection with the 'Menteur,' as the title would seem to show. It is taken from a piece of Lope de Vega's, "Amar sin saber à quien." It did not succeed, notwithstanding the efforts of a famous actor of the time. Corneille always maintained that his tragedy of 'Rodogune, Princesse de Parthes,' was the best he ever wrote. This judgment is almost correct if you only read the fifth act, which is a real masterpiece; but you can only arrive at it through four acts which are extremely tedious and bombastic. We never know ourselves, and there is hardly an author who has not some preference for that part of his works which has received the slightest encouragement from the public, in the same way that tender parents fondle sick or ugly children who have not much to receive from the world. "I have never dared to declare," writes Corneille, "all the tenderness I have for this piece. . . . This preference was perhaps in me the effect of one of those blind preferences which many fathers have for some of their children."

I will only mention 'Th odore, vierge et martyre,' which indicates the return of Corneille to his favorite subject; 'Héraclius, empereur d'Orient'; 'Andromède'; 'Don Sanche d'Aragon,' a distant echo of the 'Cid;' 'Nicomède'; 'Pertharite, roi des Lombards'; 'Œdipe,' a subject taken from Sophocles and Seneca. The genius of Corneille was on the wane, and the failure of 'Pertharite' determined him to spend most of his time in the translation of the 'Imitation of Christ.' 'Œdipe,' however, was very well received, and Loret, in his amusing 'Muse historique,' speaking of the 'Précieuses ridicules' of Molière, which had appeared at the same time, says that this comedy drew as many people as—

"L'Œdipe de Corneille
Que l'on tient être une Merveille."

Then came new failures—the 'Toison d'Or,' 'Sertorius,' 'Sophonisbe,' 'Othon,' 'Agésilas,' 'Attila.' Everybody knows the cruel satire which was launched at the time:

"Après l'Agésilas
Hélas!
Mais après l'Attila
Holà!"

Corneille did not say "holà" in time to the dramatic muse; he still wrote 'Tite et Bér nice,' 'Pulchérie,' and 'Suréna.' M. Picot's book will be found invaluable by all bibliophilists; he gives most accurate descriptions of all the editions of the plays of Corneille, separate or collected, as well as of the editions of the 'Imitation of Christ,' and there will also be found in it a complete catalogue of all the books concerning Corneille and his writings. In fact, it is the most complete literary monograph of the kind that has ever been published; and it may be pronounced to be a final work, to which there is nothing to add.

Correspondence.

MR. SAINTSBURY AND THE "NEO-PAGANS."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: My attention has been called to an editorial note in the *Nation* of Dec. 2, which deals at some length with my critical character. I have neither the right nor the intention to quarrel with the *Nation's* estimate of the tone, style, or literary value (actual or probable, positive or comparative) of my work. But I believe that an author has a recognized right of appeal when, as is the case in your note, he is made responsible for the real or supposed opinions of others, and when the moral tendency of his writings is impugned. Your criticism is, as I understand it, directed not so much against anything which I have written as against the supposed opinions and tendencies of a certain "sect" or "school" to which you assume that I belong, and to which you give the name of "the Neo-Pagans." Now, whether this sect exists or not I cannot say, but I can and do most emphatically deny that I belong to any such sect. My opinions (were they of any importance) on politics, religion, and all kindred subjects happen to be of a strongly conservative character, and I have never felt the least inclination to earn either the glory or the obloquy which attaches to innovation in such matters.

I am afraid that the article on Baudelaire which served as text to your remarks must have deserved much heavier criticism than you have meted out to it if I failed therein to make clear from what point of view and how far I approved of that much-reviled writer. I can assure you that it is from no childish pleasure in flourishing "a tardy discovery that morality is not the all-in-all of literature" that that article was written. Ever since, as a boy, I first began to read critically, it has been my one principle never to allow myself to be influenced in judging literary merits by any characteristic of subject-matter whatever. The morality of a writer's opinions is just as much and just as little of an attraction to me as their immorality. The first question I ask is: Is this good work? and if I can conscientiously answer this in the affirmative, it does not matter to me whether the writer's subject is attractive or repulsive, whether his opinions coincide with my own or differ from them. There are, no doubt, divisions and departments of criticism which deal with such matters, but in those departments I hold no office. Had Baudelaire consulted me as to the intrinsic excellence of such a subject as 'Delphine and Hippolyte,' I should have advised him very strongly not to touch pitch. Had Mr. Swinburne asked my advice beforehand about the subjects of certain poems in 'Songs before Sunrise,' I should have said that, to me as a conservative and a churchman, republicanism and anti-Christianism were abhorrent. But the poems once written, I have to judge them as poems first; and if they pass that examination, I hold that enquiry quite subject, and sentiment is barred.

You may say, as I have heard it said, that there is something *louche* about this tolerance, and that it seems to direct itself in a one-sided manner. I reply that I cannot help that. It may be and is a distressing fact that the devil should have all the best tunes; but it is no use trying to meet that fact by denying that the tunes are good. And, moreover, though my critical utterances have not been very loud or numerous, I think I can justify myself by my works. I have in the *Academy* praised Bryant as well as Whitman, and (though this will perhaps be little recommendation to you, sir) I have praised the latter in spite of the fact that if there is one thing in the world which is distasteful to me it is democracy. If I am asked why I select such a notorious writer as Baudelaire for special praise, I can reply that I did so with an honest conviction that he had been hardly used, and an honest belief that his literary peculiarities (for which alone I value him) are to be specially studied in these days of hurried work and over-esteem for facts. The conviction and the belief may be mistaken, but they are honestly held, and with no *arrière pensée*. With apologies for the length of this letter,

I am, sir, your obedient servant,
George Saintsbury.

Elgin, December 22, 1875.

Notes.

The Congregational Society, Boston, have published a revised edition of Mr. Edward Buck's 'Ecclesiastical Law,' an excellent work, both useful and entertaining, which first appeared in 1865. Besides insertions and alterations in the foot-notes, a chapter has been added to the appendix which gives a wider value to the treatise. It shows how religious societies in the several States are legally organized and incorporated. Mr. Buck has departed, we think, from his usual accuracy in the new part of the note on p. 230, where he says the Rev. F. E. Abbot was silenced by injunction "for preaching *atheism*."——The long-established firm of Lee & Walker, music publishers, has been bought out by Oliver Ditson & Co., Boston, and will be succeeded by J. E. Ditson & Co. as the Philadelphia branch of the latter house.——The January issue of the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register* is illustrated by a steel engraving of the late Senator Buckingham, of Connecticut, for which President Porter furnishes the accompanying memoir. From much that is interesting in the contents we single out "Papers relating to the Acadians," in which John Hancock figures; a list of portraits and busts in possession of the American Antiquarian Society and other associations in Worcester; and the first of a series of lists of passengers to America in the last century.——A tiny animal, which has been variously called the "Long-legged Mouse of Hud-

son's Bay," the "Labrador Rat," the "Canada Jerboid Rat," and the "Jumping Mouse of Canada," has just been described by Dr. Elliott Coues, U.S.A., under the name of *Zapus Hudsonius* (Bulletin U. S. Geological and Geographical Survey). The same author discusses (*ibid.*) the breeding-habits, nest, and eggs of the white-tailed ptarmigan, whose eggs seem to have been a test of color-blindness in naturalists, having been described as "light bluish-brown," "chocolate-colored," and "rich creamy drab." Dr. Coues, having "the advantage of the opinion of an expert colorist," calls them a "dull cream-color."——It is proposed to make a complete collection of works issued by the officers and alumni of Yale, to form part, first, of the American educational department at the Exposition, and finally of the Yale Library in an "Alumni Alcove." Books, pamphlets, etc., should be sent at once to Mr. B. G. Northrop, New Haven. ——A correspondent informs us that the term "sound-shunting," the invention of which we lately ascribed to Mr. H. H. Bancroft, is to be found on p. 3 of Earle's 'Philology of the English Tongue.' We presume he refers to the first edition; in the second (p. 4), Mr. Earle translates *Lautverschiebung* by "Consonantal Transition."——From Westermann & Co. we have received the *Almanach de Gotha* for 1876. Numerous changes and fresh features are pointed out in the preface, some tending to make the *Almanach* more and more the "livre d'or de la plus haute aristocratie de l'Europe," others increasing the already great value of the work for its statistical information. Three new articles are devoted to the military establishments of France, Italy, and Russia. The portraits are of Rodolphe, Prince Imperial of Austria; Elizabeth, Princess of Prussia; Alfonso of Spain; and Delbrück, President of the German Cabinet.

—The following comes to us from New Haven, under date of January 10: "The correspondent who asks, in your last number, for information concerning the Japanese novel 'Riu-Tei,' will find in the 'Journal of the American Oriental Society,' Vol. II., an "Account of a Japanese Romance," by William W. Turner, which, as the title implies, is not a translation, but an outline of the plot, based on Pfizmaier's German translation, published in Vienna in 1847. This same novel, translated into Italian by Severini in 1872, has been more recently translated into French by Turrettini, and published under the title 'Komats et Sakitsi,' with the Japanese text, at Geneva in 1874."

—In a pamphlet of about ninety pages, entitled 'The Review of General Sherman's Memoirs Examined' (Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co.), Col. C. W. Moulton reviews Boynton's attack upon 'General Sherman's Memoirs,' bringing out new documentary evidence in support of the General's accuracy and fairness. The positions taken in the review of Boynton's book which appeared in these columns some weeks since are all strengthened, and on some points not noticed by us the unreliability of Boynton's criticisms of Sherman is very strongly proved. This is very notably the case in the matter of the alleged usurpation of authority over the War Department and the Staff Bureaus in Washington. Col. Moulton clearly shows by documents from General Grant's own pen that the policy of making the Staff Corps in Washington report to the General of the Army was Grant's before it was Sherman's, and that the latter attempted to carry it out in accordance with the President's order. After a time the Secretary of War, General Rawlins, became dissatisfied, and his influence with the President was sufficient to obtain a revocation of the order which Grant as General had considered necessary to a proper army administration. On several other topics new light is thrown, and this rejoinder by one who has had access to important public and private documents bearing on the discussion will well repay perusal.

—*Lippincott's* for January is noticeably thin in quality. It opens with a feeble and superficial paper on the general progress of the century 1776-1876, the first of a series which will doubtless grow more satisfactory as it goes on, for it promises to be in the end "a complete history of the Exposition," profusely illustrated. Of the other contributed articles, that by Robert Wilson, called "At the Old Plantation," seems to us to have the best excuse for being. It describes the scenery and population and still shiftless management of a low-country plantation in South Carolina at the present time, and is altogether agreeable reading, apparently true to life and devoid of exaggeration. A little-known country, which nature and Catholicism have kept out of the current of modern progress, is exposed, professedly by a native, in a private letter on "Famishing Portugal." The famine caused by last summer's drought gives the writer occasion to show why famines are possible in his country, and he reviews its history to an extent which will interest those who share the prevailing ignorance about it. He lays special stress, perhaps too exclusively, on the evils of the Greek-inherited land tenure known as *emphyteusis*—"the renting of land upon condition to improve it," as Anthony Transtagano defines it in his Dictionary, published in 1773 while Pombal was still in power and engaged in executing his beneficent reforms. What followed that eminent statesman's dismissal, four years later, was a revival of all the old abuses of the system, which was not abolished till 1832. Its effects, as may be supposed, still linger, and, for one thing, the wine crop is cultivated at the expense of the cereals. "The utmost area of land which the average Portuguese peasant can cultivate is two and a half acres." "To-day there is scarcely a tree in Portugal—the woods, including fruit and nut trees, covering less than 400,000 out of 22,000,000 acres, the entire area of the country." "The population of Portugal has not increased during a hundred years." "The crimes of fœticide and infanticide have become so common that there is scarcely a peasant-woman in Portugal not guilty of them, either as principal or accessory. Illegitimacy is more common than in any country in Europe. . . . One-eighth of all the reported births in the kingdom become foundlings." Such are some of the dark traits of the picture drawn with an unwilling hand by the writer of the letter in *Lippincott's*.

—For a long time it has been considered by a certain number of English critics that they themselves were the only persons who knew anything about American poetry, and they have looked with contempt on the opinions on the subject held by the literary and cultivated people of this country. From the fact that America is in many respects different from Europe, they held that any poetry produced within its boundaries must be *in toto* different from any poetry produced on the other side of the water, and it was by *à-priori* reasoning of this sort that Walt Whitman was taken up and more highly lauded in foreign parts than he ever has been in his native land. We are told that it is owing to our prejudice, jealousy, or crass ignorance that "the greatest of American voices," as Mr. Swinburne calls him, is listened to with so little patience in the country which has given him birth. In the face of Emerson, Lowell, and Hawthorne, we are told that Whitman's 'Blades of Grass' is "a book the most unquestionable in originality" that America has ever produced. If we object to its incredible grossness we are accused of "unphilosophical hubbub." Whitman is held up for admiration as the most truly representative poet of America, as well as the greatest, and if we object to this adulation, and assert for others, whom we respect more heartily, that they are as truly representative of our literature, we are told that he alone has quite the flavor of the soil, and that we only attempt to disown him because he is our *enfant terrible*, who shows us up in our native coarseness. By an error, which would be only confirmed by reading his so-called poems, it seems to have been thought that he belonged to the antipodes of the critics' fellow-countrymen, and consequently that all laws were reversed, and all that poets had been in the habit of regarding as essential for their work was considered as ridiculous aping of their betters on the part of American verse-writers, while its absence made Whitman a genuine poet of democracy. Englishmen of very fine tastes and modes of thought are remarkably harmonious about this question. Professor Dowden is sure that Whitman is a great poet. Mr. W. M. Rossetti, who keeps better company in a literary way than a strict competitive examination of his abilities would seem to warrant, follows his great hero, Mr. A. C. Swinburne, in expressing raptures over our one poet; Mr. George Saintsbury, a frequent writer in the *Academy*, who is also a very warm admirer of Mr. Swinburne, has expressed a similar opinion; and Mr. Robert Buchanan, who is no admirer of Swinburne, agrees with him to the extent of praising Walt Whitman. These are the most enthusiastic of the leaders of public opinion who have handed in their assent to the new doctrines of the inspired singer. Mr. M. D. Conway is the solitary American who, wiser than his fellow-countrymen, has had his eyes opened and his mind enlarged by foreign travel, and has learned who is our one great poet. This small but influential band of critics have had it all their own way for some time, and bid fair, by perpetual laudation of a writer whom most people found themselves unable to read, to persuade us that they were right. We were, therefore, glad to see, in the December number of the *Contemporary Review*, a most earnest and vigorous denunciation of our prosaic bard, and of those writers who have tried to foist him upon the world at large. The best thing our readers can do is to turn to the article itself, for our space does not admit of extracts long enough to do the author justice. Mr. Bayne does not wheedle his readers into agreeing with him, and he is very outspoken about his likes and dislikes; but he blows a blast which is very serviceable at the present time, when the effort of many who consider themselves the most cultivated is towards the praise of what is really most corrupt and demoralizing. He overlooks in his wrath many of the less faulty passages of Whitman, where the poetical feeling, which he undoubtedly has, is not diluted

by his wild and barbaric fervor of expression, and hence this article is not the last word of criticism; but there is more involved in the discussion than the worth of Whitman's rhymeless, awkward, formless lines: there is the question of the value of other poetry, which respects human nature, which sets honor, beauty, and grace above repulsive egotism; and it is in its bearing on this more important subject that Mr. Bayne's essay best deserves attention. We are grateful to him for his manly defence of good letters and good manners.

—We can truly say that we never expected to be let into the confidence of the (Washington) *National Republican*, least of all a confidence from which its own readers were carefully excluded. We read in its issue of Jan. 3, under the head of New Year "Receptions by Citizens," how Mrs. M. C. R., assisted by her daughter and a bevy of ladies whose toilets are elaborately described, and "who have graced the courts of the Old World," "dispensed the choicest hospitality to a host of admiring friends"; how Mrs. E. J., whose "pleasant and unaffected manner rendered her cozy house a favorite rendezvous with the pleasant people in society," together with her "young and pretty daughter," who "won many encomiums for her rare entertaining powers, and succeeded in impressing all who called most favorably," were both "attired with exquisite taste"; how Mrs. H. J. C., arrayed in an "exceedingly beautiful costume of pink silk," assisted by "her Parisian friend," Miss P., who "looked like the model of elegance in white silk," received in "the C—— mansion," of which, "did space permit, we would mention a few distinguishing features," "but will merely add that its massive and richly-carved mantels, its stained-glass windows, and its interior decorations, reflect the fine artistic taste of the charming lady who resides therein"; how the Misses E. held "one of the most popular receptions of the day," presided over by "Miss Mollie, who is a brunette of the most perfect type," and "Miss Fannie, who rivals her sister in beauty and graceful manners," and their friend Miss Christina, "a handsome blonde." We read, we say, all these fascinating details of loveliness (there were nearly three columns of them), and we ought to have supposed that they had been procured by the diligence of the "gentlemen connected with the office," and were their reports, indeed, as stated—the result of "two hundred and ninety-six calls." We ought also to have accepted sincerely the editor's apology for possible "errors made in the description of dresses," since "it must be remembered that we are not over-educated in that matter, but done (*sic*) the best we could." But we belong to the privileged few who were permitted to receive the Administration organ's "Complimental Salutations of the Season"—a neatly-printed circular, dated Jan. 1, 1876, backed by the cards of the editorial corps, and conveying the following interesting communication:

"[CONFIDENTIAL.]

"Of your reception to-day we should be pleased to receive before ten o'clock Sunday night, by messenger, these items of information: description of reception costumes worn by yourself and assistants, the names of the more prominent persons received, etc. It is simply impossible for us to visit all our friends, and this is the only practical method of filling a wish to have their receptions properly noticed."

—The death is announced of Dr. Samuel Gridley Howe, in Boston, on the 9th inst. He was born in that city in 1801, and graduated at Brown University in 1821, when his medical studies began. He was interrupted in these by the breaking out of the Greek Revolution, and in 1824 crossed the ocean and joined the Greek forces as a volunteer combatant. Afterwards his professional services were more in request, both on land and with the fleet. Pending the conflict he returned to the United States, and traversing the country raised a large amount of money and material supplies, with which he returned to Greece. In 1867, during the Cretan revolt, he again went to Greece with aid and comfort for the insurgents; but it may reasonably be doubted whether his well-meant efforts to arouse American sympathy on this occasion had any other effect than to prolong a hopeless struggle. Honorable as was this episode in the life of Dr. Howe, his chief title to remembrance lies in the prominent part he bore in the education of the blind, and especially in his wonderful success in educating the blind deaf-mute, Laura Bridgman. He was an active promoter of the colonization of Kansas from the Free States, and he was one of the few confidants of John Brown who was not surprised by the attack on Harper's Ferry. On two occasions during the last ten years his reputation secured him a place on Government commissions which were singularly unfruitful of any good result; one of these was to the freedmen of the South, the other to San Domingo.

—Readers of Dr. Foster's 'Prehistoric Races of America' will perhaps remember that frequent reference is made to Mr. Perkins's archæological collection, of which several specimens are given in the illustrations. Mr. Perkins, a resident of Burlington, Wis. (a native of New York), being about to make a protracted stay in Europe, has deposited his collection with the Wisconsin Historical Society, with a view to ultimate purchase, and the purchase has, in fact, to all intents and purposes, been accomplished. This is probably the most extensive collection in America—certainly in copper implements, which give it its unique character and value. It contains (we quote from the annual 'Report of the Historical Society') "600 stone rollers, pestles, knives, scrapers, awls, pikes, and anomalous forms; 365 stone axes of various forms and sizes; about 50 stone pipes and perforated ornaments; nearly 8,000 spear, lance, and arrow heads; and of copper articles, 68 spear or dirk heads with sockets for shafts, 5 notched for shafts, 15 with flat shanks, 10 knives, 15 chisels and axes, 3 socket-axes, knives or adzes, 5 augers, 2 gads, 1 drill, and 9 of anomalous forms—numbering altogether over 9,000 articles of the prehistoric age." All these articles were found within the State of Wisconsin, and all the copper articles within the last four years. Mr. Perkins's extraordinary success in this field is due to extraordinary industry and perseverance. He has thoroughly ransacked the southeastern part of the State, taking each county (about a dozen in all) township by township, and section by section, and visiting every house upon his way, leaving his address, so as to secure future as well as past discoveries. Nearly every article is labelled with the name of the finder, and a full and careful record describes the time, locality, and circumstances of its discovery. His object was to make all possible provision for scientific study. We understand that it is the intention of the Society to send, if possible, a full and adequate selection of the articles to the Centennial Exposition at Philadelphia.

—We wonder if Mr. Francis Galton ever met with a more curious instance of hereditary genius than the following: About fifty years ago, Mr. John Cleves Symmes, a retired army officer, conceived—in the depths of his consciousness, we suppose, for there never were any facts to give rise to the conception in reason—the theory that the earth is hollow and habitable within, entrance to this inner world being possible by means of an opening supposed to exist, in the shape of an immense funnel, within the circle of ice which encloses the North Pole. Symmes's Hole, as this opening was soon termed, was for many years the laughing-stock of teachers and pupils. It is a little singular, we are tempted to remark by the way, that in these days, when almost every well-known writer is accused of having taken his leading ideas from some older writer, no one seems to have accused M. Jules Verne of borrowing the idea of his 'Journey to the Centre of the Earth' from this old inventor. Captain Symmes spent a large part of the last ten years of his life in zealous advocacy of his theory, writing and lecturing about it, and petitioning Congress to send out an expedition to test its truthfulness. He made few, if any, converts, but died nevertheless in full faith that the correctness of his views would some day be demonstrated. And now, nearly fifty years after his death, which took place in 1829, his son has commenced giving lectures in explanation and advocacy of his father's theory. In a lecture delivered recently in Ohio, after giving some account of the life and work of his father, he presented a curious medley of facts collected from the experiences of Arctic voyagers, all of which facts, he contended, helped to prove the existence of an opening to the inner world. A few of these facts even gave indications of the condition of the inhabitants of this undiscovered country. But the chief point of interest in the lecture appears to have been the expression of profound sorrow that the *Polaris* turned back when within one day's sail of the open water which would have led the vessel to the entrance of this interior realm. Had the *Polaris* continued her course, not only would the father's theory have been demonstrated, but the United States would have acquired dominion over the new world of "Symmeszonia." "At this point," says the newspaper report, "the lecturer appeared so overcome with the intensity of his regret that so fine an opportunity for proving the correctness of his father's theory should have been lost, that he was obliged to terminate his lecture, being almost prostrated with a sudden dizziness."

—Summer schools of science are becoming popular, and those that take their students into the field secure for them a double advantage. We hear of a project for one of a primary character, which strikes us most favorably. It does not assume such a name, but calls itself a "Mountain School of Physical Culture." It proposes to take boys—town-boys especially—for their long summer vacation into a camp for physical culture (with barracks rather than tents) upon North Mountain, in Pennsylvania, and to develop and rightly direct the activities of their bodies as well as their minds, mingling instruction in the physical geography, geology, botany, zoölogy, and meteorology of the region, and the use of scientific instruments, with instruc-

tion in the use of the rod and gun, and all that relates to the exigencies of field and forest life. Dr. Rothrock, who proposes to undertake this, was a pupil of Agassiz, Wyman, and Gray at Harvard, and has won distinction already as botanist, surgeon, teacher, and frontier explorer.

—We had hardly disposed of the case of the *Evening Post* when we caught the *Times* once more in its old practice of "journalizing." The *Nation*, November 4, 1875, called the effort of the Mayor and Public Works Department to pay the market rate of wages—

"The first show of an attempt to carry on the government of the city on business principles."

The above, as journalized by the New York *Times*, January 7, 1876 :

"The first honest attempt which has been made to conduct the government of this city on business principles."

This is a worse case than it seems on the surface.

DARWIN'S INSECTIVOROUS AND CLIMBING PLANTS.*

II.

TO a naturalist of our day, imbued with those ideas of the solidarity of organic nature which such facts as those we have been considering suggest, the greatest anomaly of all would be that they are really anomalous or unique. Reasonably supposing, therefore, that the Sundew did not stand alone, Mr. Darwin turned his attention to other groups of plants ; and, first, to the Bladderworts, which have no near kinship with the Sundews, but, like the aquatic representative of that family, are provided with bladdery sacs, under water. In the common species of *Utricularia* or Bladderwort, these little sacs, hanging from submerged leaves or branches, have their orifice closed by a lid which opens inwardly—a veritable trap-door. It had been noticed in England and France that they contained minute crustacean animals. Early in the summer of 1874, Mr. Darwin ascertained the mechanism for their capture and the great success with which it is used. But before his account was written out, Prof. Cohn published an excellent paper on the subject in Germany, and Mrs. Treat, of Vineland, New Jersey, a still earlier one in this country—in the New York *Tribune* in the autumn of 1874. Of the latter, Mr. Darwin remarks that she "has been more successful than any other observer in witnessing the actual entrance of these minute creatures." They never come out, but soon perish in their prison, which receives a continued succession of victims, but little, if any, fresh air to its water. The action of the trap is purely mechanical, without evident irritability in the opening or shutting. There is no evidence nor much likelihood of any proper digestion ; indeed, Mr. Darwin found evidence to the contrary. But the more or less decomposed and dissolved animal matter is doubtless absorbed into the plant ; for the whole interior of the sac is lined with peculiar, elongated and four-armed very thin-walled processes, which contain active protoplasm, and which were proved by experiment to "have the power of absorbing matter from weak solutions of certain salts of ammonia and urea, and from a putrid infusion of raw meat."

Although the Bladderworts "prey on garbage," their terrestrial relatives "live cleanly," as nobler plants should do, and have a good and true digestion. *Pinguicula*, or Butterwort, is the representative of this family upon land. It gets both its Latin and its English name from the fatty or greasy appearance of the upper face of its broad leaves ; and this appearance is due to a dense coat or pile of short-stalked glands, which secrete a colorless and extremely viscid liquid. By this small flies, or whatever may alight or fall upon the leaf, are held fast. These waifs might be useless or even injurious to the plant. Probably Mr. Darwin was the first to ask whether they might be of advantage. He certainly was the first to show that they probably are so. The evidence from experiment, shortly summed up, is, that insects alive or dead, and also other nitrogenous bodies, excite these glands to increased secretion ; the secretion then becomes acid, and acquires the power of dissolving solid animal substances—that is, the power of digestion in the manner of *Drosera* and *Dionæa*. And the stalks of their glands under the microscope give the same ocular evidence of absorption. The leaves of the Butterwort are apt to have their margins folded inward, like a rim or hem. Taking young and vigorous leaves to which hardly anything had yet adhered, and of which the margins were still flat, Mr. Darwin set within one margin a row of small flies. Fifteen hours afterwards this edge was neatly turned inward, partly covering the row of flies, and the surrounding glands were secreting copiously. The other edge remained flat and unaltered. Then he stuck a fly to the middle of a leaf just below its tip, and soon both margins infolded, so as to clasp the object. Many other and varied experiments yielded similar results. Even pollen, which would not rarely be lodged upon these leaves, as it falls from surrounding wind-fertilized plants, also small seeds, excited the same action, and showed signs of being acted upon. "We may therefore conclude," with Mr. Darwin, "that *Pinguicula vulgaris*, with its small roots, is not only supported to a large extent by the extraordinary number of insects which it habitually captures, but likewise draws some nourishment from the pollen, leaves, and seeds of other plants which often adhere to its leaves. It is therefore partly a vegetable as well as an animal feeder."

What is now to be thought of the ordinary glandular hairs which render the surface of many and the most various plants extremely viscid ? Their number is legion. The Chinese Primrose of common garden and house culture is no extraordinary instance ; but Mr. Francis Darwin, counting those on a small space measured by the micrometer, estimated them at 65,371 to the square inch of foliage, taking in both surfaces of the leaf, or two or three millions on a moderate-sized specimen of this small herb. Glands of this sort were loosely regarded as organs for excretion, without much consideration of the question whether, in vegetable life, there could be any need to excrete, or any advantage gained by throwing off such products ; and, while the popular name of Catch-fly, given to several common species of *Silene*, indicates long familiarity with the fact, probably no one ever imagined that the swarms of small insects which perish upon these sticky surfaces were ever turned to account by the plant. In many such cases, no doubt they perish as uselessly as when attracted into the flame of a candle. In the Tobacco plant, for instance, Mr. Darwin could find no evidence that the glandular hairs absorb animal matter. But Darwinian philosophy expects all gradations between casualty and complete adaptation. It is probable that any thin-walled vegetable structure which secretes may also be capable of absorbing under favorable conditions. The myriad exquisitely-constructed glands of the Chinese Primrose are not likely to be functionless. Mr. Darwin ascertained by direct experiment that they promptly absorb carbonate of ammonia, both in watery solution and in vapor. So, since rain-water usually contains a small percentage of ammonia, a use for these glands becomes apparent—one completely congruous with that of absorbing any animal matter, or products of its decomposition, which may come in their way through the occasional entanglement of insects in their viscid secretion. In several Saxifrages—distant relatives of *Drosera*—the viscid glands equally manifested the power of absorption.

To trace a gradation between a simply absorbing hair with a glutinous tip, through which the plant may perchance derive slight contingent advantage, and the tentacles of a Sundew, with their exquisite and associated adaptations, does not much lessen the wonder nor explain the phenomena. After all, as Mr. Darwin modestly concludes, "we see how little has been made out in comparison with what remains unexplained and unknown." But all this must be allowed to be an important contribution to the doctrine of the gradual acquirement of uses and functions, and hardly to find conceivable explanation upon any other hypothesis.

There remains one more mode in which plants of the higher grade are known to prey upon animals ; namely, that of pitchers, urns, or tubes, in which insects and the like are drowned or confined, and either macerated or digested. To this Mr. Darwin barely alludes on the last page of the present volume. The main facts known respecting the American pitcher-plants have, as was natural, been ascertained in this country, and we gave an abstract two years ago of our then incipient knowledge. Much has been learned since, although all the observations have been of a desultory character. If space permitted, an instructive narrative might be drawn up, as well of the economy of the *Sarracenias* as of how we came to know what we do of it. But the very little we have room for will be strictly supplementary to our former article.

The pitchers of our familiar northern *Sarracenia*, which is likewise southern, are open-mouthed ; and, although they certainly secrete some liquid when young, must derive most of the water they ordinarily contain from rain. How insects are attracted is unknown, but the water abounds with their drowned bodies and decomposing remains.

In the more southern *S. flava* the long and trumpet-shaped pitchers evidently depend upon the liquid which they themselves secrete, although at maturity, when the hood becomes erect, rain may somewhat add to it. This species, as we know, allures insects by a peculiar sweet exudation within the orifice ; they fall in and perish, though seldom by drowning, yet few are able to escape ; and their decomposing remains accumulate in the narrow bottom of the vessel. Two other long-tubed species of the Southern

* 'Insectivorous Plants. By Charles Darwin, M.A., F.R.S.' With Illustrations. London : John Murray. 1875. Pp. 462. New York : D. Appleton & Co.
'The Movements and Habits of Climbing Plants. By Charles Darwin, M.A., F.R.S., etc.' Second Edition revised, with Illustrations. London : John Murray. 1875. Pp. 208. New York : D. Appleton & Co.

States are similar in these respects. There is another, *S. psittacina*, the parrot-headed species, remarkable for the cowl-shaped hood so completely inflexed over the mouth of the small pitcher that no rain can possibly enter. Little is known of its efficiency as a fly-catcher ; but its conformation has a morphological interest, leading up as it does to the Californian type of pitcher presently to be mentioned.

But the remaining species, *S. variolaris*, is the most wonderful of our pitcher-plants in its adaptations for the capture of insects. The inflated and mottled lid or hood overarches the ample orifice of the tubular pitcher sufficiently to ward off the rain, but not to obstruct the free access of flying insects. Flies, ants, and most insects glide and fall from the treacherous smooth throat into the deep well below, and never escape. They are allured by a sweet secretion just within the orifice—which was discovered and described long ago, and the knowledge of it well-nigh forgotten until recently. And, finally, Dr. Mellichamp, of South Carolina, two years ago made the capital discovery that, during the height of the season, this lure extends from the orifice down nearly to the ground, a length of a foot or two, in the form of a honeyed line or narrow trail on the edge of the wing-like border which is conspicuous in all these species, although only in this one, so far as known, turned to such account. Here, one would say, is a special adaptation to ants and such terrestrial and creeping insects. Well, long before this sweet trail was known, it was remarked by the late Prof. Wyman and others that the pitchers of this species, in the savannahs of Georgia and Florida, contain far more ants than they do of all other insects put together.

Finally, all this is essentially repeated in the peculiar Californian pitcher-plant (*Darlingtonia*), a genus of the same natural family, which captures insects in great variety, enticing them by a sweetish secretion over the whole inside of the inflated hood and that of a curious forked appendage, resembling a fish-tail, which overhangs the orifice. This orifice is so concealed that it can be seen and approached only from below, as if—the casual observer might infer—to escape visitation. But dead insects of all kinds, and their decomposing remains, crowd the cavity and saturate the liquid therein contained, enticed, it is said, by a peculiar odor as well as by the sweet lure which is at some stages so abundant as to drip from the tips of the overhanging appendage. The principal observations upon this pitcher-plant in its native habitat have been made by Mrs. Austin, and only some of the earlier ones have thus far been published by Mr. Canby. But we are assured that in this, as in the *Sarracenia variolaris*, the sweet exudation extends at the proper season from the orifice down the wing nearly to the ground, and that ants follow this honeyed pathway to their destruction. Also, that the watery liquid in the pitcher, which must be wholly a secretion, is much increased in quantity after the capture of insects.

It cannot now well be doubted that the animal matter is utilized by the plant in all these cases, although most probably only after maceration or decomposition. In some of them even digestion, or at least the absorption of undecomposed soluble animal juices, may be suspected ; but there is no proof of it. But, if pitchers of the Sarracenia family are only macerating vessels, those of *Nepenthes*—the pitchers of the Indian Archipelago, familiar in conservatories—seem to be stomachs. The investigations of the President of the Royal Society, Dr. Hooker, although incomplete, well-nigh demonstrate that these not only allure insects by a sweet secretion at the rim and upon the lid of the cup, but also that their capture, or the presence within of other partly soluble animal matter, produces an increase and an acidulation of the contained watery liquid, which thereupon becomes capable of acting in the manner of that of *Drosera* and *Dionæa*, dissolving flesh, albumen, and the like.

After all, there never was just ground for denying to vegetables the use of animal food. The Fungi are by far the most numerous family of plants, and they all live upon organic matter, some upon dead and decomposing, some upon living, some upon both ; and the number of those that feed upon living animals is large. Whether these carnivorous propensities of higher plants which so excite our wonder be regarded as survivals of ancestral habits, or as comparatively late acquirements, or even as special endowments, in any case what we have learned of them goes to strengthen the conclusion that the whole organic world is akin.

The volume upon 'The Movements and Habits of Climbing Plants' is a revised and enlarged edition of a memoir communicated to the Linnean Society in 1865, and published in the ninth volume of its Journal. There was an extra impression, but, beyond the circle of naturalists, it can hardly have been much known at first-hand. Even now, when it is made a part of the general Darwinian literature, it is unlikely to be as widely read as the companion volume which we have been reviewing ; although it is really a more readable book, and well worthy of far more extended notice at our hands than it can now receive. The reason is obvious. It seems as natural that plants should climb as it does unnatural that any should take animal food. Most people, knowing that some plants "twine with the sun," and others "against the sun," have an idea that the sun in some way causes the twining : indeed, the notion is still fixed in the popular mind that the same species twines in opposite directions north and south of the equator.

Readers of this fascinating treatise will learn, first of all, that the sun has no influence over such movements directly, and that its indirect influence is commonly adverse or disturbing, except the heat, which quickens vegetable as it does animal life. Also, that climbing is accomplished by powers and actions as unlike those generally predicated of the vegetable kingdom as any which have been brought to view in the preceding volume. Climbing plants "feel" as well as "grow and live" ; and they also manifest an automatism which is perhaps more wonderful than a response by visible movement to an external irritation. Nor do plants grow up their supports, as is unthinkingly supposed ; for, although only growing or newly grown parts act in climbing, the climbing and the growth are entirely distinct. To this there is one exception—an instructive one, as showing how one action passes into another, and how the same result may be brought about in different ways—that of stems which climb by rootlets, such as of Ivy and Trumpet Creeper. Here the stem ascends by growth alone, taking upward direction, and is fixed by rootlets as it grows. There is no better way of climbing walls, precipices, and large tree-trunks.

But small stems and similar supports are best ascended by twining ; and this calls out powers of another and higher order. The twining stem does not grow around its support, but winds around it, and it does this by a movement the nature of which is best observed in stems which have not yet reached their support, or have overtopped it and stretched out beyond it. Then it may be seen that the extending summit, reaching farther and farther as it grows, is making free circular sweeps, by night as well as by day, and irrespective of external circumstances, except that warmth accelerates the movement, and that the general tendency of young stems to bend towards the light may, in case of lateral illumination, accelerate one-half the circuit while it equally retards the other. The arrest of the revolution where the supporting body is struck, while the portion beyond continues its movement, brings about the twining. As to the proximate cause of this sweeping motion, a few simple experiments prove that it results from the bowing or bending of the free summit of the stem into a more or less horizontal position, this bending being successively to every point of the compass, through an action which circulates around the stem in the direction of the sweep and of the consequent twining, *i.e.*, "with the sun" or with the movement of the hands of a watch in the hop, or in the opposite direction in pole-beans and most twiners.

Twining plants, therefore, ascend trees or other stems by an action and a movement of their own, from which they derive advantage. To plants liable to be overshadowed by more robust companions, climbing is an economical method of obtaining a freer exposure to light and air with the smallest possible expenditure of material. But twiners have one disadvantage : to rise ten feet they must produce fifteen feet of stem or thereabouts, according to the diameter of the support and the openness or closeness of the coil. A rootlet-climber saves much in this respect, but has a restricted range of action and other disadvantages.

There are two other modes, which combine the utmost economy of material with freer range of action. There are, in the first place, leaf-climbers of various sorts, agreeing only in this, that the duty of laying hold is transferred to the leaves, so that the stem may rise in a direct line. Sometimes the blade or leaflets, or some of them, but more commonly their slender stalks, undertake the work, and the plant rises as a boy ascends a tree, grasping first with one hand or arm, then with the other. Indeed, the comparison, like the leaf-stalk, holds better than would be supposed ; for the grasping of the latter is not the result of a blind groping in all directions by a continuous movement, but of a definite sensitiveness which acts only upon the occasion. Most leaves make no regular sweeps ; but when the stalks of a leaf-climbing species come into prolonged contact with any fitting extraneous body, they slowly incurve and make a turn around it, and then commonly thicken and harden until they attain a strength which may equal that of the stem itself. Here we have the faculty of movement to a definite end, upon external irritation, of the same nature with that displayed by *Dionæa* and *Drosera*, although slower for the most part than even in the latter. But the movement of the hour-hand of the clock is not different in nature or cause from that of the second-hand.

Finally—distribution of office being on the whole most advantageous and economical, and this in the vegetable kingdom being led up to by de-

grees—we reach, through numerous gradations, the highest style of climbing plants in the tendril-climber. A tendril, morphologically, is either a leaf or branch of stem, or a portion of one, specially organized for climbing. Some tendrils simply turn away from light, as do those of grape-vines, thus taking the direction in which some supporting object is likely to be encountered; most are indifferent to light; and many revolve in the manner of the summit of twining stems. As the stems which bear these highly-endowed tendrils in many cases themselves also revolve more or less, though they seldom twine, their reach is the more extensive; and to this endowment of automatic movement most tendrils add the other faculty, that of incurving and coiling upon prolonged touch, or even brief contact, in the highest degree. Some long tendrils, when in their best condition, revolve so rapidly that the sweeping movement may be plainly seen; indeed, we have seen a quarter circuit in a *Passiflora sicyoides* accomplished in less than a minute, and the half circuit in ten minutes; but the other half (for a reason alluded to in the next paragraph) takes a much longer time. Then as to the coiling upon contact, in the case first noticed in this country in the year 1858, which Mr. Darwin mentions as having led him into this investigation, the tendril of *Sicyos* was seen to coil within half a minute after a stroke with the hand, and to make a full turn or more within the next minute; furnishing ocular evidence that tendrils grasp and coil in virtue of sensitiveness to contact, and, one would suppose, negativing Sachs's recent hypothesis that all these movements are owing "to rapid growth on the side opposite to that which becomes concave"—a view to which Mr. Darwin objects, but not as strongly as he might. The tendril of this sort, on striking some fitting object, quickly curls round and firmly grasps it; then, after some hours, one side shortening or remaining short in proportion to the other, it coils into a spire, dragging the stem up to its support, and enabling the next tendril above to secure a readier hold.

In revolving tendrils perhaps the most wonderful adaptation is that by which they avoid attachment to or winding themselves upon the ascending summit of the stem that bears them. This they would inevitably do if they continued their sweep horizontally. But when in its course it nears the parent stem the tendril moves slowly, as if to gather strength, then stiffens and rises into an erect position parallel with it, and so passes by the dangerous point; after which it comes rapidly down to the horizontal position, in which it moves until it again approaches and again avoids the impending obstacle.

Climbing plants are distributed throughout almost all the natural orders. In some orders climbing is the rule, in most it is the exception, occurring only in certain genera. The tendency of stems to move in circuits—upon which climbing more commonly depends, and out of which it is conceived to have been educed—is manifested incipiently by many a plant which does not climb. Of those that do there are all degrees, from the feeblest to the most efficient, from those which have no special adaptation to those which have exquisitely endowed special organs for climbing. The conclusion reached is that the power "is inherent, though undeveloped, in almost every plant"; "that climbing plants have utilized and perfected a widely-distributed and incipient capacity which, as far as we can see, is of no service to ordinary plants."

Inherent powers and incipient manifestations, useless to their possessors but useful to their successors—this doubtless is according to the order of nature; but it seems to need something more than natural selection to account for it.

RECENT NOVELS.*

'ST. SIMON'S NIECE' is a story of the Colony—in other words, the American colony in Paris. It treats of a young lady who lives with her uncle and aunt—the former a dissolute adventurer of elegant appearance and charming manners, the latter an old lady known as the "Tortoise," and possessed of many singular attributes. The niece of this ill-assorted couple is in love with Talbot Castlemaine (the finest thing yet in names, it strikes us), who is also a dissolute adventurer of a fascinating exterior. The young lady herself is decidedly dissolute as well, and of course most fascinating, as may be illustrated by her constant habit of addressing her aunt—the "Tortoise"—as "T." They live, as we have said, in Paris, in the Avenue Friedland, together with Gregory Alleyne, Helen Devereux, Marian Payne, and Roland Spencer. They are all, even the "Tortoise," remarkably handsome; they possess lots of money; and they are all having, as the envious home-phrase is, "a delightful time over there." Talbot Castlemaine is indeed an Englishman (he in especial is as beautiful as a god), and he marries Marian Payne, who becomes Lady Castlemaine. Helen Devereux, however, is the most brilliant figure, for of her these things are related: "This round of visits among some of the most charming country-houses in England was a sufficiently new experience to be very agreeable, and I might crowd several chapters with the stereotyped accounts of hunts, dinners, county-balls, and the like. I might add to the list three days spent at the Royal castle which overlooks Windsor town—rather long, heavy days, Miss Devereux was forced to admit, under her breath—and a week in the quiet of Chiselhurst, where her old admiration for the most gracious, winning woman of our century warmed into a higher homage at the sight of the uncomplaining fortitude which ennobled that uncrowned brow." The touch about the young lady being bored with the society of the Queen of England, and yet keeping her ennui to herself lest the Queen should be distressed, strikes us as particularly fine. As she stayed a whole week with the Empress of the French, it is to be hoped that, in spite of this lady's sad situation, she found things more lively. But what does Mr. Benedict mean by his allusion to the "uncrowned brow" of the Empress? It seems ambiguous; for, to remind us that she never had been crowned diminishes the pathos of his image, and yet, as she never had been crowned, the phrase of course cannot be an inadvertence for *dis*crowned. Miss Devereux, at any rate, afterwards went to Italy. "The court had left *bella Firenze*, but it was very pleasant there nevertheless, and quite gay. Miss Devereux went out a great deal, and the Castlemaines accompanied her." Miss Devereux is a young girl from New York, without visible protectors or affiliations (she has, indeed, a mamma, who is barely mentioned), who is represented as going hither and thither about Europe at discretion, and occupying, *in propriâ personâ*, a great social position. We think, nevertheless, that when she "went out" in Florence it might have been conceded that she was in the care of the married couple just mentioned, rather than they in hers. This, however, is a peculiarity of Mr. Benedict's young ladies; we are told that in Paris "there was no trace of sadness or gloom in the pretty salons where Fanny St. Simon held sway." We are afraid that Mr. Benedict knows his Paris less well than he would have us believe. To "hold sway" in a salon means, for a woman, if it means anything, to preside in a salon of one's own. But as the author has put his substantive into the plural (and as we take it that he does not mean that Miss St. Simon literally "held," as the phrase is, several distinct salons), it is to be supposed that he simply alludes to his heroine's general sovereignty at evening entertainments. It was certainly very good-natured on the part of the other brilliant ornaments of the French capital to have left it in her hands. Miss Devereux, however, comes over (she has been living in Devonshire) to dispute Miss St. Simon's sway—comes over in a special train, after having telegraphed in advance: "I want an apartment for a month—longer, if I choose; the one we formerly had in the Champs Elysées if possible. They must send from the Café Anglais to manage the dinners." Miss Devereux might have done better for her dinners than to have them "sent in"; but when a poor young lady has to take care of herself, and of her friends as well, to the degree that had fallen to Miss Devereux's lot, she can hardly be expected to keep these little niceties in mind. We are unable to trace further the fortunes of the various members of the "Colony" as Mr. Benedict relates them, and indeed we feel guilty of a certain want of candor in having expatiated on them thus far. 'St. Simon's Niece' is a book to be briefly dismissed—an extremely unpleasant book. Snobbish, vulgar, cheaply meretricious, unwholesome, it reads like the work of a young woman of tawdry imagination, who has battened upon the productions of Miss Braddon and Edmund Yates. We say of a young woman, in spite of the name on the title-page (which may easily be a pseudonym) and because of the intrinsic evidence of the book. The style is inimitably feminine. "So they talked on until Fanny worked herself into one of her nervous states, and was absurdly gay." We think the reader will agree with us that these simple words were not written by a masculine hand.

'Buffets' is a much pleasanter performance; the tone of the story indeed, it must be confessed, is wholesome even to insipidity—unsophisticated to puerility. We cannot say that Mr. Doe's tale has riveted our attention, but it has left an agreeable impression of elevated purpose, of manly sympathies, and even of a slender natural facetiousness. The author has bravely attempted to write a characteristic American novel, which should be a tale of civilization—be void of big-hearted backwoodsmen and of every form of "dialect." He has laid his scene in the city of New York, and he has desired his story to savor of the soil. Unfortunately, his design has been more commendable than his success, and if this is the most that local influences can do for the aspiring and confiding American artist, he will not be encouraged to appeal to them. The first trouble with Mr. Doe's

* 'St. Simon's Niece. A Novel. By Frank Lee Benedict.' New York: Harper & Bros. 1875.

'Buffets. By Charles H. Doe.' Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 1875.

story is, that it is really not a story at all ; the author has gone to quite too little cost in invention. A rich merchant in New York is made bankrupt by the breaking out of the war of the Rebellion ; he dies of the shock, and leaves his son to care for his widow, his daughter, and a young girl without near relations who lives with these ladies. The young man, who, so long as he had plenty of pocket-money, was naturally not remarkable for thrift or industry, puts his shoulder to the wheel, cultivates economy, devotes himself to his mother and sister, makes them very comfortable, and at last marries the other young lady, while another young man marries the sister. The drama, it will be seen, is of primitive simplicity ; it is like a story written for children. The author has introduced a number of accessory figures ; but, as no one has anything particular to do, no one produces much illusion. We have in especial a side-glimpse of New York club-life, upon which, more than upon anything else, the author would appear to have expended himself. The theme is treated in the light satirical vein, with an intention, apparently, of consoling all black-balled members. The envied frequenters of the luxurious halls chatter away and puff at their cigars like schoolboys who have locked the door and are trying heroically to get tipsy. We cannot congratulate Mr. Doe on his picture of young New York. When it comes away from its club—which it seems to frequent with an assiduity prompted, at off-hours, by scepticism as to its really and truly belonging to one—it entertains itself with twisting off the bell-handles of the brown-stone fronts and dodging the policeman ; and when it wishes to express itself pleased with a ball at which it has been dancing it declares that it is "forced to admit that while there were some queer coves there whom [it] had never met anywhere before, it was a regular bustin', jolly old toot, and the Houldworthys had done themselves proud no end." We did wrong, perhaps, just now to say that the author had eschewed "dialect." The above is a specimen of the mode of speech of his humorous hero ; here is the conversational style of his serious one : "'Not bad, these people, eh, Frederic, my son ?' addressing himself paternally, and in French. 'Madame a little too well preserved, a little stiff ; but mademoiselle is charming, a pretty child ; I like her much, *la petite*. . . . Decidedly, my brave boy, we must cultivate this acquaintance. It will do to pass the time.'" It is regrettable that, having attempted to portray a number of typical young Americans, Mr. Doe should not have hit it more happily. The frolicsome ones are deplorably puerile, and we do not think the sober ones are quite in the right vein. After the young man who has lost his father and his fortune has knuckled down to work he receives an invitation from one of his old friends to dine with him at a club. He replies to it by a solemn letter declining the invitation, and declaring that he must break with all his old associates and give up all society of every kind. This strikes us as a trifle pedantic ; manly virtue should be a little more flexible. It would seem as if taking care of one's mother and sister were an act so unwonted, so strenuous and heroic, that it would be quite fatal to "let go" for an instant. All this is not easy and mature. The other good young man (the only one in the book who goes to the war, which is raging all this while) is perhaps on one occasion a trifle too easy. Going to confer with a young lady about another young lady with whom he is in love, and wishes his interlocutress to intercede for him, on her promising her support he proceeds to kiss her. The young lady's lover is of course passing the door at the time, and naturally concludes that he is kissing her for her own sake and not for another's. He discovers very promptly the roundabout character of the embrace, and this little ripple has to do duty with Mr. Doe as an episode. It is probable that all story-tellers proposing to deal with New York life will for some time to come, in the way of color and picturesqueness, be obliged to give more to their subject than they receive from it, but the author of 'Buffets' may be charged with not having taken what lay at hand. He has brought the war into his tale, but he has left it standing at the door. It is a singular fact that only one of the author's numerous young New Yorkers (and he in rather a dilatory fashion) is represented as repairing to the defence of his country. If this is satire (we have said Mr. Doe is satirical) it is rather "rough," as the gentlemen concerned would say. 'Buffets,' in fine, is tame and unskilled as a story, but we have read more masterly works which left one a less friendly feeling for the writer. The book is written (when the author is not too severely humorous) in correct and agreeable English, and seems to suggest that if Mr. Doe cannot write good novels he has it in him to write something better worth while than poor ones.

'Leah : A Woman of Fashion' belongs to the same family as 'St. Simon's Niece'; but they order this matter much better in England. 'Leah,' we take it, represents the artistic ideal of the author of 'St. Simon's Niece'—the full-blown perfection of the manner to which the author of that work ineffectually aspires. Mrs. Edwards, however, has the advantage of being in her own line decidedly clever, and of describing things which, if uncommonly disagreeable, are nevertheless tolerably real. Her line is the Continental English of damaged reputation—the adventurers, the gamblers and escaped debtors, the desperate economists, the separated wives, the young ladies without mammas who smoke cigarettes and "compromise" themselves with moustachioed foreigners. The word we have just used is the key-note of Mrs. Edwards's imagination ; every one is compromised and compromising ; her fancy revels in the idea, and presents it in every possible combination. Everything and every one is excessively improper, and are walking the tight-rope over depths of depravity. The depravity, of course, is chiefly of that particular species which, for ladies, is considered most "compromising," and the author's skill lies in making us know as much of it as possible without laying herself open to fatal charges. It is not Feydeau nor Flaubert we are reading, but the work of a British female hand, and here surely there can be nothing to blush at. In truth, the agility of the British female hand in playing tricks with "improper" subjects is something that we must leave to braver analysts than ourselves. Mrs. Edwards's present heroine is a young woman with "subtle-colored hair," a mouth that age might render "sensual or crafty, or both" ("or both" indeed !), and eyes of the "opal tint that Titian has painted for us." Of course, with Titian for a precedent Mrs. Edwards can afford to go very far. Her subtle, sensual, opaline heroine marries and has lovers. That is, has she them or has she not ? The story, such as there is of it, consists of a great fumbling and whispering and sighing and nodding over this important point ; but of course Mrs. Edwards balks at the definite fact, for if the propriety of writers of her school is extremely prurient, their audacity is singularly pusillanimous. We are spared the consummation of those dreadful tendencies about our heroine's mouth, for she dies at the age of twenty in the arms of her second husband, a young Frenchman, with whom, before her first marriage, she had attended at a late hour of the night a *café chantant* in the Champs Elysées. Mrs. Edwards, as we say, is clever ; she infuses a certain force of color into her pictures of shabby gentility and Anglo-foreign Bohemia. She describes in these pages, with a good deal of ingenuity and vividness, an English boarding-house in the Rue Castiglione, and if Thackeray had been before her in his 'Philip' this is hardly her fault. All women at heart, says the familiar axiom, love a rake ; whether or no the author of 'Leah' loves hers we cannot say, but she portrays them with a good deal of discretion. The distinguished, depraved, and impecunious Lord Stair is the best-drawn figure in the present volume. Mrs. Edwards is indeed clever enough to do much better than she does. She has no excuse, save indolence of invention, for putting us off with so very slender an apology for a plot. It is simple to baldness, and yet the commonest probability is violated. Leah is represented in the opening chapters as a horribly vicious young woman—a regular "bad 'un," as they say in England ; and yet without anything in the world having happened to change her, save the death of an ignobly dissipated husband, whom she despised and detested, she is transfigured at the close into a creature too perfect to live. Why also should the story be related exclusively in the present tense ? This device, prolonged through a whole volume, becomes most irritating. It is like reading a letter all italicized. But we are afraid advice is wasted upon a writer who can in any case beguile her readers with tit-bits like this : "Lady Jane Fuller is about the fastest visited woman in London—*probably one of the fastest women of any class in Europe*." This of course is irresistible—the historical impartiality of the "probably," the weightiness of the statement, the vista opened to the imagination as to what it is that Lady Jane Fuller does. It is almost as serious as reading Motley or Buckle—and so much more exciting.

Madame Sand continues, in the evening of her industrious life, to publish novels as rapidly as in her prime, and it would seem that, if some readers perceive in her tales a very natural weariness of imagination, she has not lost her power to entertain the general public. 'Flamarande' is but lately out, and it is already in a fifth edition. This indeed is better fortune than some of her earlier tales enjoyed, for she has never been an eminent "selling" writer, and it was not to the general public that she appealed. But she long ago ceased to write argumentative novels ; she now produces "stories," pure and simple, that no one can quarrel about, and that pretend only to entertain. Considering the enormous amount of work Mme. Sand has done in this way, and the exquisite quality of so much of it, she still is a wonderful improvisatrice. She reminds us of those famous old

'Leah : A Woman of Fashion. By Mrs. Annie Edwards.' New York : Sheldon & Co. 1875.

'Flamarande. Par George Sand.' Paris : Michel Lévy. 1875.

singers who have retired from the stage (or have not retired, as the case may be—the analogy so is more complete), who have lost their voice and their physical means, but who continue to charm the ear by the perfection of their method and their genius. Mme. Sand sings with but a thread of voice, comparatively—the volume and spontaneity of the organ are gone; but it is still singing, it is still melody—the tradition and style are left. In pure form, she is as nearly as possible the perfect story-teller; she unreels her narrative with a smoothness and softness that are quite beyond defining. The reader of 'Flamarande' floats along the limpid current of her prose, which seems too serene to be called voluble, and too finished ever to be called prolix, with a perpetual intention of closing the book—of going ashore—in the next chapter, and a perpetual inability to execute his intention. The story is superannuated, improbable, fantastic—it is like gliding in a gondola past a painted landscape. But the painting is so facile and mellow and harmonious that he at last "makes believe," at least, that he is deceived. If there is not illusion, there is friendly assent. As young artists go to listen reverently to the old voiceless singers, so young writers may do worse than read these last fruits of Madame Sand's indefatigable imagination. They will at least get a reminder of style, in the highest sense of the word. 'Flamarande' is moreover, for more trivial purposes, a capital romance of the old school.

Nothing is more striking in a clever French novel, as a general thing, than its superiority in artistic neatness and shapeliness to a clever English one. When we call an English novel clever, we usually mean that there are good things in it; we do not mean that, as a total, it is a good thing; but when we compliment a French novel, that *is* what we mean. It is the difference between a copious "Irish stew," or any dish of that respectable family, with its savory and nourishing chunks and lumps, and a scientific little *entrée*, compactly defined by the margin of its platter. M. Octave Feuillet serves us up *entrées* of the most symmetrical shape and the most spicy flavor. Putting aside Mme. Sand, it is hard to see who, among the French purveyors of more or less ingenious fiction, is more accomplished than he. There are writers who began with doing better things—Flaubert, Gustave Droz, and Victor Cherbuliez—but they have lately done worse, whereas M. Feuillet never falls below himself. He is the fashionable novelist—a gentleman or lady without a *de* to their name is, to the best of our recollection, not to be found in all his tales. He is perhaps a trifle too elegant and superfine; his imagination turns out its toes, as it were, a trifle too much; but grant him his field—the drawing-room carpet—and he is a real master. 'Un Mariage dans le Monde' is the novel of the moment in France. It is of course about the conjugal aberrations of young Madame de Rias. Her husband, as the French say, "avait des torts," and Madame, in consequence, in his absence, gives a rendezvous in her garden at midnight to M. de Pontis. Another gentleman, M. de Kévern, takes a friendly interest in her, and being informed by his sister, her intimate friend, of her projected folly, writes on a sheet of paper the simple words—"you will be very unhappy to-morrow," and sends it off to her. Hereupon he settles down by the fireside to conversation and reading aloud with his sister. The evening advances, the clock strikes eleven, the door opens and admits Mme. de Rias, who flings herself into the sister's arms and asks if she can have a night's lodging. The sister assents with silent tact, and Mme. de Rias then approaches the brother, extends her hand, and utters the eloquent word—"Merci!" M. Feuillet, after a year or two, always converts his novels into plays, and we can imagine the effect of this scene upon the stage, and how the curtain will fall upon Mme. de Rias's "Merci!" amid the plaudits of effervescent French sentiment. It is quite in the taste of a scene which we remember in one of the dramas of Dumas the younger, in which a *jeune fille* has been accused of having parted with that particular attribute in virtue of which she claims this title: greatly to the distress of a gentleman who loves her, and who has been inclined to believe the charge. Sifting the matter, however, he satisfies himself of its falsity, and, delicately to indicate his change of conviction—the young lady is aware that her reputation is on trial—as he is leaving a room at the moment she enters it, he addresses her with a bow and an italicized and commendatory "*Bon soir, Mademoiselle!*" This touch, we believe, had a great sentimental success.

Prince Bismarck: A Biographical Sketch. By Wilhelm Görlach. From the German by Miss M. E. von Glehn. (New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1875.)—This little book may well serve as an introduction to a profounder study of the character and career of the German Chancellor. It is more narrative than critical or analytical, and it allows Bismarck to speak for himself in copious extracts from his official utterances and, in a very charming way, from his domestic correspondence. Herr Görlach's point of view is that of a Liberal who is not ready to defend the Count's part in the constitutional struggles preceding the war of 1866, or to exonerate him because of the unhoped-for results of his policy, and because, in the words of another biographer, his "bitterest opponents have not hitherto been able to reproach him with pursuing a personal policy—with allowing self-love, in its various manifestations, to be the mainspring of his actions." Nevertheless, Herr Görlach's retrospective judgments are unavoidably tempered by the light which events since 1870 have shed upon Bismarck's aims and on his capacity for progress. In this respect, any biographer of the present day would have an advantage over Herr Bamberger, for example, who wrote before the Franco-Prussian war, and of whose work it may be said both that it is much abler than the one before us, and that it shows clearly the occasion which the slow development of Bismarck's purpose affords of revising opinions logically adopted, but liable to change on the revelation of the secret springs of diplomatic and individual activity. It hardly seems possible now that any phase of Bismarck's character remains unexplored, or that his countrymen's admiration for him is destined to undergo any such profound modification as took place after Sadowa, and again after Sedan. But, on the other hand, what may fairly be called the Protestant unification of the Empire, and the reconciliation of monarchy and of *idées Bismarckiennes* with constitutional freedom, seem to impose a rôle of great delicacy and, as regards an idolized reputation, of great danger; while the foreign complications which menace the peace of Europe so long as the Turks remain on this side of the Bosphorus, and the dismemberment of Austria in the interest of Panteutonism, if brought about in Bismarck's lifetime, promise scope for the attainment of still higher renown, or an anti-climax in which the want of success will popularly offset those achievements which thus far have made him the peer of Frederic II. and Stein, and the foremost statesman in Christendom.

Shakespeare-Lexicon. A complete dictionary of all the English words, phrases, and constructions in the works of the poet. By Dr. Alexander Schmidt. Vol. II. M-Z, pp. 679-1452. (Berlin: Georg Reimer. New York: F. W. Christern. 1875.)—The general scope of this admirable work we noticed in No. 476 of the *Nation*, some eighteen months ago. Little remains to be said, therefore, of the second volume, except that its execution is as careful, as minute, and as accurate as that of the first. For example, *toward*, *towards* (prep.), is treated in separate articles, although Shakspere's use of either form seems to have been as indifferent as is the usage nowadays. Before a consonant, vowel, or aspirate, the instances cited of *toward* are all but exactly as numerous as those of towards; but before a semi-vowel, *towards* occurs in the ratio of four to one. On the strength of a single quotation, Dr. Schmidt allows one more meaning to *towards* than to *toward*—viz., "about," in the passage from Richard III., "*towards* three or four o'clock." Discriminations of like delicacy and suggestiveness abound in this Lexicon. As was promised in the first volume, the appendix contains some grammatical observations covering points overlooked by Mr. Abbott, or which, when rightly referred to general rules, remove a great many of the stumbling-blocks of commentators. This portion of the work cannot be too highly commended as replete with instruction and exhaustive in illustrations. Some of the observations relate to the changeable accent of dissyllabic adjectives and participles, as in

"Might córrupt minds procure knaves as corrúpt";

others to the use of adjectives as substantives, and as virtual parts of compound nouns; of adverbs for adjectives; of the gerund in a passive sense; of the double negative; of the abstract for the concrete, and *vice versa*, etc., etc. They are followed by a notice of the solitary employment of provincial dialect by Shakspere (King Lear, iv. 6, 239); a list of words and sentences borrowed by him from foreign languages; and a novel and very useful list of words forming the latter part in compositions. Thus, to take one of the briefer examples:

"*Land:* Cumberland; England; fairyland; foot-land-raker; headland; Iceland; inland; Ireland; island; Lapland; Netherlands; Northumberland; Scotland; stubble-land; woodland."

Less than two pages are occupied with additions and corrections—high praise for a work of such magnitude as this, conceived and executed by a foreigner, and printed in English in a foreign land. There is only one thing more admirable about it, and that is the modesty of the compiler, his freedom from dogmatism, and his perfect subordination of himself and

'Les deux Frères. [Sequel.]' Paris: Michel Lévy. 1875.
'Un Mariage dans le Monde. Par Octave Feuillet, de l'Académie Française.' Paris: Michel Lévy. 1875.

his name to the task which he had set himself of helping to make Shakspere better understood, and to set a limit to needless conjecture and emendation. As a means of education in the English language, the Lexicon, of course, leaves the Concordance in the shade; and it has even diminished the indispensableness of Mrs. Clarke's Concordance.

Historical Scenes from the Old Jesuit Missions. By the Right Rev. Wm. Ingraham Kip, D.D., LL.D., Member of the New York Historical Society. (New York: Anson D. F. Randolph & Co. 16mo, pp. 375.)—Whoever wishes to understand the spirit of the counter-reformation, as it is sometimes called, cannot do better than to read Dr. Kip's extracts from the correspondence of the Jesuit missionaries. Of this great reaction the Society of Jesus was the inspiration, and almost the embodiment; and nothing better shows the necessity of the Protestant revolution itself, and the profound reform wrought by it in the Church itself, than the comparison of the spirit here manifested with that which pervaded the ecclesiastical world in the half century just before Luther. The heroic labors here described are the great historical mission of the Society, and its title to the world's memory; in view of them one is almost tempted to condone its great sins against Christianity and civilization in other fields.

These translations are made from the famous collection entitled 'Lettres Edifiantes,' from which Dr. Kip has published a previous selection, illustrating the 'Early Jesuit Missions in North America.' The present volume is, therefore, of less direct interest to us; it contains thirteen extracts—letters written from all the continents, but none nearer the present limits of the United States than Lower California. There is one, however, "The Rhode Island Privateer," which throws a curious side-light upon our colonial history. The French fort of Oyapoc, near Cayenne, was surprised and captured in 1745 by a "corsaire anglais," which turned out to be commissioned by "Williems Guéene, Governor of Rodelan"; and Dr. Kip has found that in reality William Greene was Governor of Rhode Island at this time, and has further traced out the personal history of Capt. Simeon Potter, who commanded the privateer. The writer of the letter appears to have been treated very well by the captain, with whom he had some interesting conversations, on theological points principally; but the crew was, of course, a rough and ignorant set. "They were like a band of monkeys, or of savages, who had never been away from the depths of the forest. A parasol or a mirror, the smallest article of furniture a little showy, excited their admiration. This did not surprise me, when I learned that they had scarcely any communication with Europe, and that Rodelan was a kind of little republic, which did not pay any tribute to the king of England, which elected its own governor every year, and which had not even any silver money, but only notes for daily commerce; for this is the impression I gained from all they told me" (p. 166).

The Literature of Kissing. By C. C. Bombaugh, M.D. (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.)—*All About Kisses.* By Damocles, with 100 illustrations by Hablot K. Browne (Phiz). (London: C. H. Clarke. 1875.)—To write two books upon kissing is a doing twice of what was hardly worth doing at all. Both those before us are disconnected strings of excerpts gathered anywhere and anyhow. Dr. Bombaugh has swept his drag-net over the waste of literature to better purpose before; but his volume is still fairly well done. Mr. Browne's, on the other hand, is abominably bad. It has almost every fault that a book of its kind can have. The text is vulgar and poorly printed, the illustrations are rough-hewn woodcuts. As a compilation it is slip-shod and inaccurate. Three stanzas printed, p. 121, and there credited to Burns, are reprinted, p. 144, and credited to Beaumont and Fletcher. It is altogether a most slovenly production. Dr. Bombaugh's has at least the merit of neat typography and careful compilation. It contains a mass of heterogeneous matter, prose and poetry, fact and fiction, history and anecdote, quoted from anybody and everybody, from Milton and from *Punch*. It extends over three hundred and eighty-two pages. We notice with surprise that both books omit Dufresny's dainty little lyric and the beautiful stanza from Mr. Swinburne's "A Catch."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*
Æneid of Virgil. Books XI., XII.	(Rivingtons)
Almanach de Gotha, 1876	(B. Westermann & Co.)
Buckley (Rev. J. M.), Supposed Miracles, swd.	(Hurd & Houghton)
Darwin (C.), Movements and Habits of Climbing Plants	(D. Appleton & Co.)
Eve (Prof. H. W.), Notes to Scott's Waverley	(Rivingtons)
Engel (Dr. F.), Nacht und Morgen unter den Tropen, swd.	(L. W. Schmidt)
Frentzel (J. P.), Ueber die Landespferdesucht, swd.	(L. W. Schmidt)
Holtzendorff (Dr. F. von), Der Priester Cölibat, swd.	(L. W. Schmidt)
Jannet (C.), Etats-Unis contemporains	(E. Plon)
Lord Macaulay's Essay on Hallam's Constitutional History	(Rivingtons)
Littell's Living Age. Vol. XXI.	(Littell & Gay)
Mannhardt (Dr. W.), Klytia, swd.	(L. W. Schmidt)
Pedder (H. C.), Religion and Progress: an Essay	(E. P. Dutton & Co.)
Rittershain (Prof. G. R. von), Die Heilkünstler des alten Roms, swd.	(L. W. Schmidt)
Reber (G.), The Christ of Paul; or, Enigmas of Christianity	(C. P. Somerby) $2 00
Ruskin (J.), Studies of Wayside Flowers	(John Wiley & Son)
" Wood and Metal Engraving	" "
" Studies of Waves and Stones	" "
Stieler's Hand-Atlas. Part 30 and last.	(L. W. Schmidt)
" " " "	(B. Westermann & Co.)
Strohm (Gertrude), Word-Pictures	(D. Lothrop & Co.)
Stern (Prof. A.), Milton und Cromwell, swd.	(L. W. Schmidt)
Thorpe (K.), Little Joanna: a Novel, swd.	(D. Appleton & Co.) 0 60
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This grand treatise was imported in quantities by Messrs. Lee & Shepard, from whom the undersigned has purchased the balance of the stock and reduced the price from $25 to $9.

LIFE OF ALEXANDER VON HUMBOLDT. Compiled by J. Lowenberg, Robert Ave Lallemant, and Alfred Dove. Edited by Prof. Karl Bruhns. Translated by Lassell. 2 vols. 8vo, cloth, 3 portraits. London: 1873.

This splendid biography of one of the great lights of modern science was first placed on the American market at $21. A balance of edition has been purchased by the subscriber and the price reduced to $5 the set. Only thirteen sets now remain.

ALASKA AND ITS RESOURCES. By W. H. Dall. 8vo, pp. 628, map and illustrations substantially bound in bevelled cloth. Boston: 1870.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 20, 1876.

The Week.

THE Republican National Committee have decided that the party shall hold its nominating convention at Cincinnati on June 14, and recommend the State committees to invite all voters, without regard to the past, who are opposed to sectionalism and in favor of "permanent harmony throughout the country by maintaining and enforcing all the constitutional rights of every citizen," including "suffrage without intimidation and without fraud"; all who are in favor of the continued prosecution and punishment of the officially dishonest, and of economy in administration through the employment of the officially honest; all who are in favor of making such reforms in government as may be suggested from time to time by experience; all who are opposed to impairing the credit of the country, and all who are in favor of sustaining it in every way; all who believe the common-school system to be the "nursery of American liberty," and that it ought to be maintained free from sectarian control; and, finally, all who believe that, "for the promotion of these ends," the Government should "continue to be confided to those who adhere to the principles of 1776," and who are in favor of "recognizing and strengthening the fundamental principles of national unity" in the Centennial year. Those among us who are bent on reviving sectional issues, on establishing permanent discord throughout the land, on intimidating and cheating at the polls, on the immediate discontinuance of the prosecution of the dishonest, or on securing economy by means of official peculation, of making no reforms of any sort, of repudiating the debt, and breaking up the common-school system, and such as think the Government ought not to continue to be confided to those who adhere to the principles of 1776, will not receive any invitation to Cincinnati, and had better not try to go there. They are marked men, and known to be either Democrats or Liberal Republicans. The Democrats maintain that there is not much sincerity in this first "bugle-blast" of the campaign, because a large number of the committee—according to one computation, fourteen out of forty-two—are disreputable persons, scalawags, carpet-baggers, "bummers," and "back-pay grabbers." This is a large proportion, even in these times; but, if true, it does not at all impair the beauty of the sentiments of the document itself.

The Senate has, during the week, eulogized Andrew Johnson and settled what is known as the President *pro-tem.* question. This has been done by adopting (by a vote of 34 to 15) the third of Senator Morton's resolutions, declaring that the office of *pro-tempore* President is held at the pleasure of the Senate; while the fourth, declaring Mr. Ferry President *pro tem.* on the ground of his election during the last session, was withdrawn as unnecessary. This leaves the matter, probably, in the most sensible position in which it could be placed, and disposes of the notion that by some metaphysical and unintelligible process a presiding officer elected temporarily might acquire through an accident a fixed tenure independent of the body which elected him. Besides this, the Senate has been occupied with listening to an attack on the Treasury accounts by Senator Davis of West Virginia, who showed in an elaborate statement that while before 1870 all the finance reports of the Treasury substantially agreed as to the total annual expenditures of the Government, that of 1870 differs as to these expenditures from all like previous reports in respect to the years included between 1860–61 and 1865–66. Besides this, other changes were made after 1870. Mr. Boutwell replied that the whole difficulty was simply a matter of book-keeping and would disappear on investigation, while Mr. Davis made a bad appearance, as it turned out that he did not understand double-entry book-keeping. Mr. Boutwell has presented a Massachusetts petition asking the passage of a law making every member of Congress directly responsible to the electors of his district, so that a majority of them may at any time withdraw him and appoint a successor—a measure which would probably result in nipping in the bud many a promising Congressional career.

In the House of Representatives the Amnesty debate has continued to rage, Messrs. Garfield, Seelye and Banks, Randall and Blaine, taking part in it. Mr. Blaine made a furious speech, in which he did his best to goad the Southern and Democratic members into a little of the old fire-eating fury, but without much success. Mr. Banks made a sort of Centennial harangue, advocating peace and good-will on earth, and also the remarkable doctrine that no president of a government of limited powers, neither Jefferson Davis nor Grant nor anybody else, was responsible for the acts of any of his subordinates. Messrs. Garfield and Seelye were temperate in their speeches, and did what they could to moderate the feeling of the House. The debate left amnesty very much where it found it. The vote on the bill as reported back from the Judiciary Committee (removing all disabilities on the taking of an oath to obey the Constitution and laws) was, yeas 182, nays 97; and so, for want of a two-thirds vote, the bill was rejected. Mr. Blaine then moved to reconsider, but, not succeeding in a last appeal to the other side to let his amendment go to vote, withdrew the motion, and the bill was thus, under the rules, effectually shelved. An attempt was made on Monday by Mr. White of Kentucky, a Democratic member, to bring the House to a vote on a bill amnestying everybody except Jefferson Davis; but again, for want of a two-thirds vote, the attempt failed. Besides amnesty, the House has ordered a good many enquiries, having adopted, among others, Mr. Morrison's resolution enquiring into all expenditures; the Centennial appropriation has been discussed; and the 120th Rule has been amended by an almost strict party vote, so as to permit the cutting down of salaries. Mr. Holman of Indiana endeavored to get a vote in favor of a repeal of the Resumption Act of last session, but it was unsuccessful, a two-thirds majority not being obtained. The long list of Democrats voting yea has an unpleasant look.

Mr. James B. Beck has been elected Senator from Kentucky, and his "record" is in consequence being severely scrutinized. It appears that he is a native of Scotland, and a man of education, and on the money question has voted against inflation measures. From Iowa Mr. Samuel J. Kirkwood goes to the Senate, where he will probably not contribute much original thought to the problems that may arise for discussion, and will, on the other hand, not be likely to do much harm. The Mississippi senatorship has been given to Mr. Lamar, the Republicans voting blank, on the ground, it is said, that the late election was carried by fraud and violence. The Louisiana senatorial dispute still seems as far from settlement as ever, the contestants now being our old friend Pinchback and Mr. Eustis, member of a well-known and influential Louisiana family, and a leading supporter of the "Wheeler compromise." His selection as claimant brings the contending forces of Southern politics—misgovernment successful through ignorance, fraud, chicane, and corruption on the one hand, and honest but down-trodden public spirit on the other—face to face; a state of things which is said to be highly satisfactory to "Pinch."

The aldermen have succeeded in driving General Porter out of the Public Works Department, and so gained a victory on the wages question for "reform." The Mayor has nominated Mr. Allan Campbell, an experienced engineer, to fill the vacancy, and it is supposed that he will be confirmed, though there is some hesitation among

the aldermen, caused by the fact that Mr. Campbell is strongly suspected of having in his employment of laborers on important works paid the market rate of wages; but as it would be difficult to find anybody who had not been in the habit of doing so, and who is at the same time competent to fill the place, the objection has not so much weight as it otherwise would have. An examination of the list of the petitioners for the retention of General Porter shows that it represented the most substantial and important interests in the city, and its almost contemptuous rejection by the aldermen shows how little identity there is between those interests and "political" considerations. What the petitioners asked was that an official appointed to manage their affairs should not be turned out of office for refusing to waste their money. On making this request they were cross-examined by the aldermen very much as if their appearance at all was a gross piece of impudence, and then turned out to cool their heels in the lobby, while the committee went in to report unanimously against taking any notice of their request.

Railroad construction has proceeded slowly during 1875, as appears from the statistics given in the *Railroad Gazette*. In the great railroad year before the panic 7,340 miles were added to the railroad system of the United States; in 1873 the amount fell off to 3,883; in 1874 it was 2,025; and in 1875 only 1,483 miles have been built. The falling-off in construction has been greatest in the South and the Northwest. The States south of the Potomac and the Ohio in 1872 built 1,343 miles of new railroad; in 1875 but 105 miles. In the Northwest (Ohio, Michigan, Indiana, Illinois, Wisconsin, Minnesota, Iowa, Missouri, Kansas, Nebraska, and Dakota) 4,196 miles were built in 1872, and only 475 miles in 1875. These figures give in a small compass an idea of the unhealthy expansion of three years ago and the subsequent collapse. On the other hand, New England and the Middle States—the home of manufactures and capital—built as many miles in 1875 as in 1874, and nearly half as many as in 1872, while the extreme West, including the Pacific coast, built many more in 1875 than in 1874, as many as in 1873, and three-fourths as many as in 1872. The *Railroad Gazette* thinks that the statistics do not clearly show what effect hostile legislation may have had on construction:

"In Wisconsin, the only State where the laws have actually been executed, the only new road was built to save a land-grant, or prevent a contest as to the title to one. But most of the Northwestern States are so well provided with railroads, and the newer ones have so generally been financial failures, that the cessation of construction was to be expected, however favorable the laws."

With regard to a revival of railroad construction, the only significant fact is that more than three-fourths of the whole mileage of 1875 was completed in the last half of the year—a proportion greater than for previous years; and this justifies the conclusion that there was a slight revival of railroad construction during the latter half of 1875, and that it was in its most depressed condition since the war during the first half of the year.

The rates for money have fallen during the week both here and in London. The cause of the fall here was the return flow of currency from the West, the New York banks having gained more than $5,000,000 in legal-tender notes, besides nearly half as much more in national-bank notes. The surplus reserve of the banks is now nearly $14,000,000. In London, the movement of specie to the Continent was checked by the advance of the Bank of England discount rate to 5 per cent., and the Bank has since gained specie; accordingly, although the Bank rate is still 5 per cent., there is no difficulty in getting "prime" three-months' bills discounted elsewhere at 3¾ to 4 per cent. The turn towards ease in the London money market has had little effect on securities. Here it has been very different, and all securities which are safe investments have been in such demand as to advance prices materially. In addition, there has been a very brisk speculation in shares of sufficiently doubtful value to create a difference of opinion as to what their market price should be. With the close of the year the large majority of professional speculators in Wall Street were "short" of stocks, and they have since, not feeling safe in their position, been buying them back, their purchases having created a demand sufficient to carry prices up from two to ten "points"; in this covering movement several of the smaller "bear" speculators have failed, and one Stock-Exchange house—Dickinson & Co.—of high standing both in respect to character and means. The outside public have had little or nothing to do with the upward speculation, although there is a growing opinion that railroad property has passed the point of extreme depression for the next few years; this opinion being encouraged by the more economical management of railroad corporations, but chiefly by the modification of the Granger influence, as is shown by recent events in Wisconsin, where the Granger madness was most virulent.

The figures showing the foreign trade of New York during the year 1875 have appeared during the week. The total imports were $340,658,569, which is a smaller amount than in either of the two preceding years. In 1870 the total imports were $315,200,022; from 1870 back to 1863 there is a decrease, the total in the latter year having been $187,614,577. The customs receipts at New York during 1875 were $105,388,449, or about two-thirds of the whole amount for the entire country, and more than enough to pay the whole coin interest on the public debt; in 1874, the customs receipts at this port amounted to $111,101,214, and in 1873 to $137,215,802. The exports from New York during 1875 amounted to $324,018,878, against $345,162,361 in 1874, and $348,905,076 in 1873. In 1875 there entered into these exports $67,556,650 specie and bullion, in 1874 $61,222,228, and in 1873 $48,659,661. The large specie shipments in 1875 are traceable to the Treasury policy of funding 6 per cent. bonds into 5 per cents, or rather to the Syndicate operations connected therewith. The gold price of $100 greenbacks has ranged during the week between $88 88 and $88 39.

Mr. Trenor W. Park flattered himself and, we believe, tried to persuade the public that the recent revolution in the Emma Mining Company, by which the directors who had instituted proceedings against him and his confederates here were turned out of office, meant the abandonment of the suit against him, and in some sort his acquittal of the charges made against him. There appeared at the same time the usual semi-annual rumor that a "vein had been struck" in the mine, and that all the early anticipations of the large-hearted vendors about the value of that property would be amply vindicated. We fancy it was under the influence of this delusion that Park brought his ridiculous suits against the *Nation* and *Tribune*, in which he proclaims that his "reputation" has been somehow damaged by them. It now turns out, however, that the new managers of the Company are more determined and hostile than the old ones; that a main cause of their dissatisfaction with the late directors and solicitor was the fear that they had compromised or meant to compromise with Park; that the new men have given up the mine as a hopeless swindle, and now mean to devote their time and money to the punishment of the swindlers; that one of them, Mr. MacDougall, a determined and wealthy Scotchman, in order that there shall be no failure of justice, offers to bear the expense of following up the conspirators himself, and has already turned a savage eye on the unhappy Schenck, and is forging new weapons for the pursuit of his friend Park. The papers in the proceedings now pending have been turned over to the new solicitors of the Company by order of the Vice-Chancellor, and we shall probably see Park in a state of great litigious activity during the Centennial year. One of the little tricks in which he is now indulging is attaching the mine and its appurtenances under a claim he makes against the Company, we suppose to produce the impression that he eagerly desires to get

possession of the property again, and wishes he had never parted with it. We can only say to Mr. MacDougall and his associates that they are engaged in a noble work, in which they will have the hearty sympathy of all good people on this side of the water, and that they owe it to the interests both of honest trade and of sound morality to make international swindling, if not terrible, at least unprofitable.

A recent police case in London will, we trust, be a warning to Mr. Schenck, "his much-esteemed friend" the Marquis de Saldanha, and all other diplomatists who go into speculative enterprises in foreign markets. The "London Saw-mill and Short-length Timber Company (Limited)" was launched some weeks ago with an imposing list of titled directors, and the manager has just been brought up before the magistrates on a charge of obtaining money under false pretences, and for conspiring with the directors to obtain money under false pretences. The directors were "major-generals," "colonels," and "honorables," but appear to have been a sad lot. The colonel's address was wrongly given, and he had not the country mansion the prospectus said he had. The "honorable" was only a lodging-house keeper, and another of them, who gave his address at a country-seat, turned out only "a linen-draper." But they had, nevertheless, managed to cheat large numbers of poor people out of sums ranging from £50 to £100. They said in court, like Schenck and Park and Stewart, that they had "a perfect answer," and that if there was a "short adjournment" the money would be returned, but it would not do. The magistrate was inexorable, and they will have to go to trial. Apropos of this, there is talk of Schenck's being recalled, Mr. Foster, now of the Mexican Mission, taking his place. We hope it may be true, but it will be rather hard on him to recall him when he has, as he says, done no more than the Duke de Saldanha, and when the corruption was so great in England in the days of Walpole.

The news from Germany is unimportant. The semi-official Berlin paper, in reviewing the political events of the year, declares that the signs of acquiescence by the Catholic clergy in the execution of the Falk Laws are multiplying, and this is taken as a proof that the Church is prepared at least to compromise, and is corroborated by the news from Rome, which says that Cardinal Antonelli is making preparations to ascertain whether a *modus vivendi* cannot be discovered. The most objectionable feature of the new penal code, which made Germans living abroad liable to prosecution after their return home for violations of the German laws while abroad, has been defeated without difficulty. It appears, from the discussions called forth by the Thomas affair, that under the German penal code as it now stands he would not have been found guilty of murder, as he had not premeditated what occurred, but something entirely different, so that the Bremerhaven slaughter was only the result of an accident. An amendment to the code, however, making the preparations to commit an offence criminal, even if no immediate steps to commit it had been taken, appears to have been thrown out by the Parliament, on what ground we are unable to say. Our latest advices from Germany, by the way, make the recent solemn protest of the Americans that Thomas's crime was not national but individual somewhat less superfluous than at first appeared. There has really been a very intense feeling against Americans all over Germany, and this has not merely found expression in the newspapers, which declared that the American love of money led straight up to dynamite practices, but has affected the intercourse of the two peoples in a very unpleasant manner. We believe it has even been found difficult by Americans to get parcels addressed to them delivered.

Marshal MacMahon has issued a proclamation, preparatory to the general election, in which he calls on the people to apply the constitutional laws "with common accord and sincerity," and warns them that he alone has the right to propose any revision of them prior to 1880; thinks they ought not to be revised, however, until fairly tried, and that for a fair trial a conservative and truly liberal policy, such as he has always intended to pursue, should prevail; invites those who place the defence of social order "above their recollections, aspirations, or party engagements" to rally round his government, and to discourage those who threaten the future of the country "by the propagation of anti-social or revolutionary doctrines"; and declares that, while he neither sought nor desired the power that he is invested with, he will exercise it without weakness. He signs himself "President of the French Republic." The proclamation was generally taken as, and was probably intended to be, a sort of formal notice that the crisis which has recently arisen in the cabinet would make no difference, and that it was sufficiently healed. Enough returns have at this writing come in from the senatorial election of delegates to the Senatorial College to make it probable that the Senate will contain, out of three hundred members, one hundred and thirty Republicans, mostly conservative; one hundred Bonapartists who wish to "push things," or militant Bonapartists, as they are now called; seventy of odds-and-ends, including a certain proportion of "patient Bonapartists," or Bonapartists who wish to bide their time. There are but few extreme Radicals elected, and few Legitimists or Orleanists. In fact, the main divisions of the body will be Conservative Republicans (that is, men who are satisfied with a republic, but would not kick violently against a monarchy) and Bonapartists of various degrees of violence. It has to be borne in mind that the elections which took place on Sunday were those of delegates from the Municipal Councils to the electoral colleges which are to choose the senators. The senators are chosen in the last resort by these colleges and by the councils-general of the Departments and the councils of the arrondissements, besides the seventy-five chosen by the Assembly, who sit for life. The remaining 225 sit for nine years, but begin with short terms of three and six years, distributed by lot, so that one-third shall always go out of office every three years.

The Sultan's firman, which was intended to anticipate the demands of the Western Powers, contains little that was not to be found in previous instruments of the same kind, but it puts the "reforms" in a little better shape. The Christians are to be allowed to elect their own representatives in the courts and municipal councils as well as the Mussulmans, instead of having them nominated, which is a decided step in advance. The Christians, too, are to choose their own tax-gatherers, and the police are not to meddle in the collection. Forced labor on the roads of landlords is abolished; and only those Christians who are between the ages of twenty and forty are to pay the tax in lieu of military service. But there is no provision in the document making any change in the law of landlord and tenant. After the issue of the firman of 1856, known as the Hatti-Hamayoun, the treaty between Turkey and the Great Powers expressly stipulated that the latter powers should not have the right to interfere either severally or collectively in the relations of the Sultan with his subjects or in the internal administration of the empire. The difference between that crisis and the present one will probably be that the powers will now insist on interfering, and on providing permanent means of interference. The probabilities seem to increase that Austria will occupy the disturbed provinces in the spring. There is in the meantime no sign of any disposition on the part of the Sultan to check his extravagance or surrender any portion of his power, and the taxes for the expenses of putting down the rebellion are being wrung from the peaceful districts with relentless severity, and there are signs of considerable perturbation among the Mussulman population of Constantinople, who feel as if the Infidels were getting the better of the Sultan. The Montenegrin contributions to the struggle seem to be increasing, and there is a party in the official class at Constantinople, headed by Hussein Arni Pasha, the late Grand Vizier, in favor of declaring war against the Principality at once, but the fear of bringing Austria or Russia into the field will probably prevent anything so energetic.

AMNESTY FOR JEFFERSON DAVIS.

THE debate on the Amnesty Bill was certainly unfortunate, both in matter and manner It consisted mainly of a game of recrimination between Northern and Southern politicians, in which both sides were very vulnerable. Without meaning in any way to palliate or excuse the speeches and resolutions produced by Mr. Hill of Georgia or anybody else at the South during the war, we may mention that there are but few Northern members of Congress whose speeches will bear being dragged to light and read in the calm of our own time. There was a great deal of ferocious and extravagant language uttered in Washington as well as Richmond which its authors would now either be ashamed of or not care to own. There were doctrines held at the North, by men passing as sane, about "rebels" and "treason" which would now sound wholly irrational even to those who propounded them. Nevertheless, few sensible persons are disposed to blame or think the worse of people who talked wildly during the war. It is only human to talk wildly when guns are booming and men are falling. Great communities cannot fall to killing each other by the thousand each day without throwing individuals off their balance, and producing floods of truculent and boastful menace, and setting large numbers of really soft-hearted and kindly men and women to pretending on paper and on the platform that if they had their way they would draw and quarter their enemies. There was doubtless more of this at the South than at the North, both because the habit of threatening and denunciation was more deeply rooted in Southern manners, and because hatred of enemies had a place in Southern morals which was wholly denied it at the North, and because during the latter part of the struggle at least the Northern blows seemed aimed at the very vitals of Southern society. If a careful comparison were made of the language of the newspapers and public men on both sides, we have ourselves no doubt the South would suffer by it greatly. But why make it? What good end can be served by it? In what way would it promote either the material or moral welfare of a single human being on this continent? On the contrary, is there not something absolutely childish, if not mischievous, in bandying contradictions in a legislative body over what I said, and what you said, and what he said, ten or fifteen years ago in the midst of a conflict long ended, over questions fully settled, and, as far as human eye can see, settled for ever?

It does not follow, however, that because the debate took a foolish and somewhat trivial turn, the subject was not worth debating. We cannot help thinking that the question of excepting Jefferson Davis from the operation of a general amnesty does really deserve careful consideration, and is a respectable, and not inopportune, question even in the Centennial year, and we do not believe that it can be settled by a simple enquiry into his responsibility for the horrors of Andersonville or for any other episode of the war. We, for our own part, should be inclined to exclude him from the benefits of the proposed amnesty, even if he had done everything in his power to secure proper treatment for Federal prisoners, and even if the treatment of the Confederate prisoners had been all that it is said on the Northern side to have been—for reasons which we produced, in great part, after his capture in 1865, and which, as it seems to us, have lost none of their force.

If it be asked, why select him for punishment any more than any other man at the South? the answer is, that it is the Southern people who selected him. They made him the President of the Confederacy because he was the most prominent man in the movement which led to the Confederacy. He bore a leading part in organizing and directing it, and was the foremost representative of its temper and aims. In short, the selection of him was a strong but careful recognition of his claims to be considered, more than any other man, responsible for the rebellion, and he did his best during the war to justify the selection by his acts and language. He never once, during his administration, suggested in the remotest way a possibility of peace or reconciliation, and he spoke in published speeches of the Northern people in terms which probably no leading officer of a belligerent power has, even in modern times, employed towards a civilized enemy. Down to the last kick in the last ditch, he did what he could to prevent the arrangement of any *modus vivendi* between North and South. In short, if any one ought to suffer for the war by special legislative designation, he is, by the choice of his own associates, the very man.

But, ought *any one* to suffer? As regards the mass of the Southern people, there is no question that complete amnesty and oblivion was and is the wisest of all courses, and no less beneficial to the North than to the South. As regards even the prominent men, the peculiar mode of reorganizing Southern society which the North adopted rendered their complete and early liberation from all disabilities a matter of prime necessity. There was nothing the new South needed so much as the direction of character and intelligence; and the policy which after the war deprived it of the political services of its then natural leaders, its honest and educated men, was unquestionably mistaken. Nothing could have justified this legal exclusion from participation in the government but the danger of their again rising in insurrection, and no rational man pretended or pretends that this existed. The crisis at the South after the war was one which called for men of common honesty, common veracity, and ordinary acquaintance with the machinery of civil government, and of these our penal legislation actually for a while deprived the new communities, and blacklegs and gamblers and defaulters rushed in to fill their places. So that, for practical ends, general amnesty was really necessary, and, because necessary, wise and commendable.

But, then, there is no practical end that we know of to be served by making Jefferson Davis again competent to hold office, for this is all that his inclusion in the amnesty would amount to. His present disabilities in no way damage him in body or estate. He holds property, can sue and be sued, come and go, like other men. If he suffers at all for taking his share in the rebellion, he suffers only in mind, and that he suffers in mind there is no good reason for believing. If he were amnestied, however, there can be little doubt that an early opportunity would be taken to send him back to the House or the Senate; and the question now is whether the North can really, even by fair-minded Southerners, be expected to expose itself to a contingency of this kind, and whether it would be well for it to do so. The South can, after complete defeat in war—and such a war!—hardly call on the victors for the suppression of every species of susceptibility and the effacement of every trace of ordinary human pride. There are some signs of indignation over the past, which people who have won, after fighting hard and losing half a million of men, may surely be allowed to display, and there could hardly be a smaller or milder sign than the relegation of Mr. Jefferson Davis to private life for the rest of his days. Then, too, the position the North took during the war, and has taken since its close, in its relations to foreign opinion, must not be forgotten. It distinguished the late rebellion from all other previous rebellions on two grounds—that its object was the preservation and perpetuation of slavery, and that it had broken out under a Constitution which gave perfectly free play to all peaceful efforts to effect constitutional changes. On these grounds it called for the sympathy of the best men of other countries in terms such as no state before when engaged in civil war has felt justified in using, and on these grounds, too, it described the moral guilt of the promoters of the insurrection in terms of unprecedented vehemence. Now, it will not do to act as if this talk was all buncombe, as if all the moral heat and wrath of that period were due to the passions of the battle-field, and had no root in cold and settled principle. It will not do, after describing Jefferson Davis as all our moralists as well as politicians described him, to treat him as if he were simply a mistaken politician who had outlived his errors. A decent regard for the opinion of mankind, even if we are not burdened with self-respect, requires us to exclude him at least from participation in the councils of the nation he tried to destroy. There is a point in legislation, as in social intercourse, at which charity and mercy

become vices dangerous to the social order. The successful cultivation of the virtue of good-nature has, in the opinion of many, carried us to this point already, so that our penitentiaries begin to be regarded by a large class of the community as merely a refuge of the unlucky, in which any of us might any day find himself. Nevertheless, it would not be difficult to show that civil society rests on the assumption that some men are better than others; that people who have led decent lives are entitled to sit in judgment on criminals; and that right and wrong are not mere conventions which may be established one year and may be changed the next. We owe it to ourselves, in short, to say that there was at least one man whose political career was closed by his share in "the greatest rebellion the world ever saw."

THE TYRANNY OF RULES OF PROCEDURE.

THE attempt to obtain restitution from Tweed by legal means has now reached the stage of broad farce in which no lawyer, we think, can fairly complain of laymen for commenting on it with some asperity. When Tweed's frauds and thefts were first discovered, it took the bar and the courts, as well as we remember, two years to find out who was the proper person to sue him—an incident which, we venture to assert, is without parallel in judicial history. When he was first brought to trial it was found necessary for the prosecution to make short biographies of the entire panel in order to challenge intelligently in making up the jury. When he saw that he was going to be tried a second time, and that a "struck" or select jury would be granted, he ran away, leaving his counsel in charge of his cases; and in getting the jury, the extraordinary spectacle was witnessed of the challenge of persons for having opinions unfavorable to the defendant, he being at the time a fugitive from justice. The last announcement that the attempts to obtain a struck jury had failed a second time, and that the panel had been exhausted, and that the counsel for the prosecution did not know what he would do next, and the counsel for the defence declined to say what he would do were he in his place, recalls so vividly some of the scenes in the opéra-bouffe that discussion of the matter in detail would be idle.

To persons outside this city, the case is principally interesting as an illustration of the way in which the judicial and political and even legislative machinery of the country is being clogged, almost to the point of stoppage, by mere forms of procedure, and of the extent to which skill in the use of these forms is allowed to take the place of serious qualifications for real business. In the House of Representatives, the debate which has been attracting so much attention during the last week was not a *bonâ-fide* debate, intended to balance opposing reasons and influence opinion on the subject nominally before the House, but a game of technical skill in the use of parliamentary rules of procedure between two masters of the art, Messrs. Randall and Blaine. The contest which has been going on between the two parties ever since the House met is of just the same nature. The "advantages" which Mr. Blaine gets over Mr. Randall, or Mr. Randall over Blaine, consist not in able presentations of some view or policy to Congress or the country, but in some such dextrous use of the rules of procedure that one party shall be cut off from discussing or voting on something he wished to discuss or vote on, or be compelled to discuss or vote on something he wished to avoid, or be compelled to submit to the production of some question in a shape which will place his position or motives in a damaging light; and the struggle is watched and each step in it recorded by the papers with as much eager interest as if there were no legislative work to be done, no weighty and important problems waiting for solution. In fact, "the rules" have now been so amended and studied and arranged, and some gentlemen have attained such familiarity with them, that in most of our legislative bodies it is increasingly difficult for anybody not an accomplished parliamentarian to get a fair hearing on anything, as he is so surrounded by pitfalls at every step he takes. Moreover, a great many people are beginning to forget, and some have already forgotten, that rules of procedure were originally intended to facilitate discussion, and lead to decisions, whether legislative or judicial, on the subject-matter of the discussion. They are now constantly used simply to enable persons to exhibit tricks displaying quickness and dexterity, and the public is beginning to believe that successful juggling of this sort is one of the marks of statesmanship or of legal talent. The Tweed trials have consisted almost exclusively of tricks and counter-tricks, in which the position of the judges is somewhat like that of a referee at a "billiard tournament." They listen hour after hour to long harangues over the question whether certain regulations, intended originally to produce a full and fair trial of the issue, ought not in right and justice to prevent or indefinitely postpone such trial, and their decisions have a strong resemblance to the "scoring" at a match. In Congress at this moment the principal use of "the rules" seems to be to determine the chances of various gentlemen for a nomination for the Presidency, and a "point well taken" is talked of with as keen interest as if it in some way affected the currency, or the tariff, or the Cuban question, or the civil service, when in reality it only affects the political fortunes of one of many ambitious politicians. The difficulty of getting the merits of any public question or of any candidate for office before a caucus or convention is so well known, and has been so much commented on, that we need not give it more than a mention here. When a well-meaning citizen proposes to himself to take an active part in politics, beginning with attendance at primary meetings, he finds himself met at the door with a mass of rules or customs of procedure which he must not only be familiar with in an ordinary way, but must have so deeply studied and pondered on that he can perceive beforehand the various ways in which they can be used to stop his mouth, and be ready with all the parries. As he generally finds that he can only do this by the abandonment of his lawful calling, he stays at home, and the regular practitioners pretend to mourn his absence, and put articles in the party newspapers deploring his "apathy" and ridiculing the absurd figure he cut at the convention.

There is perhaps no way, however, in which the rules of procedure have been turned so effectively for the obstruction of public business as by the adoption of the theory that anybody who has read, or talked, or heard about a matter of public notoriety, or has passed an opinion about it, cannot be trusted to participate in a judicial investigation of it. The effect of this in a community in which newspaper reading, and oral discussion of newspaper topics, and the formation of opinions on them, are not only a universal custom but almost an accepted duty of the citizen, is to deprive the state of the services of all those who are most competent to aid it in judicial enquiries, and the theory is based on a view of human character which, if well founded, would render civilized society almost impossible. There is something almost incredibly absurd, for instance, in asking a respectable New Yorker whether he has heard of William M. Tweed; whether he thinks Tweed in any way defrauded the city; whether he has heard that Tweed has absconded; and then telling him to stand aside as a person who would probably be unable to give a verdict according to the evidence, under the direction of the Court. Rules which permit this, point directly to government by wholly illiterate laborers or inmates of the almshouse.

The disease, too, curiously enough, seems to be spreading, and has invaded the Christian church. The fencing and sparring which preceded the agreement to call a Mutual Council over in Brooklyn had a strikingly close resemblance to the efforts of Tweed to get a fair trial, and the parallel has almost been completed by the breakdown of the plan, through the exclusion of Drs. Budington and Storrs and their churches. The Beecher case has now been for one year and a half before the country. It has formed during the whole of that period a leading topic of discussion in many thousand newspapers, and a leading topic of conversation in almost every circle. It has been twice tried, once *ex-parte* by a church committee, and once by a court of law. Under these circumstances, the knowledge of it has naturally permeated the Congregational Church, and led inevitably to the formation by every church-mem-

ber of an opinion on the question of Mr. Beecher's guilt. A reference of the question, therefore, to a collection of churches meant of necessity a reference to a tribunal composed of persons biassed in one direction or the other, but presumably capable, under the influence of the Holy Spirit and with the help of prayer, of laying aside their prepossessions and acting fairly. The minute the choice of the tribunal began, however, "the challenges to the favor" began too, and it was soon discovered that as all the churches knew about the scandal, and had thought about it, there could not, "under the rules," be any ecclesiastical trial, and the disputants now go about taunting each other with dislike of investigation, and clamoring for a court the materials for which could probably not be found in any civilized country. Indeed, there seems to be no mode left of trying Mr. Beecher but the ordeal of fire or water, or the wager of battle. The inevitable inference from the incompetency of the Storrs and Budington churches is that church machinery is unequal to the examination of great scandals, and that "mutual councils" cannot be convened in serious cases.

Of course, rules of procedure are necessary to the transaction of all business, but they ought to be the servants, not the masters, of civil society. To allow ourselves to be entangled in a network of parliamentary or legal customs which defeat justice, liberate the thieves, cover up crime, and render investigations into the simplest matters abortive, is to make a distinct return towards barbarism, and is a process somewhat similar to that which arrested the progress of Chinese civilization.

MODERN EXPLOSIVES.

THE invention of explosive agents, to be employed in the arts of peace or for warlike purposes, has kept pace with the progress of science in other directions, until we have accumulated a startling inventory of infernal machines and dynamite powders from which to make our selection. It is interesting to trace the history of some of these dangerous compounds, and to see from what innocent and inert bodies forces can be developed to accomplish the most frightful results. The ancient gunpowder, the invention of which was accepted in its day as being a great improvement upon the catapult or crossbow, although it is still retained for many purposes, is now regarded as too weak and slow to suit our modern notions of what an explosive agent ought to accomplish. As in every other department of science, so it has been in applied chemistry: no one person can lay claim to being the sole proprietor of any discovery. Numerous experiments and researches, often extending over a hundred years, usually precede the culmination of the work into the fully-rounded application. Nitro-glycerine, for instance, is one of the most recent and at the same time most powerful and dangerous of the modern inventions, yet to understand how it came to be made, we must go back to the researches on oils and fats undertaken by Professor Chevreul, of Paris, and published in July and November, 1813. This eminent chemist was the first to make known to us the true constitution of the fatty bodies, and it was he who assigned to glycerine its proper place among organic compounds. Glycerine, from which is derived a whole progeny of explosive compounds, is a triatomic alcohol of the fatty series. The formula for it is $C_3H_5(OH)_3$, and its scientific name is propenyl alcohol; its popular name, from the Greek word *γλυκύς*, sweet, in allusion to its pleasant flavor, was given to it by Scheele a long time ago. To obtain it the fats are usually decomposed by steam, free stearic acid and glycerine being produced. Other methods are sometimes employed, such as the use of hot water, sulphuric acid, or metallic chlorides, but these are matters of detail into which it is not necessary to enter. Glycerine when pure is a viscid, colorless liquid, having a specific gravity of 1·26, of a sweet taste, soluble in water and alcohol in all proportions, undergoing very little change in the air, not molding or evaporating, neutral to test-paper, burning with difficulty, not to be frozen excepting at very low temperature, an admirable solvent for volatile oils, a powerful antiseptic, a good lubricator, and, in fact, possessing properties that have suggested its use in a large number of useful arts.

It will be seen from the above recapitulation of the properties of glycerine that it is a harmless and most valuable substance, and on no account to be confounded with the nitro-glycerine which is derived from it. After Schönbein had discovered gun-cotton, which he produced by the action of a mixture of sulphuric and nitric acids on cellulose, it appears to have occurred to Professor Pelouze, of Paris, that the same acids might produce a similar compound if brought in contact with glycerine, and an Italian chemist, the distinguished Professor Sombrero of Turin, undertook the investigation in Pelouze's laboratory, and succeeded in preparing a compound perfectly analogous to tri-nitro-cellulose or gun-cotton, to which he gave the name of tri-nitro-glycerine or nitro-glycerine, the properties of which he described in the 'Transactions of the Turin Academy,' in July, 1847. The immense explosive force of the new compound was discovered at the cost of many window-panes and the loss of a considerable amount of glassware, but fortunately no lives were sacrificed. Neither Pelouze nor Sombrero was disposed to push the investigation any further, and no one thought of preparing it a second time until 1864, when Alfred Nobel, a Swedish engineer, had the hardihood to make it in large quantities and to propose its use as a blasting agent. His researches, however, cost the lives of many persons before the process of its manufacture was put upon a safe footing. Nitro-glycerine is made by causing one part of glycerine to flow into a tank surrounded by cold water, and containing eight parts of a mixture of two parts of sulphuric and one of nitric acid, previously prepared and cooled, until the whole of the glycerine has flowed in. The nitration of the glycerine takes place immediately, and the product settles to the bottom of the tank in the form of an oil. It is drawn off, thoroughly washed, neutralized with carbonate of soda to remove all traces of acid, and stored in stone crocks in a cool place, covered by a thin layer of water to prevent evaporation.

Thus prepared, nitro-glycerine is a pale-yellow, oily, inodorous, sweet, pungent liquid of 1·6 specific gravity. It is highly poisonous, a drop being sufficient to occasion violent pain in the back of the head, dizziness, and insensibility. Strong coffee is recommended as a remedy, and an external application of caustic alkalies is sometimes prescribed. The oil is soluble in alcohol, ether, wood-spirit, and benzole, and fortunately almost entirely insoluble in water. Some authorities state that it freezes at 45° F., others, at 40° F. It does not take fire like turpentine or alcohol when a match is applied to it, but goes out when the match is withdrawn. The inventor declares that concussion will not fire it, and says that the experiment was made by throwing up a quantity of it in a rocket, when its fall of 1,000 feet did not explode it. The specimen was afterwards fired to show that it was pure nitro-glycerine. The oil was formerly simply poured into a drill-hole and tamped with water or sand; but it was soon discovered that the dangerous liquid was liable to percolate through crevices in the rock, and occasion premature explosions when the workmen were drilling the holes. It is now enclosed in suitable tin cases or cartridges, and must be fired with a peculiar fuse and cap. Many accidents having occurred by the freezing and careless handling of nitro-glycerine, Nobel devised a method of mixing the oil with about ten per cent. wood-spirit, by which it was rendered practically harmless. When required for use it was simply necessary to add water, and the oil would settle to the bottom, and could be recovered. The cans for the transportation of oil were packed in a peculiar kind of sand, called *Kieselguhr*, known also as tripoli and infusorial earth, of which there is a great abundance in Northern Germany. It happened that some of the cans leaked, and the infusorial earth became impregnated with it. Nobel examined the properties of this moist sand, and thus by accident hit upon a process of absorbing the oil, and to the product he gave the name of dynamite.

Dynamite has now come to be a generic term for a variety of powders the chief ingredient of which is nitro-glycerine. The original dynamite is prepared by simply kneading with the naked hands twenty-five per cent. of infusorial earth and seventy-five per cent. of nitro-glycerine, or until the mixture assumes a pasty condition not unlike moist brown-sugar. Before mixing, the infusorial sand is calcined in a furnace, in order to burn out all organic matter, and it is also sifted, to free it of large grains. While still moist, it is squeezed into cartridges, which are prepared of parchment paper; and the firing is done by fulminate of silver in copper capsules, provided with patent exploders. Dynamite is considered to be much safer than nitro-glycerine; it has been subjected to many severe tests, such as throwing it down from great heights, smashing the boxes containing it by heavy weights, and allowing it to burn up quietly in a brisk fire. The employment of the capsule and detonating composition is said to be absolutely essential for the explosion of dynamite.

It may be asked how we account for many accidents which have occurred in contradiction to this statement. Two explanations have been offered—one, that the oil oozed out of the infusorial silica, and, being free, fell under the conditions of nitro-glycerine; the second, that the dynamite was frozen, and also then resembled the solid oil. The premature explosion at

Bremerhaven was supposed to be due to this latter fact. The case containing it had been exposed to severe cold and the dynamite was frozen, and was then exploded by being violently thrown from the dray. This property renders the transportation of dynamite in winter exceedingly precarious, and makes it more than extra-hazardous; it relegates it to the category of articles wholly excluded from transportation.

Dynamite, as ordinarily prepared, is a brownish-gray, sometimes reddish, inodorous, pasty, greasy mass, having the specific gravity of 1·6. It requires a heavy blow of a hammer on an anvil to explode it, and even then only the portions struck are fired. In this respect it presents great advantages over nitro-glycerine. Dynamite is largely employed at the California mines under the name of giant powder. It is usually manufactured on the spot, the infusorial earth being brought from Germany for the purpose. Lithofracteur is a variety of dynamite, being composed of nitro-glycerine, silica, and gunpowder. Dualine is composed of nitro-glycerine, fine sawdust, and nitrate of potassa. There are numerous sub-varieties bearing various trade-names, all of which have the dangerous nitro-glycerine concealed within them, and are hence to be handled with extreme care.

During the siege of Paris the French had recourse to a gunpowder prepared from picric acid. This acid is made by treating carbolic acid with nitric acid; when combined with ammonia or potash, it is exceedingly explosive. The powder is even fired by the active modification of oxygen called ozone, and is therefore liable to explosion by electricity. This renders the storing of the powder very difficult, and it is only in time of war that it is likely to be manufactured.

A powder, introduced by Schultze of Potsdam, and named for the inventor, is prepared by acting on wood by means of a mixture of sulphuric and nitric acid, and mixing the product with 26 per cent. of saltpetre. It is white, very powerful, and is best preserved in a moist state.

A class of explosives called fulminates has long been known. The fulminate of mercury was discovered by Howard in 1799, but its violent character long deterred every one from attempting any practical application of it. The investigation into the preparation and properties of this compound was one of the earliest researches performed by Baron Liebig. It is prepared by dissolving 3 parts mercury in 36 parts nitric acid, and adding to the product 17 parts alcohol. A somewhat stormy reaction takes place, and soon crystals of the fulminate collect on the bottom of the vessel; these are packed in very small quantities in paper, or are best preserved under water. Fulminates of silver and gold of an analogous composition are also now prepared and employed in percussion-caps and patent exploders.

The last explosive to which we shall refer is commonly called gun-cotton. We have not allowed ourselves much space in which to describe this important substance, but fortunately it is already pretty well known. The conversion of cotton-wool into an explosive substance by the action of a mixture of sulphuric and nitric acids was discovered in 1845 by Professor Schönbein of Basel, Switzerland. The name gun-cotton was at first applied to the product, and subsequently it was called pyroxyline and trinitro-cellulose. A solution of gun-cotton in a mixture of alcohol and ether yields the collodion so indispensable in the art of photography. A solution in camphor is now extensively employed to imitate bone and ivory under the trade-name of celluloid. Gun-cotton has been subjected to a vast number of trials, and when diluted with unchanged cotton, and compressed or spun into yarn and rope, its use in artillery and blasting has proved very successful. It can be stored under water, and dried by steam when required for use. Left to itself in dry packages, it is liable to spontaneous decomposition. Although the preparation and properties of this explosive have been much improved by Abel and Lenk, it has never come into general use in the army or at the mines, but in photography its application is very great and of the first importance.

It will thus be seen that all the recent explosives are analogous in composition; that all contain nitrogen, and that none of them can be handled with impunity. The transportation and storage of all of them should be under strict police regulations, and their manufacture should be conducted at a distance from any habitation. The most powerful is nitro-glycerine or dynamite; the safest for popular use is gunpowder.

FLORIDA.

St. Augustine, January 6, 1876.

THE Northern traveller in Florida, especially the Northern traveller with European associations and predilections, can hardly fail to be strongly attracted to this odd little city by the sea, whose flavor of antiquity affords so pleasant a contrast to the bare and somewhat dreary newness of the rest of Florida; a city which has actually a cathedral with frightful frescoed walls, and solemn processions of silent Sisters, and a plaza crowded in its sunny places with dark-eyed Minorcan children; a city, in short, in which one feels the familiar, pleasurable need of a guide-book, and begins to be actuated by a lazy desire to "do" something. To be sure, the Stars and Stripes wave obtrusively at either end of the sea-wall, and the bulk of the tourist population require to be judiciously ignored; but even against this St. Augustine will hold its own for a few years yet, by virtue of the old Spanish element and the languorous climate, two excellent bulwarks against the march of progress. Here and there among the old coquina houses springs up an obnoxious mansard roof, but the *coup d'œil* is still effective, and dirt and laziness, those powerful allies of the picturesque, have not yet vanished before the besom of Northern energy.

It is evident, however, that St. Augustine is an embryo Newport, its climate and position justifying the prediction that before many years it is to be a winter sanitarium as brilliant as Nice or Brighton. Indeed, the whole east coast of Florida possesses a charming climate, being isothermal with Madeira, the Bermudas, Southern California, and Egypt, while its heats are modified by the trade-winds from the Atlantic, and the Gulf winds which sweep across the narrow space between the west coast and the ocean. The great fertility and varied capacity of the soil of the State are undeniable, and it is in its unfortunate political history alone that the reason is to be found for the desolation and neglect so painfully apparent to the Northern eye. We have within our national boundaries so small a proportion of tropical or semi-tropical climate that every rood of available land south of the parallel of 30° N. latitude is certain to reach and maintain a high value, and the easy and constantly improving communication between Florida and the great markets of the North points to a rich future for the landowners of the State. Although the social and political disorganization consequent upon the death of slavery still exists here as in other parts of the South, Florida has the advantage of her sister States in that her lands are being colonized by an exceptional class of settlers, viz., Northern and Western farmers and mechanics, who are attracted primarily by the climate, and who bring with them capital either in money or in the still more valuable form of industrious and honest habits. Add to this the fact that the annual wave of travel leaves always on its reflux a certain proportion of permanent residents, who are commonly well-to-do and able to begin immediate improvements, and it is clear that Florida is likely to be reconstructed on a sound and natural basis. The task of reconstruction is also to a certain extent simplified by the fact that the native population is small, widely scattered, and nearly one-half negro, so that in many cases the flame of opposition has died out purely from want of fuel. There has been little opportunity for concentration, and, lacking the stimulus of kindred ardor, the heat of individual feeling has rapidly cooled—a state of things which leaves almost free play to Northern sentiment, and offers no obstacle to the establishment of the Northern institutions which come logically in the train of such colonists as those above-described.

The present cheapness of land is of course only temporary, and already fancy prices are being asked and paid for orange groves in bearing, sugar plantations, etc.; but there are still some 18,000,000 acres of United States land waiting to be pre-empted under the Homestead Law, and thousands of acres of cleared and cultivated land to be had at from $3 to $1 50 per acre. Here should be remarked a somewhat perplexing result of the frequent cessions and secessions of Florida, viz., the difficulty of obtaining clear titles to real estate. Grants of enormous extent, including much of the best land of the State, have for years remained in the hands of the original grantees of the English or Spanish Governments, or of their heirs, and in most instances these properties, belonging to non-residents, have been unfairly assessed, or not assessed at all, even the name of the owner being often unknown, and not to be discovered except by diligent search. This difficulty is gradually disappearing, but there is still too little energy in the enforcement of the State laws, and much good land is lying idle, or, worse still, is involved in expensive and troublesome litigation. It is of course below the frost-line that the most valuable crops for the Northern markets are raised, and Orange County and the neighborhood of the Halifax and Indian Rivers hold out inviting prospects to the agriculturist; but even in St. Augustine, where sharp frosts are not infrequent, many semi-tropical fruits do well, and late experiments with the finer varieties of grapes, such as Golden Chasselas, Flame-colored Tokay, Muscat, etc., are exciting great hopes among fruit-raisers.

As a permanent residence for Northerners who can afford to choose, or as a winter resort, St. Augustine has no rival on the Atlantic coast; for in addition to its delicious climate and historic interest, its immediate neigh-

borhood affords plenty of fair sport, while under its walls lies that exhaustless reservoir of amusement and excitement—the sea. For the present season, too, there is a novel attraction in the shape of the threescore Indians who for the last few months have been confined in the old Spanish fort, San Marco. It will be remembered that these men were brought on last summer from Fort Sill as being tolerably bad specimens of their kind, and they have since been held here nominally as prisoners of war, though in reality merely under a liberal surveillance, their unexpected mildness and regularity of conduct having won for them the confidence of the officers in charge. They show a good deal of intelligence, and one of their attendants assured us the other day, in an access of enthusiasm, that one or two of them are "statesmen"—a compliment upon which we, as American citizens, put divers interpretations. The good result of their imprisonment is that they are becoming deeply impressed with the power of the white man and the white man's government, and are beginning to comprehend the futility of further resistance, so that they have probably evolved certain wholesome ideas, which it is hoped they may, on their return to their respective tribes, communicate to their untravelled companions.

On this account it seemed a mistaken judgment which permitted the holiday festivities of last week to culminate in a well-advertised buffalo hunt and war-dance, as being the best thing which Christian civilization had to offer these wild warriors in the shape of entertainment. The first was a failure, being "Hamlet" with the part of *Hamlet* left out, inasmuch as the buffalo dwindled into a very small, very tame, and entirely helpless Florida bull, which meekly submitted to be slaughtered by the accustomed hand of an Indian chief. The war-dance, however, was undeniably effective, although the performers themselves seemed to find it somewhat lacking in flavor. It was a weird and savage picture which met our eyes as we passed from the soft darkness of the Southern night into the great shadowy quadrangle of San Marco, all aflame with bonfires of resinous pine logs, with ramparts massed with spectators, grey coquina walls made magical by intensest lights and shades, circles of semi-brutal figures monotonously moving to the dull beat of native drums, and over all the great, still sky. Morally, it was all wrong; from an artistic point of view, it was good enough to justify even professional moralists in forgiving its getters-up, though, in justice to the Indians, repetitions of it should be forbidden. It made but too real the tales of horror which are written in the archives of St. Augustine, and was so strangely in keeping with the dramatic proprieties of the place that one could not but be glad to carry it away as a most fitting souvenir of the city whose record runs through three centuries of massacre and pillage from Menendez to Confederate guerillas.

ORLEANISTS OUT IN THE COLD.

PARIS, December 31, 1875.

MR. SEWARD had much affection and admiration for France. Even during your terrible war, in the conversations which I had the honor to have with him, he often left the subject of his own difficulties to discuss the affairs of my country. "Your misfortune," he once said to me, "is that you have too many parties; you have as many as four—the Legitimist, the Orleanist, the Bonapartist, and the Republican. As soon as one of these parties seems to enjoy a quiet tenure of power, the three others unite, and their coalition, becoming irresistible, ends in a revolution."

I have often remembered these words of Mr. Seward since the Assembly met at Bordeaux after the disasters of the German war. To be sure, the Bonapartist party seemed then quite annihilated, and when the Assembly passed a vote of *déchéance* of the Bonapartes, in one of its first sittings, it seemed to be quite unanimous. I remember the protest uttered by M. Conti; he alone stood pale and excited in the tribune, and his voice was lost in the clamor of the new deputies. The Orleanist party had been, during the latter years, quite disorganized by M. Thiers. The doctrine preached almost every night by him in his salon in the Place St. Georges was this: there is no essential difference between the doctrines of the partisans of constitutional monarchy and those of the Moderate Republicans. Both parties are attached to the great principles of 1789; both want a representative government, and would entrust the direction of affairs to a responsible cabinet. Let us be indifferent to the form of government, let us all unite against the Imperial despotism; time will show if, after the victory, the monarchy or the republic is the best solution of our difficulties. The theoretical expression of these doctrines can be found in the 'France Nouvelle' of Prévost-Paradol, who was the doctrinaire disciple of M. Thiers, and who drew his inspiration from the conservatism of his patron. These eclectic views were solemnly set forth by M. Thiers in the famous speech which became the basis of what was called the "Truce of Bordeaux." This truce, however, could not last for ever; everybody thought that it ought to be maintained while the most urgent business was being done, while France was reorganizing her finance and her army, paying the heavy ransom to Germany, and combating the Commune. After the Commune a strong reaction took place in favor of conservatism and monarchical ideas. An attempt was made to fuse the two monarchical parties into one; the Orleanists did not ask the Legitimists to renounce their allegiance to the Comte de Chambord; they showed themselves disposed to forget the claims of the Comte de Paris, as son of Louis Philippe. The Comte de Paris, moved by a patriotic feeling, went to Frohsdorf. It was thought that three parties only were left in France—the partisans of the Bourbons, the partisans of the Republic, and the partisans of the Bonapartes; and, as the last were completely vanquished at the time of the so-called fusion, that there were practically only two parties left.

Unfortunately, the Comte de Chambord proved intractable; he did not understand the situation of France, and his patriotism was not equal to the patriotism of the Comte de Paris. He offended the pride and the sentiment of France, and the fusion, which might have saved the country, will only be remembered in history as a lamentable failure. The Assembly, which had been on the point of erecting the monarchy, found itself unable to do so; the politicians invented for a time a new sort of government, under the name of Septennate. The conservative majority confided the executive power to the head of the army, and waited for some time in hopes of some political inspiration. The Septennate could not be called a military dictatorship, as the Chamber was still sovereign and made all the laws; but this parliamentary sovereignty could not last for ever, and it was felt that some definite organization must be found. The Orleanists, who had tried to make a fusion with the Right, now tried to make a fusion with the Left. As time went on and the memories of the Commune were forgotten, the idea of a conservative republic was slowly gaining ground amongst those deputies who were grouped under the name of Right Centre. The Republicans themselves had become for a time very moderate; the lion, Gambetta, seemed as mild as a lamb. Marshal MacMahon inspired the radicals with such awe that France had become the quietest country in Europe. Negotiations were opened between the Orleanists and the Republicans. The famous *conjunction* of the Centres, a phenomenon which had been often predicted, but which had long proved as impossible as some conjunction of planets, took place at last. The Republican negotiators were not the ardent Gambettists. They were chosen among scholarly, wise, religious people. M. Wallon, the author of the constitution which has kept his name, has written a life of Saint Louis which a monk might sign with his name. M. Laboulaye is known as a man of great learning, wisdom, and moderation of character. The marriage between the Orleanists and the Moderate Republicans was what the French call a marriage of reason. Such men as M. Wallon and M. Laboulaye well understood what they owed to the party which was the most important in the Chamber. They knew that the majority of the Chamber was monarchical, that the obstacle to the monarchy had not come from the Chamber but from the outside. The state of the country was such that it required a strong executive power, and direct universal suffrage had shown such caprices in France that it was felt necessary to create a Senate which was not the expression of the mere sovereignty of number. The oldest Orleanists were slow to persuade themselves to jump over the Republican Rubicon. They saw on the other side of the water, behind the good and wise men who were waiting for them, the long and dark lines of the Republican army, and in the distance, behind the Republican electors, the red flag of the Commune. The younger Orleanists felt more confident. They took the leap first, and the Wallon constitution was voted. During the long discussion of this constitution, Gambetta was silent; Louis Blanc alone objected to some of the provisions of the constitution. The Republican press was celebrating the disinterestedness, the moderation, of the Left.

No sooner was the Republican constitution voted and the great boon secured than the Republicans changed their tactics. The Assembly had decided that the new Senate should have as its nucleus seventy-five senators for life, named by itself. These *patres conscripti* were destined to be the patrons, the guardians of the new compact. What would have been more natural than to choose these seventy-five political *Immortels* out of the ranks of those who had together made the new constitution? But M. Thiers and Gambetta, now in close alliance, decided to exclude entirely the Orleanists from their lists, and formed an alliance against them with the Bonapartists and the Ultra-Legitimists, who were incensed with the Orleanists simply because they had accepted the Wallon constitution. This time again we saw the old spectacle of three parties united against one,

and the coalition was all the more immoral because the two Centres of the Assembly had seemed for a moment united in the same wishes, and because the Orleanists, grouped in what we call the Right Centre, had voted and accepted the new constitution in good faith and without any reserve. This systematic and unmerciful exclusion of the Orleanists from the senatorial lists is an event of great significance. Of course it will be said that all is over with them, and it may be that the same coalition which has triumphed in the elections in the Assembly will be tried in the provinces; but what will be the result? Have the Republicans any good reason for seeing in the two future Assemblies fewer Orleanist and more Bonapartist names? The Right Centre has twice tried to diminish by one the number of the French parties—first, by the so-called fusion; secondly, by assenting to the Wallon constitution. Now it may be inclined to try a third method; it can suppress itself, retire into private life, and leave the Republicans *tête-à-tête* with the Bonapartists. The letters of the Duc d'Aumale and of his brother the Prince de Joinville are a step in this direction. The Princes of Orleans declined to be named senators in the Departments of which they have been the deputies since 1871. They frankly tell their electors that they had wished the re-establishment of the monarchy "which made France"; this was found impossible, but they do not think themselves obliged to serve their country otherwise than as soldiers. Nobody is bound by any duty to become a legislator, and the natural legislators of a republic are the confessed and professed Republicans. A republic which could only hold its own by covering itself with the prestige of old names, of conservative finance, of nobility, and of wealth, which should be obliged to screen itself behind a thick veil of eminent monarchists, could not be of long duration. Everybody knows that the Orleanists will not conspire against the Republic in the Bonapartist fashion; they will make no *coup d'état;* they will not, like M. Granier de Cassagnac, promise to the country a régime of "panem et circenses"; they will make no low appeal to the socialist passions of the multitude; but they are not obliged to become the leading actors in the new drama which is now beginning. Napoleon the First called all the surviving Jacobins to his Senate; he changed their red Phrygian caps into feathered hats, their carmagnoles into embroidered coats; he was mistaken not in his judgment of men, but in his judgment of their ability; his Jacobin senators deposed him as soon as he ceased to be strong enough to force them into obedience. Fouché the regicide became the minister of Louis XVIII., but he brought no real strength to the Restoration. There must be a certain unity in the life of every man; when he ceases to play an active part, he can remain a witness.

The French electors will soon have to name their new senators and their new deputies, and it may be said that the *loyal* trial of the Republic is only now beginning. Every good Frenchman must hope that the trial will be a happy one; but we are not all obliged to come forward and force ourselves on the public. The time may come when new men will be asked for, when the actors who will soon come on the stage will be hissed, when the country will require a complete change of politics. The country does not really regret the Empire, and if the Republic of the Republicans proves to be a failure, the monarchical party will be all the stronger for not having consumed its strength in unnecessary struggles.

Correspondence.

"THACKERAYANA."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A recent number of the *Nation* contains a review of a book called 'Thackerayana.' Will you allow me to state that Mr. Thackeray's representatives entirely disapproved of that publication, though they had no legal power to stop it? The drawings reproduced were mere schoolboy scrawls, roughly reproduced, and giving an utterly inadequate impression of Mr. Thackeray's feeling for art and powers of execution. Some proof of this statement may be found in a small collection of his more mature drawings, carefully reproduced by a satisfactory process, and contained in a book just published called 'The Orphan of Pimlico.'

I feel it right to add, in regard to a suggestion in your article, that it is from deference to Mr. Thackeray's own express desire that no biography or correspondence has been or will be published by his representatives.—Yours truly,

Leslie Stephen.

London, Dec 30, 1875.

Notes.

By the Fourth of July New London is to be honored with a very remarkable Centennial publication, nothing less than a work maintaining the thesis—"New London, rather than New York, as a Mercantile Port for all the Navies of the World." It will "display and illustrate with the highest procurable art, and with mathematical accuracy," the site of New London, "its inland sea, its access to the various States, municipal sections, seats of commerce, and homes of agriculture in the United States, which give it the opportunity to be the first depot of trade in the whole Empire." So says the prospectus, and adds that the work will be edited by Col. Charles A. Cole, late the Senior Clerk of H.M. Public Record Office, England, Assistant Commissioner of the Great Exhibition of 1851, etc., etc. Colonel Cole may be addressed at the Metropolitan Hotel, New London, Conn. The price of the volume to subscribers will be $100; a few copies in vellum, $500.——J. B. Lippincott & Co., Philadelphia, have in press 'A Summer in Europe,' by Mary H. Wills; a 'Life of "Stonewall" Jackson,' by S. N. Randolph; 'The Conflict of Labor and Capital,' by Albert S. Bolles; 'Brachet's French Grammar,' adapted for English schools by P. H. E. Brette and Gustave Masson; and an 'Encyclopædia of Chemistry.'——Mr. Leypoldt makes a number of interesting announcements in his *Publishers' Weekly* for Jan. 8. First, he will bring out during the present year his great 'American Catalogue,' in two volumes; then, in uniform binding, he will publish a 'Centennial Publishers' Uniform Trade-List,' after which this annual will become a biennial, on even years; and, finally, "for general use and distribution in connection with the Exhibition, a little catalogue of representative American books, arranged by publishers, only American books being admitted."——Henry Holt & Co.'s announcements include 'The Religious Sentiment,' by Dr. D. G. Brinton, together with a second edition of the same author's 'Myths of the New World'; 'Life Histories of Animals, including Man,' by Prof. A. S. Packard, jun., and the fifth edition of his excellent 'Guide to the Study of Insects'; 'Wages and the Wages Class,' by Prof. Francis A. Walker; the sixth volume of Freeman's 'Historical Course for Schools,' being a history of the United States, by J. A. Doyle, with maps by Prof. F. A. Walker; a new edition of Maine's 'Village Communities,' supplemented by heretofore uncollected miscellanies; 'Wit and Wisdom from Thomas Carlyle'; and Taine's 'Ancient Régime.'

—With Part 30 the publication of Stieler's Hand-Atlas comes to an end (Gotha: Justus Perthes; New York: L. W. Schmidt, and B. Westermann & Co.) Of the total ninety maps the last three now before us represent India and Inner Asia, together with the debatable ground east of the Caspian which is as yet called Russian Empire only in part, Persia, Afghanistan, and Beloochistan. In fact, this instalment has a peculiar interest for British students of that extreme "Eastern Question" which looms up along the line of the Himalayas. The atlas thus completed has no rival outside of Germany, and it has there the advantage of being the latest. The rapid progress of geographical discovery of course makes any such work begin to grow obsolete as soon as it is finished on stone or on copper, but for many years to come the value of Stieler will be practically unimpaired for the great majority of those who consult it. This is especially true of the more civilized portions of the earth. For example, the physical map of Europe will stand in little need of change except for the Turkish dominions, which are still very imperfectly known. Meantime, the latest results of geographical research must be sought by the curious in the numerous maps published in connection with such periodicals as the *Geographical Magazine* (London: Trübner & Co.), the Paris Geographical Society's *Bulletin*, the Berlin Geographical Society's *Zeitschrift* (Dietrich Reimer), Petermann's *Mittheilungen* (Gotha), the Italian *Cosmos* (Turin), etc., etc. Thus, the English magazine for December contains two maps embodying Stanley's observations on the Upper Nile, and will doubtless first give to the world the itinerary of Lieut. Cameron, who has just traversed Central Africa south of the Congo, and is daily expected in England. The *Zeitschrift*, No. 59, gives a new map of the Transvaal Republic (by a German missionary, A. Merensky), which is on a larger scale, more full of details, and on the whole more accurate than the corresponding map (No. 72) in Stieler. As for Central Asia, one has only to read in the last *Polybiblion* (for December) the account of the activity and enthusiasm of the Russian Geographical Society to conclude that no atlas-maker can hope to keep up with its contributions to our knowledge of that region.

—Of all our Western Territories, the most fertile and attractive portion is that which has been set aside by Government for its wards, the remnants of the Indian tribes. A rolling country, well covered with timber, with

fertile valleys well watered by the tributaries of the Arkansas and Red Rivers, the Indian Territory has long been looked upon with an envious eye by the settlers of the less-favored regions on its borders. Should the railroad bills now before Congress be passed during the present session, a long-desired opportunity will soon be given for white settlers to gain a foothold in the Territory. This once accomplished, we shall not be surprised to learn some day that religion and humanity require the removal of our red brethren to a less fertile spot and the opening of the country to settlement by the whites. A large map of this Territory (in four sheets, 22×18 inches each) has recently been issued by the Military Department of the Missouri, Gen. John Pope commanding. It is a compilation made by E. H. Ruffner, First Lieutenant of Engineers, and A. Hunnius, draughtsman, from the plats of the Land Office and from route maps of various military expeditions. It is neatly drawn on a scale of 1:500,000, or about eight miles to the inch, and handsomely photolithographed, on good paper, by R. P. Studley & Co. of St. Louis. To the gentlemen whose three years' labor it represents great credit is due for their skill and patience in co-ordinating the heterogeneous material they had at hand. The map gives a larger amount of detailed topography along the water-courses than could be found in most of those of our thickly-settled Eastern States. The township lines of the land surveys, as well as the boundaries of the various Indian reservations, are also represented. Taken as a whole, it is necessarily very unequal in finish, since, while the parts taken from the Land Office plats (on a scale of two inches to the mile, or eight times as large as this) present a disproportionate amount of detail, some portions are left nearly blank. While this defect, necessary from the incompleteness of the material in the hands of the compilers, detracts from the general effect of the map, it is a guarantee of its reliability, since the draughtsman has evidently confined himself to facts, and given less scope to his imagination than is apt to be the case where a map is made simply to attract the eye of the public. Moreover, the map is accompanied by a list of the authorities on which it is based. For strictly military purposes, it might be considered that the topography would have been clearer had the township lines been omitted. It is, however, a very praiseworthy effort on the part of our military authorities to render available, as far as their limited means will allow, the map material which is scattered through the various Government Departments. We hope the day is not far distant when our Government, following the example of European nations, may adopt some regular system for preparing reliable maps of our country, which may be available not only to the army but to the general public.

—The magazines for the beginning of the year always contain a variety of noticeable articles, and in looking over the January number of *Scribner's* and the *Atlantic* we have been puzzled to say which among many were most important. The story by Mr. Howells, called "Private Theatricals," lately begun in the *Atlantic*, and now marching steadily forward to what may possibly be its tragic conclusion, is, of the purely literary articles in that magazine, most distinctly an "event." We may, by the way, commend it to the notice of the discriminating writer of the reviews of what is known to the *Saturday Review* as "American literature," who, it seems to us, is contracting a habit of devoting his time too exclusively to books the existence of which is unsuspected on this side of the water. In it Mr. Howells is again showing his remarkable power in the delineation of feminine character. This has always seemed to us to be one of his strongest points. No one who studies the manœuvres of Mrs. Farrell can fail to admit the possession by the author of a power of insight into the female heart and mind that is masterly. It is, indeed, a picture which would probably draw down upon Mr. Howells the severest censure of the *Woman's Journal*, were it not that Mrs. Farrell belongs to a class which the greater part of women unite in condemning, and the admiration of whom by men always excites very general feminine pity and amazement. Mrs. Farrell is an accomplished flirt—or, perhaps we should say, a born flirt—designed for her part by nature, and perfected in it by diligent and conscientious application. Her mission in the story seems to be, if we may venture a prediction, to shatter the friendship of two young men, one of whom is already hopelessly in love with her, while the other "sees through" her completely. But we must defer any extended notice of what promises to be a very entertaining story till it is completed.

—Mr. Clarence Cook is writing some articles for *Scribner's* on household furniture, illustrated by some pretty cuts of what we suppose the Philistine would derisively call earnest candlesticks, worthy étagères, and sincere chairs and tables, and moral furniture in general. We can cordially recommend to those who can afford to follow them most of Mr. Cook's ideas, though we should say for so severely moral a devotee of beauty he rather glosses over the expense of the matter in saying that many of "the best things in house decorating and furnishing are those that cost least." We should be willing to lay a very heavy wager that the pretty little chair and table in "No. 5," modest and unostentatious as they appear in the picture, would cost a pretty little sum of money for the families of the "meek and lowly" to expend. There is, too, a slight vagueness which will perhaps trouble some readers when Mr. Cook lays it down that there ought to be gathered on the shelf or shelves over the fireplace "a few beautiful and chosen things—the most beautiful that the family purse can afford, though it is by no means necessary that they should cost much, the main point being that they should be things to lift us up, to feed thought and feeling, things we are willing to live with, to have our children grow up with, and that we never can become tired of, because they belong alike to nature and to humanity." And when we are finally advised, in case we cannot find what we like at the furniture stores, to employ an architect—"any one of the company of cultivated, thoughtful young men who are doing so much to honor architecture among us"—to tell him what we want and have him draw a design, we cannot but feel a sordid curiosity as to what Mr. Cook's glittering generalities about expense really mean. There is, however, an enormous class of people who have plenty of money to spend, and might just as well spend it with good taste as with bad, and if Mr. Cook can persuade them to do it, the recording angel will no doubt blot out his somewhat tortuous record as to statements of cost. It seems to be, too, a radical mistake to suppose that it is the expense which stands in the way of the development of good taste in the United States. There are no countries in the world where people are more ready to spend money on what is intended to please the eye and make domestic life attractive than England and this country; the trouble is that we do not know how to do it. Naturally, we fall back upon the simple and barbarous device of making as much display with our money as possible. It is not, therefore, a demonstration that it is possible to make our houses beautiful for a trifling cost that is needed, but general æsthetic cultivation among the possessors of wealth, who, it must be confessed, may fairly be denounced for the present as Philistines. We may suggest to Mr. Cook that he might make an excellent article showing, not how beautiful, but how ugly and barbarous interiors and exteriors may be made, with illustrations from real life in New York, showing the imitation coal-fire with gas flames, Pullman palace-car wainscoting, sham marble pillars, and, best of all, the modern brown-stone high "stoop." One or two of the finest specimens of the latter ought, by the way, to be detached from their houses and exhibited at Philadelphia, with a descriptive label giving their cost and the use to which they are put.

—Among English art-periodicals the *Portfolio* is so easily the first that it is difficult to find proper epithets for it except those that would seem to be meant for the ideal or imaginary organ of perfect artistic criticism. Mr. Hamerton is an editor whose rare and impartial culture makes him hold in his mind with an even balance the claims both of his country's art and of that of the Continent, and he suffuses through his periodical a cosmopolitanism quite new to similar English publications. M. Ménard, who manages the notices of French pictures, must be singled out for high praise also; he has an enviable manner of getting aloft over the noise of the schools that are warring and clashing around him, and delivering judgments that are urbane and impartial without being insipid. The only nationality that has seemed to suffer neglect hitherto, the German, is to be handled in the approaching numbers by Mr. Beavington Atkinson. The coming months will also be distinguished by plates from that rare etcher, Dr. Seymour Haden, and from Ernest George; otherwise, the *Portfolio* for 1876 will not change its pathway in any important respect. It could hardly strike out a better. The numbers for December and January are quite as good as usual. The *Portfolio* is represented in New York by J. W. Bouton.

—The unusually high annual death-rate for the city of Boston in the years 1872 and 1873 led to the appointment of a medical commission to investigate the sanitary condition of the city. While the death-rate for 1871 was 23·5 per 1,000 living inhabitants, and the mean death-rate for the twenty years from 1854 to 1873, inclusive, was 24·5, that for 1872 was 30·4 and that for 1873 28·5. The primary object of the Commission was to ascertain whether this serious increase of mortality indicated any new causes of disease peculiar to the city or any such exaggeration of the old ones as might call for special measures of counteraction. The report is a model of careful and judicious investigation and systematic and intelligible statement of results. It is really the work of Dr. T. B. Curtis, to whom the other members of the Commission take pains to give full credit in a

printed note accompanying the report. The unusual mortality of the two years mentioned above was found not to depend upon any increasing or permanent local source of disease, but to be due to temporary epidemics of small-pox, scarlatina, and cerebro-spinal meningitis, together with diarrhœal affections caused by the excessive heat of the month of July in 1872. Nevertheless, the Commission proceeded to examine all the facts bearing upon the health of the city, with a view to improve its sanitary condition, so far as possible, and to reduce its death-rate within narrower limits. One of the most interesting features of the report for the general reader is its statement of the difficulties connected with sanitary statistics and their use for arriving at practical deductions. Even supposing the causes of death in any given community to be fully and accurately registered, it is by no means a simple matter to decide upon their interpretation. So many different elements combine to produce the final result, that if one of them be overlooked the most erroneous conclusions may be adopted. It is well known that the annual death-rate of a town or city gives little or no indication of the vitality of its population, unless the birth-rate is also ascertained; and while it is comparatively easy to provide by municipal regulations for a complete registration of deaths, it is notoriously difficult to secure a similar registration of the births. A remarkable instance of liability to such statistical errors is given in the report in reference to consumption. The mortality from this disease had steadily diminished for fifteen years, both in Boston and throughout the State of Massachusetts, from 4·58 per 1,000, the rate in 1855, to 3·95 per 1,000, the rate in 1870. This was naturally regarded as indicating either an increased freedom from the causes of consumption, due to amelioration of climate, or better methods of medical treatment. But it appears on further investigation that there are two other facts which may have had a share in the result. First, the Irish as a class are much more liable to consumption than either the native population of native parentage or those of any other foreign nationality; and, secondly, the proportion of Irish population in Massachusetts has been steadily diminishing during the same period as that in which the proportion of deaths by consumption has decreased. It is possible, therefore, that the disease may be as frequent and as fatal among all classes as it was formerly; only the class most liable to it having become comparatively less numerous, of course the total percentage of deaths from this cause is diminished in proportion. Among the conclusions reached by the Commission are the following: 1st. The death-rate in Boston is considerably higher among those of foreign than those of native parentage; the population of foreign parentage being, in 1870, 58·4 per cent. of the whole, but the deaths among the same class being 70·9 per cent. of the whole. 2d. The Irish are more liable to mortality from constitutional causes than either natives or the generality of other foreigners; and Boston has a larger proportion of Irish population than any other city in the United States. 3d. The Irish, as compared with other foreign populations throughout the United States, are liable in an exceptional degree to death not only from consumption, but from bronchitis and Bright's disease. They are also exceptionally liable, though in a less degree, to cancer, pneumonia, and diarrhœal affections. The report contains a number of well-executed colored charts, so arranged as to present to the eye, in a convenient form, the comparative numerical statements bearing on a variety of topics.

—The *Academy* of Oct. 2 and 9 contains a review, by A. von Reumont, of Ficker's latest work, 'Forschungen zur Reichs- und Rechtsgeschichte Italiens,' in which he sketches the history of the formation of the States of the Church, according to the recent and authoritative investigations of this distinguished author. These territories, as they continued from 1278 to 1860, comprised four distinct groups—the Duchy of Rome, the Duchy of Spoleto, the March of Ancona (the old Pentapolis), and the Romagna (the old Exarchate). The first of these, in the dissolution of the Byzantine rule over Italy, came under the authority of the Bishop of Rome—as so many cities at this time came under the rule of their bishops—without, however, ceasing to form part of the imperial dominions. It is known distinctively as the Patrimony of St. Peter. Then came the donations of Pepin and Charles the Great and the bequest of the Countess Matilda, in virtue of which the Pope laid claim to all central Italy, including Tuscany, and to the Island of Sardinia. It was not, however, until the pontificate of Innocent III. that these claims could be pushed; for this able and ambitious pontiff found only a weak and divided empire to contend against. At this period, therefore, the Duchy of Spoleto and the March of Ancona were acquired, and the acquisition was made secure after the fall of the Hohenstaufen. The Romagna was resigned to Gregory X. by Rodolf of Habsburg (1278); but the claims to the inheritance of Matilda were resisted by the Tuscan league of cities, and were tacitly dropped at the time of the decline of the Papacy and its removal to Avignon in the fourteenth century. The territories remained, therefore, as they were at the close of the twelfth century.

—Jules de Mohl, whose death was announced recently, although a German by birth, became a naturalized citizen of France, and was well known for his interest in the study of Oriental languages, which he pursued almost entirely in the latter country. He was born at Stuttgart October 25, 1800, and at Tübingen studied theology with the view of becoming an evangelical clergyman. But his taste for linguistics turned him from that plan, and he went first to England, and in 1823 to Paris, that he might give himself wholly to more congenial work. In that city he studied Chinese under Abel Rémusat; Persian and Arabic, under De Sacy. He published Latin translations of the 'Y-king' and the 'Shi-king,' and a French translation of the 'Shah-Nameh.' In 1844 he was elected a member of the Institute, succeeding Burnouf the elder in the Academy of Inscriptions and *belles-lettres*. In 1847 he was chosen to fill the Professorship of Persian in the Collége de France. In 1852 he was appointed inspector of the Oriental department of the Imprimerie Impériale, and was also made Secretary of the Société Asiatique. His reports, while holding this position, have been of much service to Orientalists. Of his private life, it may be of interest to state that for many years—that is, from 1831 until his marriage in 1847—he lived with Jean-Jacques Ampère. Two or three of his letters to Ampère are to be found in the recently published 'Correspondance et Souvenirs' of Jean-Jacques and his father. Mohl himself objected to having more printed. It is to be hoped that they may yet see the light. They will doubtless be entertaining reading, judging from the few specimens given. Three brothers of M. Mohl have obtained eminence in Germany—one as a botanist, another as a writer on political economy, and a third as a professor of law and as an active politician and political writer.

—Two histories of Hungary, publishing by instalments, are worthy rivals for the favor of the public. The first, by Fessler, is an old standard work, now edited and enlarged by Ernst Klein. It appears in *Lieferungen* of 125 pages, fourteen of which have already appeared, making three volumes, and reaching about to the close of the fifteenth century. It is a book of considerable literary merit, and although of German authorship (published by Brockhaus at Leipzig) carries with it the authority of the distinguished Hungarian historian, Michael Horváth, who provides it with a preface. The rival work, that of Ladislas Szalay, is more distinctively a national history, being written originally in Hungarian (translated by Heinrich Wögerer) and published at Buda-Pesth. This also has reached three volumes, the last of which has been recently published. Its first *Abtheilung*, published in 1873, covers the period of the Hunyadi (including, also, the reigns of Albert of Austria and his son, Ladislas Postumus); the second (1874) gives the kings of the family of Jagiello down to the extinction of Hungarian independence with the battle of Mohács (1526). Notwithstanding the tragic event with which it closes, the history bears after all a triumphant impress; for Hungary has, during the publication of the work, regained her lost independence. The first volume was published in 1851, when its author was in exile in Switzerland; the German translation appeared in 1866, the year whose events compelled the substantial independence of Hungary. The events, too, of this third volume are well adapted to the pen of a patriotic historian, as it was under the house of Hunyadi that Hungary reached her greatest glory, even if her period of greatest power may be attributed to the Angevin kings of a century earlier.

—A recent valuable contribution to the subject of Indo-European folk-lore, and more especially to that of Great Britain, is from the pen of a Frenchman, and is entitled 'Contes Populaires de la Grande-Bretagne' (Paris, 1875). In this handsome volume of over four hundred pages M. Loys Brueyre has given a translation of one hundred of the most popular stories of Great Britain, selected chiefly from Campbell's 'Highland Tales,' Kennedy's 'Fireside Stories of Ireland,' and the works of Henderson, Halliwell, and others on this subject. The translations are preceded by an interesting introduction containing a very good bibliography of the subject, and an examination of the various theories of the origin of popular tales. M. Brueyre pronounces, very correctly it seems to us, in favor of the theory which traces these tales back to a time before the dispersion of the Aryan peoples. He divides his hundred stories into three classes—viz., stories of Aryan origin, traditions of local origin (in England this class contains the fairy stories), and religious legends, ballads, nursery rhymes, etc. Each story is followed by a learned note tracing the material of the story in the folk-lore of other lands. These notes are generally quite full, as far as Scandinavian and French parallels are concerned; but the part relating to Italian folk-lore is generally meagre, perhaps owing to the fact that M.

Brueyre was not able to obtain Pitrè's great collection in time, although there was no reason why he should not have consulted Gonzenbach's 'Sicilianische Märchen' (2 vols., Leipzig, 1870), with Köhler's invaluable notes. Excellent as is his work, therefore, it is far behind those just mentioned. It will, however, doubtless serve to awaken an interest in the subject in France, and, we might add, also in England, where, judging by some of the reviews of this book, there is still much to be learned in regard to the fundamental principles of Indo-European folk-lore.

—One of the most popular stories of the above collection, that of Tom Thumb, has been made the subject of an elaborate monograph by the distinguished French scholar, Gaston Paris, with the title 'Le Petit Poucet et la Grande Ourse' (Paris : Vieweg ; 1875). In this interesting work, the size of which, small 16mo, is quite appropriate to the subject, the author endeavors to show that the story of Tom Thumb is a stellar myth, and also is closely related to the myth of Hermes. In the Walloon dialect the constellation of the Great Bear is termed *Chaur-Pôcè—i. e., char-Poucet;* the four stars forming a square represent, according to the peasants, the four wheels of a cart, the three in a line to the left the three horses, while the little star (*g*) above the middle horse is considered the driver and named *Pôcè*. With this as his point of departure, M. Paris investigates the history of the constellation from the earliest times, shows how it was once considered a mere assemblage of oxen, and connects Tom Thumb with it from one of the latter's chief characteristics, that of driver of his father's horses or oxen. In the second part of his investigation he shows the relation between the myths of Hermes and that of Tom Thumb. It must be confessed that there is a striking resemblance between the thievish propensities and experiences of the two, and it is difficult to regard this resemblance as merely fortuitous. In the course of his researches M. Paris examines in detail all the various forms of his story in the folk-lore of nearly every European people, and brings to light a mass of interesting details, etymological as well as mythological.

BURKE AS A PROPHET.*

BURKE'S 'Reflections' have a singular interest as illustrations of the extent and limits of historical prediction. To his own age he was in the strictest sense a prophet. His most celebrated critic thus testified in later years to his prescience : "The Opposition mistook the moral character of the Revolution, the Ministers mistook its force, and both parties, from pique, pride, habit, and obstinacy, persisted in these mistakes after they were disabused by experience. Mr. Burke alone avoided both these fatal mistakes. He saw both the malignity and the strength of the Revolution; but where there was wisdom to discover the truth, there was not power and perhaps there was not political skill to make that wisdom available for the salvation of Europe." "Edmund Burké," writes Coleridge, "possessed and had sedulously sharpened that eye which sees all things, actions, and events in relation to the laws that determine their existence and circumscribe their possibility. He referred habitually to principles. He was a scientific statesman, and therefore a seer, for every principle contains in itself the germs of a prophecy ; and, as the prophetic power is the essential privilege of science, so the fulfilment of its oracles supplies the outward and (to men in general) the only test of its claim to the title." Nor can a cool critic who compares Burke's forecast of the then future with the actual course of what is now the past, deny that his contemporaries were justified in ascribing to him something like the power of divination. Isolated predictions which are remarkable enough may easily be culled from his ante-Revolutionary writings—such, for example, as the prophecy uttered in 1791, that the Revolutionary excesses would end in the military despotism of some "popular general, who understands the art of conciliating the soldiery, who possesses the true spirit of command," and "shall draw the eyes of all men upon himself." So might be cited, and with more point, the following words, which all but close the letter in which the 'Reflections' are embodied : "I have told you candidly my sentiments. I think they are not likely to alter yours. I do not know that they ought. You are young ; you cannot guide, but must follow, the fortune of your country. But hereafter they may be of some use to you, in some future form which your commonwealth may take. In the present it can hardly remain ; but before its final settlement it may be obliged to pass, as one of our poets says, 'through great varieties of untried being,' and in all its transmigrations to be purified by fire and blood." The force of these sentences can be understood only by recalling the hopes which agitated Europe in 1791, and comparing them with the forebodings with which in 1876 men speculate on the possibility of France being ever able to reach any final settlement.

Recent investigations further prove Burke's insight into the character of the leading Revolutionists and the results of their policy. No one who has studied either the views of Quinet or the minute researches of Mortier-Ternault can doubt that Burke was in the main justified both in his statesmanlike contempt for the incapacity of the Terrorists, and in the opinion that the division of powers introduced by the Assembly would, inevitably, lead to the uncontrolled despotism of Paris. But instances of happy conjectures which may be balanced by some gross mistakes, or of acute criticisms the effect of which is diminished by observing one or two examples of ignorance or miscalculation, do not give a measure of Burke's foresight. With him (as with all prophets) the predictive portion of his work is of secondary importance compared with his moral teaching. His claim to be a seer lies in the possession of the true prophetic gifts combined with the strength and the weaknesses of the prophetic temperament. His foresight is grounded on the perception of the certainty of the moral laws of human nature, combined with the passionate conviction that theories or policies grounded on the neglect of these laws lead to the ruin of all who put their trust in them. In this feature Burke's foresight differs from the foresight of a man like De Tocqueville, whose predictive power results rather from the perfection of intellectual criticism than from the force of moral insight. With Burke, the conclusions of his intellect are always colored by ethical sentiment. This is so even in his treatment of the quarrel between England and America, though his writings on the American War are by far the finest specimen of his intellectual power ; but, throughout his anti-Revolutionary polemics, intellectual criticism, however acute, is little more than the cover of moral denunciation. An example of this moral indignation, as well as of the kind of insight to which it gave rise, is seen in Burke's picture of the violent movement by which the Royal family were brought by the populace to Paris. Most Englishmen saw in these opening scenes of the Revolution the triumph of liberty over despotism. Burke, in the march from Versailles, presaged the Reign of Terror. He describes it as a "spectacle more resembling a procession of American savages entering into Onondaga after some of their murders, called victories, and leading into hovels hung round with scalps their captives, overpowered with the scoffs and buffets of women as ferocious as themselves, much more than it resembled the triumphal pomp of a civilized martial nation—if a civilized nation, or men who had a sense of generosity, were capable of a personal triumph over the fallen and afflicted." The language savors of exaggeration, but, in denouncing the characteristic cruelty of French factions, which was quite as apparent in the crowd of émigrés who went to jeer at La Fayette in prison as in the Parisian fishwomen insulting their captive king, Burke was on sure ground. Massacres and outrages were not the augury of a period of freedom and reform. The Whigs, who hoped to see the movement of 1789 become a repetition of the Revolution of 1688, were forced to shut their eyes to patent facts. Burke, who refused to believe that cruelty and perfidy could beget freedom and justice, had, at any rate in this respect, the immense advantage always belonging to a man who can look facts in the face. His fierce moral indignation led him so far to the truth, and, seeing the truth, he possessed the moral foresight of a prophet.

Yet, to modern students, the failure of Burke's prophecies is as conspicuous as their success. He thought England threatened with revolution, yet every historian sees now, what Coleridge saw clearly enough a few years later, that England was not, at the beginning of the war with France, in the condition of a country in which there existed a general disposition to change and rebellion. Burke looked upon France, at any rate when he wrote the 'Reflections,' as on the point of ruin, though France was on the eve of asserting her supremacy over Europe. He based his policy on the assumption that the French nation was with the nobles at Coblentz, but every year which has passed since he wrote has given this assumption the lie. Though he formed a just estimate of the "malignity" of the Revolution, and in a certain sense of its "strength," he clearly misunderstood the nature of the movement. The outbreaks of violence in Paris, the death of the king and queen, and the Reign of Terror, are but the most dramatic incidents of a movement of which what is specially called the "French" Revolution was itself merely a part.

If the history of France for the last eighty years shows the soundness, the history of England for the same period exhibits the weak side, of Burke's views. His constitutionalism, with all its veneration for the balances, the fictions, and, to speak plainly, the dodges of the constitution, is as dead as the wordy Jacobinism in which so eminent a man as Price expressed his keen sense of real grievances, mingled with the vague

* 'Reflections on the Revolution in France. Burke's Select Works, with Introduction and Notes by E. J. Payne.' New York : Macmillan & Co.

feeling which possessed all the leading spirits of the day (except Burke himself) that society stood in need of radical reformation. Nor is it hard to explain Burke's errors. Prophetic passion opens to genius secrets hidden from the more torpid imagination of ordinary common sense. But passion is at the best a delusive guide. What Burke saw he saw with all the clearness of genius, but he saw clearly partly because he fixed his gaze intently on one part of the prospect, and, though unconsciously, none the less absolutely refused to look at anything else than the follies and the horrors of the Revolutionists at Paris. To the feelings which led men of all creeds and nations to welcome any hope of change, he was absolutely dead. He himself is perplexed by the outbreak of violence and fanaticism for which he can find no justification. "Louis the Sixteenth is no tyrant. All the outcry against the nobility" is "a work of art." In the French clergy he sees nothing but virtue ; the higher clergy especially "seemed to me rather a superior class—a set of men amongst whom you would not be surprised to find a Fénelon." Why then should king, nobles, and clergy be hated ? On the other hand, the "philosophic cabal," and Rousseau especially, fill him with simple horror and contempt. Sometimes he appears to think that there might be such a thing as national lunacy, and that the French had gone mad. He cites a passage from a speech of Rabaut Saint-Etienne, to the effect that everything in France must be destroyed and created anew, and comments on it as the remark of a madman; yet a little reflection on the speaker's history might have guided Burke to one at least of the sources of French discontent. Rabaut Saint-Etienne was himself a leading Protestant, whose father had passed his life in preaching to persecuted co-religionists at the risk of death and torture. It has been said with considerable truth of Burke, that though he was not a Roman Catholic he was in no sense a Protestant. His sympathies were with the old Church. The 'Reflections' contain a curious passage deprecating the destruction of monastic institutions, which must, as Mr. Payne points out, have been intended as a censure on the policy of the Protestant reformers.

This tenderness to the old creed, connected as it no doubt was with Burke's family history, has also a very close connection with traits of his genius which account in a great measure for his attitude towards the whole European revolutionary movement. His Catholic proclivities are a part of what Mr. Payne well calls his "conservatism." They are also connected with his political view of religious questions, as well as with his almost morbid hatred of the application of abstract truths or generalizations to politics. Hence, the real strength not of the French revolutionists, but of the teachers whose dogmas gave intellectual force to the Revolution, was hidden from Burke. The fervor for "enlightenment," which in the noblest spirits of the eighteenth century, such as Turgot, was a passion for truth, and which gave an element of true faith to men of a much baser stamp, was as unknown to Burke as it could be to any man of genius and benevolence. He did not understand this passion, and, therefore, failed really to appreciate the nature of the fanaticism to which the passion could give rise. He saw a disorderly movement destroying much that was good, and as he did not enter into either the evils against which it was directed or the good which was contained in it, his passionate belief in the truths he did perceive led him, in some respects, even further astray than ordinary persons were led by their dull common-sense, which, if it does not see far, at least takes cognizance of facts brought immediately within its ken. Thus Burke failed to perceive the fact patent to the observers of his time, that whatever were the evils of the Revolution the country people gained immensely, partly by the confiscations, partly by the abolition of tithes, and still more by the cancelling of debts worked by the assignats. Failing to perceive this, he clung far more tenaciously than a practical statesman like Pitt to the illusion that disgust at Revolutionary violence would produce enthusiasm for a restoration. Burke's English disciples have, as is the way with disciples, never been able to divest themselves of this the weakest part of their master's teaching. Yet on this point the following remark of De Tocqueville is decisive :

"Ingenious persons have in our day undertaken to restore the credit of the *ancien régime*, . . . but I judge of the *ancien régime* not by what I imagine, but by the sentiments with which it inspired those who endured and destroyed it. I see that during the whole course of the Revolution, oppressive and cruel as it was, the hatred of the *ancien régime* always surpassed in the hearts of all Frenchmen every other hatred, and took such deep root in their hearts that it survived even its object, and passed from a momentary passion into a sort of permanent instinct. I remark that during the most perilous vicissitudes of the last sixty years the fear of the restoration of the *ancien régime* has surpassed all other fears. For me this is enough. To my mind the proof is complete."

This sentence should be placed as a motto on Burke's 'Reflections.' It points to the limitations which bound the range of even the most prophetic foresight.

BROWNING'S INN ALBUM.*

THIS is a decidedly irritating and displeasing performance. It is growing more difficult every year for Mr. Browning's old friends to fight his battles for him, and many of them will feel that on this occasion the cause is really too hopeless, and the great poet must himself be answerable for his indiscretions. Nothing that Mr. Browning writes, of course, can be vapid ; if this were possible, it would be a much simpler affair. If it were a case of a writer "running thin," as the phrase is, there would be no need for criticism ; there would be nothing in the way of matter to criticise, and old readers would have no heart to reproach. But it may be said of Mr. Browning that he runs thick rather than thin, and he need claim none of the tenderness granted to those who have used themselves up in the service of their admirers. He is robust and vigorous ; more so now, even, than heretofore, and he is more prolific than in the earlier part of his career. But his wantonness, his wilfulness, his crudity, his inexplicable want of secondary thought, as we may call it, of the stage of reflection that follows upon the first outburst of the idea, and smooths, shapes, and adjusts it—all this alloy of his great genius is more sensible now than ever. 'The Inn Album' reads like a series of rough notes for a poem—of hasty hieroglyphics and symbols, decipherable only to the author himself. A great poem might perhaps have been made of it, but assuredly it is not a great poem, nor any poem whatsoever. It is hard to say very coherently what it is. Up to a certain point, like everything of Mr. Browning's, it is highly dramatic and vivid, and beyond that point, like all its companions, it is as little dramatic as possible. It is not narrative, for there is not a line of comprehensible, consecutive statement in the two hundred and eleven pages of the volume. It is not lyrical, for there is not a phrase which in any degree does the office of the poetry that comes lawfully into the world—chants itself, images itself, or lingers in the memory. "That bard's a Browning ; he neglects the form !" one of the characters exclaims with irresponsible frankness. That Mr. Browning knows he "neglects the form," and does not particularly care, does not very much help matters ; it only deepens the reader's sense of the graceless and thankless and altogether unavailable character of the poem. And when we say unavailable, we make the only reproach which is worth addressing to a writer of Mr. Browning's intellectual power. A poem with so many presumptions in its favor as such an authorship carries with it is a thing to make some intellectual use of, to care for, to remember, to return to, to linger over, to become intimate with. But we can as little imagine a reader (who has not the misfortune to be a reviewer) addressing himself more than once to the perusal of 'The Inn Album,' as we can fancy cultivating for conversational purposes the society of a person afflicted with a grievous impediment of speech.

Two gentlemen have been playing cards all night in an inn-parlor, and the peep of day finds one of them ten thousand pounds in debt to the other. The tables have been turned, and the victim is the actual victor. The elder man is a dissolute and penniless nobleman, who has undertaken the social education of the aspiring young heir of a great commercial fortune, and has taught him so well that the once ingenuous lad knows more than his clever master. The young man has come down into the country to see his cousin, who lives, hard by at the Hall, with her aunt, and with whom his aristocratic preceptor recommends him, for good worldly reasons, to make a match. Infinite discourse, of that formidable full-charged sort that issues from the lips of all Mr. Browning's characters, follows the play, and as the morning advances the two gentlemen leave the inn and go for a walk. Lord K. has meanwhile related to his young companion the history of one of his own earlier loves—how he had seduced a magnificent young woman, and she had fairly frightened him into offering her marriage. On learning that he had meant to go free if he could, her scorn for him becomes such that she rejects his offer of reparation (a very fine stroke) and enters into wedlock with a "smug, crop-haired, smooth-chinned sort of curate-creature." The young man replies that he himself was once in love with a person that quite answers to this description, and then the companions separate—the pupil to call at the Hall, and the preceptor to catch the train for London. The reader is then carried back to the inn-parlor, into which, on the departure of the gentlemen, two ladies have been ushered. One of them is the young man's cousin, who is playing at cross-purposes with her suitor ; the other is her intimate friend, arrived on a flying visit. The intimate friend is of course the ex-victim of Lord K. The ladies have much conversation—all of it rather more ingeniously inscrutable than that of their predecessors ; it terminates in the exit of the cousin and the entrance of the young man. He recognizes the curate's wife as the object of his own stifled affection, and the two have, as the French say, an *intime* con-

* 'The Inn Album. By Robert Browning.' London : Smith & Elder ; Boston : J. R. Osgood & Co. 1875.

versation. At last Lord K. comes back, having missed his train, and finds himself confronted with his stormy mistress. Very stormy she proves to be, and her outburst of renewed indignation and irony contains perhaps the most successful writing in the poem. Touched by the lady's eloquence, the younger man, who has hitherto professed an almost passionate admiration for his companion, begins to see him in a less interesting light, and in fact promptly turns and reviles him. The situation is here extremely dramatic. Lord K. is a cynic of a sneaking pattern, but he is at any rate a man of ideas. He holds the destiny of his adversaries in his hands, and, snatching up the inn album (which has been knocking about the table during the foregoing portions of the narrative), he scrawls upon it his ultimatum. Let the lady now bestow her affection on his companion, and let the latter accept this boon as a vicarious payment of the gambling debt, otherwise Lord K. will enlighten the lady's husband as to the extent of her acquaintance with himself. He presents the open page to the heroine, who reads it aloud, and for an answer her younger and more disinterested lover, "with a tiger-flash, yell, spring, and scream," throws himself on the insulter, half an hour since his guide, philosopher, and friend, and, by some means undescribed by Mr. Browning, puts an end to his life. This incident is related in two pregnant lines, which, judged by the general standard of style of the 'Inn Album,' must be considered fine :

> "A tiger-flash, yell, spring and scream : halloo !
> Death's out and on him, has and holds him—ugh !"

The effect is of course augmented if the reader is careful to make the "ugh !" rhyme correctly with the "halloo !" The lady takes poison, which she carries on her person and which operates instantaneously, and the young man's cousin, re-entering the room, has a sufficiently tremendous surprise.

The whole picture indefinably appeals to the imagination. There is something very curious about it and even rather arbitrary, and the reader wonders how it came, in the poet's mind, to take exactly that shape. It is very much as if he had worked backwards, had seen his dénouement first, as a mere picture—the two corpses in the inn-parlor, and the young man and his cousin confronted above them—and then had traced back the possible motives and sources. In looking for these Mr. Browning has of course encountered a vast number of deep discriminations and powerful touches of portraitures. He deals with human character as a chemist with his acids and alkalies, and while he mixes his colored fluids in a way that surprises the profane, knows perfectly well what he is about. But there is too apt to be in his style that hiss and sputter and evil aroma which characterize the proceedings of the laboratory. The idea, with Mr. Browning, always tumbles out into the world in some grotesque hind-foremost manner ; it is like an unruly horse backing out of his stall, and stamping and plunging as he comes. His thought knows no simple stage—at the very moment of its birth it is a terribly complicated affair. We frankly confess, at the risk of being accused of deplorable levity of mind, that we have found this want of clearness of explanation, of continuity, of at least superficial verisimilitude, of the smooth, the easy, the agreeable, quite fatal to our enjoyment of 'The Inn Album.' It is all too argumentative, too curious and recondite. The people talk too much in long set speeches, at a moment's notice, and the anomaly so common in Browning, that the talk of the women is even more rugged and insoluble than that of the men, is here greatly exaggerated. We are reading neither prose nor poetry ; it is too real for the ideal, and too ideal for the real. The author of 'The Inn Album' is not a writer to whom we care to pay trivial compliments, and it is not a trivial complaint to say that his book is only barely comprehensible. Of a successful dramatic poem one ought to be able to say more.

WARING'S FARMER'S VACATION.*

THE title of this book gives no idea of its contents, and if Colonel Waring had gone a great deal farther in the same vein and called his work "Holland and the Channel Islands, as seen by a Scientific Agriculturist," the title would still omit the most valuable and interesting portion of the author's observations. The explanation of this somewhat unfortunate name probably is this : a large part of the work has already appeared in *Scribner's Magazine*, and for a series of magazine articles "A Farmer's Vacation" was an attractive title, well calculated to entice the readers of light literature into the study of the wonderful works of a wonderful land. The author has doubtless thought it more honest to retain the title lest he might inveigle his former readers into believing he had published a new work on the same subject. But, nevertheless, this story-telling title will screen the real merits of the book from a class of readers who would seek with avidity the stores of interesting information which it contains.

The marvellous works of the "Hollow-land"—among the greatest, if not the very greatest, of the successful efforts of the human race ; as great in their engineering difficulties as the Pyramids, and incomparably greater in their conception, their purpose, the means by which they were wrought out, and the dangers by which they were beset—merit the attention of every intelligent mind. And, indeed, a more striking contrast cannot be drawn than by comparing these great works of ancient and modern civilizations. The uselessness of the Pyramids, their want of any rational end, structures which added nothing to the wealth of the world nor to the happiness of mankind, undertaken to satisfy an ambitious idea and built by immense sacrifices of life and industry through the means of a weary train of task-masters and slaves, how very paltry do they appear beside this other conception of driving back the waters of a stormy sea, and making its depths the most fertile fields of the earth. All well-read persons know something of Holland, and have seen the historic side of the picture, drawn from a literary point of view, in the pages of Prescott and Motley ; but we have never been more impressed with the greatness of the undertaking, the boldness of the idea, the indomitable courage, the steady patience, and heroic resolution of the Dutch nation than when viewing, through this book, the practical difficulties of the work with the eyes of a working engineer. Yet the magnitude of the work indeed, is not to be measured or illustrated by the common metaphor of a battle between man and the ocean. There has, it is true, been a continuous warfare, which is going on to-day, involving on man's side courage, discipline, training, and increasing vigilance ; but, apart from that conflict, there have remained difficulties which would have been insuperable to almost any other people. When the sea was driven back, there remained submarine marshes, deep in mud and slime, having no natural outlets, rapidly refilling with the rains of heaven and the filtrations from the ocean. The not least marvellous portion of the national work is that these are now rich with everything that makes civilization desirable. Thickly populated, of quadruple the value of the natural uplands, bearing as ruddy and healthy a population as the mountains of Colorado, their agriculture excels even that of England, and their farmers are, as a class, probably the most wealthy and cultivated in the world. Moreover, their necessary drainage, an inevitable source of endless expense, has been utilized into an immense economy, so that the American farmer beholds there the strange spectacle of the crops gliding on boats from the harvest-field to the barn and from the barn to the market.

At this time the public works of Holland should also have especial interest for the American people because of the peculiar condition in which we find our own. When half of us have come to believe that it is impossible for public work to be well done, and when all of us see canal embankments, built at enormous cost, crumbling under the ripples of a horse-boat, it must be almost a new view of human nature to see a country having towns, villages, and a large agricultural population below the sea level, where property and life, and indeed national existence, depend, and have for two centuries depended, on the fidelity and intelligence of the public service. If Holland managed her public affairs for ten years as those of the State of New York have been managed, with the decade would probably end her national existence, and the devastation of property and life that would ensue would seem comparable only to the deluge.

But these reflections have drawn us too far from 'A Farmer's Vacation.' It is fortunate that Col. Waring has been peculiarly trained to deal with the subject-matter of this book, and almost equally fortunate that he has contented himself with the handling only of those subjects for which his training so fitted him. In early life, if we remember aright, he made agricultural chemistry a specialty, and delivered practical lectures upon it in different parts of the United States. Later he became the engineer of drainage of the Central Park, and since then has made drainage and sewage and sanitary engineering his profession. Added to these qualifications are the experiences of a practical farmer, in which he has made the Jersey cattle a subject of special study and attention, and of an author who in many descriptive and scientific articles has attained the command of a clear, attractive, and polished style. When such qualifications are stated it is well-nigh needless to add that the author has written an unusually entertaining and meritorious book. Its solid matter embraces such subjects as Dutch drainage, Edam cheeses, Holstein cattle and Alderney cows (though, strange to say, both of these terms are misnomers, there being in fact neither Holstein cattle nor Alderney cows) ; but the author also carries his readers from Dutch canals through the unfrequented ways of Normandy to the embowered lanes of Jersey, and the

* 'A Farmer's Vacation. By George E. Waring, jr.' Boston : James R. Osgood & Co. 1876.

picturesque precipices of Sark. The book is handsomely printed and profusely illustrated, and the illustrations show the variety of the reading matter. As instances of this variety we cite at random an Edam cheese-press, a Scheveningen fishwife, the clock-tower at Rouen, the head-dresses of Normandy, the castle of Mont St. Michel, a cow at home in Jersey, and the interior of Victor Hugo's drawing-room in Guernsey.

Life and Adventures of a Quaker among the Indians. By Thomas C. Battey. (Boston: Lee & Shepard.)—The concern felt by the Society of Friends for the Indians has recently been more than usually conspicuous, owing to the ecclesiastical allotment of the tribes under the Department of which Mr. Chandler is the temporary high-priest. But from the days of Penn it has been continuous and real, although less observed by the world's people and not always yielding the hoped-for fruits. A privately printed 'Journal of a Visit to the Western Indians,' made in 1804 by a committee of the Baltimore Yearly Meeting, is an incidental example; but that quaint narrative of a two-thousand-mile journey of benevolence is entirely eclipsed by the latest account of similar work in a more arduous field. Mr. Battey's book consists of the notes of a missionary who faithfully inculcated peaceful principles, and sought to impart useful knowledge under very unpropitious conditions. For eight months in 1871–2 the author, a Quaker schoolteacher, taught Caddo children at the Wichita Agency in the Indian Territory, when, under a powerful impulse, he conceived it his duty to go among the Kiowas. Of unreliable and vicious savages the Kiowas may be regarded the best types east of the mountains; and as they murdered forty whites and stole several hundred head of stock about that time, he was constrained to agree with the agent that the view was "discouraging." Notwithstanding this his "mind was secretly drawn to" them, and on December, 1872, he actually went, under the patronage of Kicking Bird, to their camp. With these people he remained as his health permitted, until he entirely broke down in the summer of 1874; and the diary of his nomadic life is the soul of the volume. His school did not succeed, but in the hope of ultimately overcoming their prejudices he remained among them, at times at personal risk; and it is probable that he exercised a restraining influence, as he evidently believes. He describes the diplomacy born of the arrest and release of Satanta and Big Tree and certain later negotiations, and very clearly convicts the authorities of vacillation and of apparent double-dealing in most delicate matters. And, like all honest men who have had opportunities to enquire, he asserts the frequent causeless aggression of the bad whites. These are the important parts of the book. The most entertaining chapter is the tenth, describing the Kiowa medicine-house and dance, which Mr. Battey had unusual opportunities to observe. This is the latest and perhaps the fullest description of such ceremonies among the Southern Indians.

The book bears marks of painful truthfulness throughout, but, except the points just noted, contains little that one not an absolute novice in such literature would care for. In fact, it is more remarkable for its omissions than for its information. Thus, the author credits the Kiowas (p. 102) with having a "decimal system even more simple than our own," but says no more about it. He speaks of enormous rattlesnakes (p. 148), and attributes the uniform recovery from their wounds, in his experience, to the use of a remedy growing "in great abundance" in that region, but makes no attempt to describe it or the method of its use. He intimates (pp. 94, 169) that the lodges usually open to the east, but he assigns no reason. Although Satanta, whom he frequently mentions, may be regarded as the leading Kiowa, he appears ignorant that in his earlier life he was a much better friend of the whites than in later years, and that many of Satank's misdeeds have been put upon his shoulders. But most peculiar of all is his silence as to the sign-language, which is the court-language of the plains. It is the ordinary medium of communication between tribes having no common speech, and it is really that upon which the interpreters chiefly depend. The author's facilities for its acquisition were unsurpassed; it would have been of the utmost value to him in his philanthropic efforts, and yet, judging by his book, he is utterly unaware of its existence. To overlook or disregard a subject of such real importance throws a suspicion upon the aptitude as an educator of a man who seems well stocked otherwise with good sense and with coolness and courage. In like manner he fails to represent clearly the various ideas which the Indian groups under the borrowed term "medicine." And this, like the preceding, would directly concern him as a civilizer. In a measure he apologizes (p. 319) for these deficiencies by explaining that he is not writing upon Indian customs, but simply narrating his own life among them. But the lives of few individuals concern the public, except as they illustrate groups of facts or social laws.

In a literary view the book is disfigured by the frequent interjection of religious musings which, edifying as they may be to the subject, are out of place in print. It may be commended as a plain statement of some things that pertain to barbarian camps existing at this moment in the heart of our country, and as corroborative evidence that a consistent and rational policy of peace is not so absurd and puerile as the white savages of the frontier insist. The volume is illustrated by eight tolerable woodcuts from photographs of Kiowas, but those of Kicking Bird and Satanta in particular by no means do justice to the originals. White Horse, who is occasionally mentioned, is not so honored, but the inquisitive tourist may now safely inspect him in his proper person at St. Augustine, Florida.

A General History of Rome, from the Foundation of the City to the Fall of Augustulus. B.C. 753–A.D. 476. By Charles Merivale, D.D., Dean of Ely. 'Historia scribitur ad narrandum non ad probandum' (Quintilian, Inst. Orat. x. i. 31). (New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1875. 8vo, pp. xxxiii. and 708.)—Mr. Merivale has undertaken to fill a real gap in preparing a complete history of Rome, from Romulus to Romulus Augustulus, in moderate compass and presenting the results of the latest scholarship. Certainly his book has no rival in the English language, nor is it perhaps likely to have one; for the qualifications for the task are not easy to find united in one person. Mr. Freeman has promised one, and in the intervals of his two great works he may find time for what perhaps seems to him a trifle; but Mr. Freeman has no adequate sense of proportion—he is at his best when he works with plenty of room; when he undertakes to compress, he cannot make up his mind to leave out anything, and the brilliant writer becomes perforce dull and heavy. We do not, therefore, expect much from his history of Rome. Mr. Merivale, on the other hand, possesses this qualification in a high degree, and with it the power of seeing his way through the complications of historical events, and of presenting them in a clear, connected, and graphic style. Perhaps, on the whole, we are not likely to have any better complete history of Rome for general readers than this.

And yet it is far from meeting the requirements of the undertaking, even such as we should be justified in expecting without setting up too severe a standard. Within his range Mr. Merivale is all that could be desired, and his range is neither low nor contracted. Besides the high qualities as an historian to which we have already adverted, he has a wide and thorough scholarship of the old-fashioned English type—a type of scholarship which for geniality and elevation of tone surpasses that of any other nation. Nevertheless, English scholarship, with its other merits, does not include that of doing justice to the scholarship of other nations. We cannot recall a single Englishman who has treated of Roman history, except Mr. Seeley, who has shown the smallest appreciation of the labors of German scholars—since Niebuhr—in this field. This was a defect even in Mr. Merivale's great work, in a period where the common-sense of the self-governed Englishman might often outweigh the painful conclusions of more recondite scholarship; but when he undertakes to handle the early period, it completely deprives his labors of authority and value. Mr. Merivale ought to know that to study early Roman institutions without the aid of Mommsen is as absurd as it would be for the student of physics to neglect Helmholtz.

Mr. Merivale would say, no doubt, that Mommsen is arbitrary in his conclusions; and so he may appear to those who consult only his history, and find there only results—no processes. But he is not arbitrary to those who take the trouble to study his more special works. When Quintilian says that history is written *ad narrandum*, he certainly does not mean to imply that the historian himself should not pursue studies *ad probandum*; and this Mr. Merivale appears to have neglected, so far as the most authoritative discussions of the early history are concerned. A little study of Mommsen's 'Forschungen' and 'Staatsrecht' would have saved him from some blunders; for instance, the assertion (p. 33) that "it was required of the consuls that one only should exercise his functions within the city at a time, and the other should take his station in the camp beyond it." From the statement (p. 30) that "land at Rome was held of the state, as formerly in France and England of the king, as sovereign owner, by the tenure of military service," we do not know what could have protected him.

When we search the later period which, as well as the earlier, is not covered by Mr. Merivale's principal work, we find a much more satisfactory treatment, and yet, even here, the same lack of familiarity with the results of German scholarship. There is nothing, for instance, to compare with Mr. Seeley's forcible analysis in 'Roman Imperialism' of the causes of the downfall of the Empire. The assertion (p. 572) that, in the time of Diocletian, "prædial slavery was far from general in the provinces," that it was "the habits of the country and the times" that bound the *coloni*

o the soil, rather than any law, is hardly excusable since Emil Kuhn's analysis of the status of the various classes of population in his 'Verfassung des römischen Reichs'—even if it would have been before.

There are a few isolated points to which it is worth while to direct special attention. The ethnology of the earlier portions—including Niebuhr's now abandoned Pelasgian theory, an actual Arcadian settlement on the Palatine, and a regular succession of Siculi, Ligurians, Pelasgians, and Aborigines on the soil of Rome before the Romans themselves—is more "arbitrary" than anything in Mommsen. On page 7, Fannus, instead of Picus, is said to have been identified with Sterculus. Among the Stoic writers (p. 690), Epictetus should have been mentioned by the side of Marcus Aurelius. The maps are very clear and good. The physical features of Central Italy, however, are not well given. The division lines between the east and west under the sons of Constantine, and Valentinian and Valens should be indicated, as well as the final division; the dioceses and præfectures should also be given. The map of Rome as well as the letterpress (p. 662) imply that the New Way extended all the way to the foot of the Capitoline. We will add that while the constitutional history of the later Empire is not fully satisfactory, the ecclesiastical history is, as we might expect, every way good.

The Elements of Graphical Statics, and their Application to Framed Structures, etc. By A. Jay Du Bois, C.E. (New York: John Wiley & Son. 1875.)—That method of treatment of various engineering problems which is known as the "graphical" may be said to date almost entirely from the appearance of the work of Prof. Culmann, of Zurich, in 1866. Since that time a number of writers, mostly German, have added to the literature of the subject and extended its applications. A representation to the eye of the magnitude and kind of the different strains to which all parts of a framed structure, roof-truss, bridge-truss, or arch, as well as the various portions of a machine, are subjected, can readily be seen to possess great value to the designer. While there are a few men of such a bent of mind that only the most abstract analysis of a problem satisfies them, there is no engineer of experience who will not gladly welcome this clear and comprehensive presentation of the subject of graphical statics as developed up to the present time. The analytical treatment of structures is not ignored, but, where a union of the two methods will expedite and shorten the work, formulæ are freely used, and for some of the most difficult engineering problems many new and practical formulæ are added. The book opens with an historical and critical introduction, translated from the German of Weyrauch, which is followed by a valuable list of the works at present published relating to this branch of mechanics. An inspection of this list will show how few books there are in English upon a method of such approved interest and practical value, and what a great service, therefore, Prof. Du Bois has rendered the engineering profession. As here presented, the subject requires only a knowledge of geometry as commonly taught, and, consequently, it can be introduced into our technical schools as well as be read by practical engineers. The work consists of one volume of text with another of plates, conveniently arranged for use; the mechanical execution of both text and plates is good, and the book has apparently been carefully prepared.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*	
Adams (C. F.), Memoirs of John Quincy Adams. Vol. VIII.	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)	
Alexander (Mrs.), Her Dearest Foe: a Novel. Leisure Hour Series.	(Henry Holt & Co.)	1 25
Barrett (B. F.), Swedenborg Library. Vol. I.	(Claxton, Remsen & Haffelfinger)	
Buckley (J. M.), Christians and the Theatre.	(Nelson & Phillips)	
Presciani (Rev. A.), Mathilda of Canossa	(D. & J. Sadlier & Co.)	
Catholic Directory, Almanac, and Ordo for 1876, swd.	(D. & J. Sadlier & Co.)	
Curtius (E.), Excavation of Olympia, swd.	(A. S. Barnes & Co.)	0 25
Carey (Rosa N.), Wooed and Married: a Novel.	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)	

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This grand treatise was imported in quantities by Messrs. Lee & Shepard, from whom the undersigned has purchased the balance of the stock and reduced the price from $25 to $9.

LIFE OF ALEXANDER VON HUM- boldt. Compiled by J. Lowenberg, Robert Ave Lallemant, and Alfred Dove. Edited by Prof. Karl Bruhns. Translated by Lassell. 2 vols. 8vo, cloth, 3 portraits. London: 1873.

This splendid biography of one of the great lights of modern science was first placed on the American market at $21. A balance of edition has been purchased by the subscriber and the price reduced to $5 the set. Only thirteen sets now remain.

ALASKA AND ITS RESOURCES.

By W. H. Dall. 8vo, pp. 628, map and illustrations, substantially bound in bevelled cloth. Boston: 1870.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 27, 1876.

The Week.

THE correspondence with Spain, over which there has been so much talk was communicated to Congress on Friday. In it Mr. Fish again complains, in a despatch dated Nov. 5, 1875, of the seizure of the property of American citizens in Cuba without process of law, and of the contempt with which the orders of the home Government with regard to these seizures have been treated in the island; also of the trial of American citizens on the island by court-martial, and of the acknowledgment of the wrongfulness of such proceedings by the Spanish Government, coupled with its subsequent failure to afford any redress. He complains also of the evasion of the agreement made in 1873 after the *Virginius* case, inasmuch as though the money compensation to the relatives of the victims has been paid, no steps have been taken for the punishment of General Burriel, which also was promised. He says the state of things in the island is bad enough and hard to bear, but it is aggravated by the refusal of the Spanish Government to pay any attention to remonstrances or offers of mediation, and, above all, by its disregard of treaty obligations and of the rights of American citizens. He, therefore, urges Spain to do something to put an end to the conflict, and declares that in the absence of any such effort this Government may be called on to interfere, both in the interest of humanity, and because the relations of this country with Spain are now in such a delicate condition that another such occurrence as the *Virginius* affair might arouse "a feeling and excitement in this country which might force events." Finally, he says that in the absence of any prospect of the termination of the war, or of any change in the manner in which it has been conducted on either side, he feels "that the time is at hand when it may be the duty of other governments to interfere, with the view of bringing to an end a disastrous and destructive conflict."

On the same day Mr. Fish addressed a circular note to the American Ministers in London, Paris, Berlin, St. Petersburg, Vienna, and Rome, with a copy of the above despatch to Mr. Cushing, expressing the President's belief that an expression of opinion by these governments in support of the views of the United States would induce Spain, "by some wise and conclusive measure, to render all thought or necessity of intervention from any quarter unnecessary," and informing them that intervention is not contemplated as an immediate result, but as a contingent necessity, in case "the contest be prosecuted and a satisfactory adjustment of existing griefs be not reached"; but the President would "discountenance the recognition of belligerency or independence." The only thing published in the nature of a reply to all this is a telegram from Mr. Cushing, dated Dec. 4, in which he says he has had an important interview with the Spanish Minister, in which he admits our grievances, condemns sequestration of foreigners' property and the delays of redress, and offers to settle every case promptly and to remove all cause of complaint as to the treaty, and "reprobates the conduct of the authorities in Cuba."

The reflection which the correspondence suggests at once is that Mr. Fish mixes up two things which have no necessary connection. Redress for wrongs done to citizens of the United States, whether by the confiscation of their property or their illegal trial he has, of course, the right to demand, and is in duty bound to press without needless delay; but these cases are few in number, and easily proved and disposed of. With the general condition of the island and the Spanish mode of governing it they have no necessary connection, any more than the *Alabama* claims had with the condition of Ireland. If there be a belligerent power in arms against the Spanish Government on the island, this Government is bound to recognize it, and may fairly offer to mediate between the combatants. If there be not, the general disorders of the administration are none of our business, and we could not possibly meddle in them without incurring the grave and weighty responsibility of providing a remedy. If, as a result of our intervention, the Spaniards should withdraw or be driven out, the island would certainly be left on our hands, and we have no machinery for governing it as a dependency. We could only do one thing with it—admit it as a State, and what a State it would be with its ignorant, barbarous, superstitious population! Now, we do not need to point out in detail the objections to our assuming any such burden; and yet to our assuming it Mr. Fish's heats and threats and lamentations and offers of mediation inevitably point. Everybody knows that there is no race or party on the island capable of administering it if Spain abandons it, and, therefore, we must by all means keep clear of it until we get rid of our own difficulties, which are certainly great enough for such statesmen as we have in Washington.

We called Mr. Fish's attention two weeks ago to the performances of Mr. Francis Thomas, the late American Minister to Peru, in acting as a pawnbroker in that country by lending money at exorbitant rates of interest on the pledges of jewels, as another sign of the condition into which the diplomatic service was falling, and as a fresh argument in support of our suggestion that it should be abolished before matters get worse. Since then another extraordinary revelation has been made. Mr. Gratiot Washburne, the late Second Secretary of Legation in Paris, was a short time ago home on a short leave of absence, and, during his stay here, appears to have acted as agent of a spirited American circus proprietor named Myers, who has just opened or is about to open a monster "Hippodrome" in Paris. Mr. Washburne accordingly advertised in his own name, in the New York *Clipper*, for "a first-class bareback male and female rider" for "Mr. Myers's Great American Circus, Paris, France—the palace circus of the world." The *Tribune* states that it learns, on enquiry, that he tried also during his stay here to secure animals for the "palace circus." He went back about the end of November, and has now been promoted to the First Secretaryship of the Legation at St. Petersburg, where he will be at least a novelty. *Harper's Weekly* very properly contrasts the extraordinary indulgence shown to General Schenck and his kind with the stern retribution dealt out to Mr. Motley for a mere error of judgment in the conduct of a negotiation. He was not even allowed to get "under fire," but dismissed with an opprobrious rebuke.

The meeting of the stockholders of the Emma Mine called by the directors to pass on the proposal to authorize Mr. MacDougall to prosecute Park and his confederates in the sale of the stock was held in London on Saturday last, and the resolution was passed with only seven dissentients. Park, in the meantime, continues to spread the report that something wonderful in the way of yield has been taking place in the mine within a few weeks which will completely vindicate him; but this is now an old and well-worn story, and either had not reached London on Saturday, or, like so many of its predecessors, was disbelieved. If MacDougall carries out his threats, General Schenck will be placed in the very awkward predicament which we foreshadowed in November, 1871. In other words, he will be forced to plead his privilege in bar of criminal proceedings.

Mr. Morton has been making during the week his long-promised speech on the intimidation of Republican voters at the South, and

especially in Mississippi, at the late election. It contains nothing new and does not point to any remedy; indeed, the only remedy it even remotely suggests is the occupation of the South for an indefinite period by a large military force. The kind of intimidation on which he lays most stress is what is called "social ostracism"—that is, the unwillingness of Southerners to employ Republican lawyers or doctors, or to visit at the houses of Republicans, or invite them to their own. This is a topic which, if it calls for discussion at all, should be dealt with by the press and pulpit. Making speeches on it before a legislature is a vain performance, because a legislature is utterly powerless with regard to it. The record of murders and woundings at the South which Mr. Morton produces is of course, if correct, a dreadful exhibit; but then it wants the element of pertinency in failing to tell us why the murders were committed. That reckless, numerous, and unpunished murders are a marked feature of Southern life we all knew, but how many of them are political Mr. Morton does not know. That the vast majority of them have nothing to do with politics is a legitimate inference from the history of Southern manners during the last hundred years. Why should Southerners murder less since the war than before it? Why should their murdering be confined now to political opponents, which it never was in old times? We wish for our part, from the bottom of our hearts, that we thought the recklessness of Southerners about taking human life had its root in the present condition of politics. We fear it lies far deeper, and lies where neither Morton nor Conkling nor any of the "Senatorial group" can get at it, with either infantry, cavalry, or artillery, viz., in the barbarism of society—a barbarism only to be got rid of by time, education, industry, and the growth of population.

Perhaps the most startling thing about the speech is that it should have been made, listened to, and reported. We presume that there is nobody in the country who now has the smallest belief in Mr. Morton's honesty as a politician, or supposes that there is any sincerity in anything he says. He makes speeches, everybody knows, on whichever side of any question he supposes most likely to be popular, and he has no hesitation in flatly and publicly contradicting in January what he said in July. Nobody, in fact, credits him with any convictions of his own. In a pure and healthy state of politics and of public opinion, he would be living in close retirement and taking his exercise after dark. Nevertheless, no man courts observation more, or tackles grave questions with more audacity and ostentation, and he gets outwardly as respectful a hearing, and there has to be as much editorial weighing of his words, as if he were a loyal, upright, unselfish man. Of course he really cares no more about the condition of the South than he cares about hard or soft money, and, though people listen, nobody has any intention of acting on his utterances. One of the first signs of real reform in politics will be the disappearance of his type of politicians.

The Senate has spent the week chiefly in debating the attack on the Treasury accounts, discussing and passing a measure introduced by Mr. Sherman proposing an investigation into the trade in alcoholic liquors, and listening to Mr. Morton's Mississippi speech. The Republicans have finally succeeded in getting the Treasury enquiry demanded by Mr. Davis referred to the Finance Committee instead of a special investigating committee, as proposed by him. The House has been carrying on a protracted Centennial debate. In the course of the latter, General Banks distinguished himself by announcing the discovery of a constitutional authority for the appropriation in the treaty-making power—a feat in hermeneutics almost as remarkable as that accomplished in science by the late Mr. Phœnix when he backed his theodolite "into the plane of the true meridian." The debate showed that several of the Southern members are still strong on nice legal points, one of them making a very good offset to General Banks's argument by a speech in which he conclusively proved that the United States are not "a nation," but a confederation of sovereign States. The Constitution, he said, was not made by "men," and he created a sensation, according to the newspaper report of the proceedings, by declaring that it was made by "States," thus clearing up all doubts on the subject which may have existed in the minds of some of the members. On Tuesday the House voted the appropriation by 146 to 130, after incorporating in the bill an amendment providing that the $1,500,000 shall be repaid to the Treasury before any dividends go to the stockholders. Mr. Morrison has introduced his resumption bill, a synopsis of which was published a fortnight since.

The Rev. Dr. Newman, General Grant's pastor in Washington, has been examined by a committee of the House about the results of his tour around the world as an "Inspector of Consulates." The office he filled is unknown to the law. It was created on his own motion by the President, with the assistance of Mr. Boutwell, who fell in with the scheme, and gave Dr. Newman a treasury commission to inspect the consuls' accounts, while the President gave him one to examine the consular offices. He drew $5,000 a year while he was away, and had his expenses paid. His commission had expired by the time he reached St. Petersburg on his way home, so he magnanimously travelled the rest of the way at his own expense. He makes some recommendations about the consulates, but it would be clearly unsafe for the committee or anybody else to act on them. Dr. Newman had no fitness for his task either through training or experience. The trip was arranged for him, not to serve the Government, but to serve him. When he started there was, of course, no expectation that he would find a Democratic majority in the House when he came back. If an appropriation for his services were refused, it would be a proper and fitting rebuke of his appointment. When the President and Secretary of the Treasury combine to create offices unknown to the law, and to spend public money in advance of any appropriation, indemnity ought to depend on their selection of some one plainly fitted for the work. The despatch of a statistician like Mr. David A. Wells or General F. A. Walker, or some merchant with long experience of foreign trade, on the errand assigned to Dr. Newman, would probably have resulted in a valuable and instructive report; as it is, all the country gets for its money is scraps of information picked up, no one knows how, by a Methodist minister during a hasty tour.

The negro Whipper, elected a judge by the South Carolina Legislature, and refused a commission by Governor Chamberlain, has been making an exhibition of himself in a speech delivered in the House of Representatives at Columbia. The speech was entirely made up of a denial of all charges against himself and a furious attack upon Governor Chamberlain and the *News and Courier*. He declined to produce any evidence to prove his innocence, because, as he very frankly said, it might be used in court to convict him. He gave a terrible description of Chamberlain's character, and predicted that, if the two men got their deserts, Moses would hereafter be "a saint in heaven," with Chamberlain below "in hell howling." As to the opposition press, he declared that the "very sanctum" of the *News and Courier* "reeks with the foulest corruption," and that the floors of the building, the walls, and the roof that protects them, "were purchased with money wrung illegally from the taxpayers." As to the charge of being a gambler, he admitted that he had been once, but added, "This I place in the past tense." His gambling, it seems, belongs to "the degenerate days of the past, and they are gone for ever." He admitted that the government of South Carolina was not perfect, but reminded his hearers of "the historic fact that there had been errors in all governments." Finally, he attributed the opposition to his selection as judge to Caste, vowed that nothing should prevent his getting hold of his office, and warned "usurpers and traitors" generally of the danger of rousing the "spirit that in the reign of Charles I. unseated the throne, beheaded the king," and so on, and intimated the belief that this spirit was "abroad in the land." Except for the implied threats contained in it, the speech reads like a burlesque of speeches by white politicians "under fire."

A contributor to the *Woman's Journal* chronicles the important fact that the Iowa Legislature is "forging ahead" on the woman question, the Senate having elected one woman for enrolling clerk, one for engrossing clerk, and two as "paper-folders." The House has not done so well, having put only two women in as clerks; but, on the other hand, the nominees for postmaster and assistant-postmaster were also women. Governor Carpenter, too, catching the enthusiasm of the Legislature, has suggested that the success of the experiment of woman suffrage in the Territory of Wyoming, taken together with Centennial and other considerations, seems to make it proper that the people of Iowa should have an opportunity to vote on the pending constitutional amendment extending the suffrage to women. We may venture to suggest in reply, that while women may and no doubt do make very good clerks and postmistresses, the fact that they do is not a very conclusive argument in favor of their having the ballot; and we think the people of Iowa would also do well to consider whether the perpetual introduction of the success of the Wyoming experiment into discussions of woman suffrage has not been a little overdone. Wyoming is a vast territory, about as large as all the New England States and New York together, almost unpopulated, and with hardly any women at all. The notion that thickly populated States with highly complex systems of government are to watch the experiments of Wyoming to find out who they ought to give the suffrage to is really preposterous, and we can only account for the continual reappearance of it as coming from the well-known and irrepressible love of humor which distinguishes all agitators and social reformers.

There has been an immense amount of talk during the week over the failure of the two parties in the Plymouth Church quarrel to call the Mutual Council, but the facts covered up by it are few and simple. Plymouth Church agreed to allow Mrs. Moulton to call whom she pleased, but "protested" against her calling the churches of Drs. Budington and Storrs. Drs. Budington and Storrs hearing of this protest declined to serve, and then Mrs. Moulton refused to go on. The church then declared that it never meant to shut out Drs. Budington and Storrs by its protest if Mrs. Moulton was really bent on having them, to which Mrs. Moulton replied that, in point of fact, the protest had shut them out and had restricted her liberty of choice, and she must decline to proceed. Whereupon the church said that she really never wished to proceed, and Mr. Van Cott, her counsel, advised her to take no further notice of such people, and then Mr. Beecher denounced Mr. Van Cott from the pulpit as an untruthful person, and so on. Mr. Beecher, indeed, seems to have wholly abandoned the silent, patient, Christlike rôle which he played so long, and is now as noisy and bellicose as any of the brethren, and flings charges of perjury and falsehood and fraud about quite freely. He had, in fact, somewhat prepared the public for fatal objections to any mutual council by the announcement some weeks ago that he was not going to be tried by a tribunal of "wolves and foxes," meaning, it was supposed, by these terms any minister who took an unfavorable view of his case. As we pointed out last week, if the absence of bias be necessary to a proper investigation of the case, no denominational tribunal can try it. We are sorry to have to call attention again to a certain want of ingenuousness on Mr. Beecher's part. When, by way of ridiculing Mrs. Moulton's desire to have certain new witnesses examined, he said these, or several of them, had been summoned to appear before the first committee of investigation and had failed to do so, he ought to have mentioned that every member of that committee was selected by himself, and that it conducted its enquiries with closed doors, and that it was, therefore, most natural that witnesses whose testimony would be likely to damage him should be unwilling to go before it.

The feeling of the public about the whole affair we take to be one of utter weariness and disgust; but there is also a widespread opinion that the Congregational body ought, for its own sake, if it can, to investigate the matter thoroughly, hearing *all* witnesses and all kinds of evidence, before some tribunal not made up by Mr. Beecher and Brother Shearman. The "advisory council" which is now about to meet will prove simply another useless *ex-parte* device for disposing of the matter. Nothing *will* dispose of the matter but the examination of every human being who can, or says he can, throw any light upon it, and Mr. Beecher may be assured that the bold, defiant, combative policy is not better *now* than "the policy of silence" was. The time to have turned and fought like a brave man was when Moulton and Tilton summoned him from his prayer-meeting like a culprit. What is needed now is perfect candor and good temper, and the avoidance of all demurrers, or protests, or reservations, or special pleas of any description. Brother Shearman likes these things because he is skilled in their use. But Brother Shearman is a poor counsellor for a man whose reputation is in deadly peril.

The week has been notable in Wall Street for the further advance in United States bonds and other securities known to be safe investments. The rise in United States bonds has been brought about by the purchases of savings-banks, insurance and trust companies, and even discount banks, some of the latter having taken as large an amount as $300,000, and from that down to $50,000. This demand has been supplied for the most part by the German bankers, who have been bringing bonds from London and the German markets. The effect of the bond movement has been to strengthen the gold and foreign-exchange markets, and it is evident that if bonds continue to be ¾ to 1½ per cent. higher here than in Europe, it will soon be necessary to export gold, which is something to be regretted at a time when there is so little gold in the country, and when, in view of the pledge to resume specie payment in 1879, so much is needed. In London there have been no changes of note, money having unexpectedly become dearer early in the week, so that the Bank of England did not feel justified in reducing its rate below 5 per cent.; there has since been another change, and the other London discount houses have done business as low as 3½ per cent. In business affairs there has been much dulness, the unseasonable weather having contributed much to that result. Merchants, it is proper to say, are hopeful in respect to the business of this year, and while they do not look for a large speculative trade, are confident that there will be more done this year than last, and that the profits will be larger. The money market is becoming very easy, and the surplus reserve of the banks is now nearly $15,000,000, with the currency movement still in favor of New York. The gold price for $100 greenbacks has ranged during the week between $88 69 and $88 39.

Mr. Edward Jenkins, the author of 'Ginx's Baby,' and who is actually keeping Mr. Fitzjames Stephen out of Parliament, has written another "work," this time a temperance tale, entitled 'The Devil's Chain,' in which, he says, "his aim is here, as in 'Ginx's Baby,' to exhibit in rude, stern, truthful outlines the full features and proportions of the abuses he would humbly help to remove." The "tale," which has the proportions and pretensions of a novel, appears to be an ineffably silly performance, in which, however, there is no solid objection to Mr. Jenkins's engaging; but there is every objection to the presence of a person whose proper work is the composition of such stories in the legislature of a great and civilized state at a time of great difficulty and perplexity. The Dominion of Canada, we are glad to see, has got rid of him as its "Agent General" in London, by abolishing the office. If he could be removed from Parliament in the same summary fashion it would be a great gain, because his present position has a debauching influence on the imagination of thousands of weak persons of a philanthropic turn all over the Anglo-Saxon world. He helps every day to spread the notion that if a man grows excited and fluent over pauperism and drunkenness, his judgment on all questions of government becomes valuable and instructive. Our civilization is probably in more danger from the Jenkinses and their admirers than from any other one agency.

THE CENTENNIAL BEFORE CONGRESS.

THE *World* has been carrying on a vigorous attack against the Centennial appropriation on the ground of its unconstitutionality—its argument, which is not to be despised, being that Congress, having power to levy taxes "to pay the debts and provide for the common defence and general welfare of the United States," cannot appropriate money in aid of a "private joint-stock company in a particular State"; it cannot do anything it pleases for the "general welfare," otherwise there would be no need of any constitutional restrictions whatever. It will not perhaps avail much to say to a free-trader that this point has been sufficiently settled for the purposes of the Exposition by the long practice of the Government with regard to the protection of national industry. Every student of the tariff is familiar with cases in which taxes have been levied which could only enure to the benefit of a single private manufacturer or a single private corporation, or to that of the people of one State or section, and could only promote the general welfare so remotely and indirectly, if at all, as to be incapable of calculation or appreciation by any legislature. In fact, the protective system has now been so long pursued and acquiesced in, for far-off and shadowy ends, that Congress has become possessed of an amount of discretion, in the construction of the term "general welfare," which, it is useless to deny, easily covers the case of the Exposition. We may regret this, or not, as our political ideas may determine, but the fact remains. The country is at this moment studded over with private corporations which could not exist for six months but for the imposition by the Government of taxes for their benefit on the community at large. Whether the community at large does now or will ever derive any benefit from them, is a question on which there is great and widespread difference of opinion. From many of them the most ardent protectionists admit it does not at present derive any benefit whatever. Those who say it will in these cases derive benefit in the future are mostly prophets, whom it is impossible to refute, and yet on their prophecies an elaborate system of fiscal legislation has been in great part built up and is maintained. There is, in short, no country in the world in which the liberty of judging what does and what does not contribute to the general welfare has been more freely exercised by the legislature than in the United States. The imposition of taxes to help people engaged in a particular trade would, *à fortiori*, justify almost anything else of the kind.

To be sure, Hamilton, while claiming for the term "general welfare" the widest meaning, and making it cover applications of money to "whatever concerns the general interests of learning, of agriculture, of manufactures, and of commerce," makes the qualification "that the object to which an appropriation of money is to be made must be general and not local; its operation extending in fact, or *by possibility*, throughout the Union, and not being confined to a particular spot." But, then, this reserve has little practical value. How can a protective duty on pig-iron be made to benefit States in which there is no iron-ore, coal, or wood? How can a bounty on fish benefit the people of Colorado or Kansas? The fact is that the majority of the protective duties are in their direct benefits thoroughly local, and the possibility of their usefulness to the rest of the country has to be left to the imagination.

It must be remembered, too, that when we admit the United States Government to be the government of a nation, we concede, on general grounds, almost everything the applicants for the Centennial appropriation can desire. Nothing is better settled by long usage than that provision for the "general welfare" of a nation goes far beyond the mere direct protection of life and property, and that it includes a great deal that is simply ornamental, or which, if useful, is only useful through its æsthetic influence on the imagination or on the manners. How do the vastness and architectural beauty of the Capitol contribute to the general welfare, if not in this way? How does the *World* justify the expenditure of the public money on the pictures and statues and mural decoration and tiling and fine furniture of the interior? Why does the American Minister in London or Paris receive a large salary, when his year's work might be done in a week? Why has the President $50,000 a year? Who paid the expense of sailing the *Endeavor* to England and giving her to the British Government? On what principle did the Government entertain King Kalakaua or send the Rev. Dr. Newman on his trip round the world? Where was the constitutional warrant for loading a frigate with corn for the famine-stricken Irish in 1847? The offer of President Monroe to bring Lafayette to this country in a man-of-war, and the presentation to him by Congress of $200,000 and a township of land after he came, were neither more nor less than appropriations of the public money to express gratitude; and, if Congress may levy taxes for the mere expression of gratitude or admiration, and this can be called the promotion of the general welfare, it is hard to say what limit there is to its discretion under this head, except such as is imposed by good sense and decency. If the Centennial Association, for instance, private corporation as it is, were to conduct the Exposition in such a manner as to reflect great credit on the country, and to raise it in the estimation of foreign countries, and to stimulate the demand for the products of its trade and industry and inventiveness, and were to come out of the enterprise with loss, where would be the warrant for denying to Congress the right to indemnify it, and what substantial difference is there between protecting it against a probable deficit and making good an actual one?

We opposed the Exposition strongly in the beginning because its beginning was bad. It was started in a State which has more than any other relied on Government aid for all sorts of undertakings, and has done more than any other to confuse the public mind with regard to the proper limits of Government interference. Its promoters asked for Government recognition on the express promise that they were not to seek Government support in money, and almost immediately broke their promise and began to seek it. Had they then got it, we have no doubt that private exertions would have been relaxed, and private and State contributions would have been withheld, and the whole burden have been thrown on Congress, and, Congress having shouldered it, the political cormorants from all parts of the Union would have flocked to Philadelphia for a share in the spoils. Congressmen would have demanded places and privileges for their "henchmen" as the price of their votes, and the party in power would very likely have insisted on turning the whole concern to some account in this year's campaign, and the Exposition, instead of proving a national glory, would have proved a national shame, and the year 1877 would have been passed in investigating and exposing a crop of disgusting "scandals" produced by it. We confess we had doubts, based on the spirit in which the enterprise seemed to have been begun and on the peculiar kind of machinery created by the charter, whether it would under any circumstances be well organized or well executed. Happily, Congress refused to become pecuniarily or otherwise responsible for it, and the managers, finding themselves compelled to rely on themselves, went manfully to work and, in spite of the prevailing business depression, speedily won public confidence. The Exposition now promises to be all that could be desired, and the amount of money raised already for it, by the States and individuals, is so great as to make it as certain as anything of the kind can be that Congress will be called on for no more than the sum now asked for—$1,500,000; and the nation is certainly interested to that extent at least in the success of the undertaking, and is, we think, morally bound to contribute it, for the discredit of failure will now fall not on any one State or city or corporation, but on the Union, and, for reasons too numerous to mention, it is very undesirable that any further discredit should befall us in foreign eyes. The "general welfare" is not made up alone of hogs, and corn, and miles of railroad, and yards of cotton, and tons of iron. Influence and reputation enter into it largely, especially when they magnify principles and ideas which the whole nation has deeply at heart, and which, whatever the practice may be, lie at the foundation of American polity, and do more than anything else to fire the popular imagination and keep it in readiness for great undertakings.

THE GRANGER COLLAPSE.

THE inaugural address by the new Governor of Wisconsin brings out strikingly the great change of feeling on the subject of Granger legislation which has come over the Northwestern States within the past year. The whole question of the validity of the laws passed by Wisconsin and other States is now before the Supreme Court, and will soon be decided by that tribunal finally and without appeal. But whichever way the decision may go as to the principle of the laws, the question whether they have worked well—whether they have benefited the States which have adopted them—is a practical question which must be decided by the Grangers' own experience; and it is this question on which the farmers have now pretty much made up their minds. In Wisconsin, it seems from the Governor's address, experience shows that they have produced the following effects: Railroad construction, even in those parts of the State which most need it, has come to a dead stand-still; no company has paid dividends on its stock for the past two years, and during the past year only four companies have paid interest on their bonds. If this cessation of dividends and interest meant a diversion of the money into the pockets of the oppressed farmer, it might be very well; but unfortunately the farmer is a borrower of money, and the farming States of the West depend for their prosperity upon the stability of their credit; and the Governor declares that while the right to pass Granger laws is one "of vital importance," it cannot at the same time be denied that "the existing laws" have, "either justly or unjustly," "impaired the credit of the State, and of *its individual citizens*, in the commercial and financial centres of the world." With "immense resources undeveloped," and a "consequent need of capital from sources where it is in excess," the people "find capital repelled" by these laws. This the Governor thinks is not strange, inasmuch as everybody outside the State can see, 1st, that capital has been invested in Wisconsin railroads; 2d, that they are in daily use by the people of the State; 3d, that this use pays nothing to the owners; 4th, that the owners are compelled by law to permit the use, and "deprived by law of the right to say what they shall receive for it." He therefore recommends the repeal of the Granger laws, and the substitution for them of provisions against extortion and unjust discrimination, as well as the establishment of "maximum rates" "not greater than those fixed by the companies when they made their own tariffs"—the latter suggestion being, of course, a convenient device for covering the Granger retreat. The laws will, in all probability, be repealed this winter, and as the Grangers ceased some time since to influence general politics, we may fairly be considered to have arrived at the end of the agitation.

A curious parallel might be drawn between the history of the Granger delusion and that of another "new party" which had a brief existence some twenty years ago. Then, as at the time of the beginning of the Granger excitement, there was a strong suspicion, well or ill founded, that the two dominant parties were in a moribund condition, that they had served their purpose and must disappear. The question was, What should take their place? The "American" party came forward and explained to the public that the Catholics and foreigners were at the bottom of all the existing troubles, and if the foreigner could be checked, the ballot-box purified by changes in the naturalization laws, and the Bible kept in the public schools, all would be well, discontent would disappear, and peace and contentment reign throughout the land. Ludicrous as this cry may seem after all that has happened since, and now that we know by bitter experience what was the real trouble, the politicians and demagogues of the day were delighted with it. To some it seemed to offer an opportunity of avoiding the disagreeable subject of slavery, which always led to hard words and sometimes to hard blows, and of uniting the masses in a really popular movement. To others it seemed as if the organization might be captured for the benefit of already existing interests. The American movement spread like wild-fire. In its origin a secret order—very much like the Patrons of Husbandry—it spread from New York into half the cities, towns, and villages throughout the country. The disintegration of the old parties, which was going on twenty years ago, just as it seemed to be three years ago, brought it new recruits every day. Pro-slavery men went into it because they thought they could make it a "Union" party; anti-slavery men, to make it an anti-slavery party. In 1854, the organization had an important influence in the Northern elections, and the year closed with one of the old parties beaten, the other disorganized, and seventy-five members of the new party elected to Congress from the Northern States. When the "council" of the American Order met in Philadelphia, in 1855, this party of two years' growth was supposed to number from a million and a half to two millions of voters, and it held a national convention for the purpose of carrying the Presidential election. The next year it was dead. The politicians who had concocted it were obliged to abandon its convenient shelter, and declare themselves for or against the extension of slavery.

The reason why it died is obvious enough. It was an attempt to get up a party on the basis of a cunning appeal to race prejudice and bigotry in a country the corner-stone of whose institutions and prosperity is toleration and a repression of prejudice. There were then, as there have been since, abuses of the right of suffrage, corruption in elections, and danger to the schools from rich and powerful religious sects. But these abuses were necessary incidents to the system of government and the condition of society, and to attempt to get rid of them by giving up the principles on which the whole system rested, and to expect a national party formed for this purpose to last, was very much like expecting success for a movement among landowners to abolish property in land, or for an agitation among editors for the suppression of the freedom of the press.

The Granger movement differed, of course, from its earlier prototype in many of the surrounding circumstances, but not in principle. What the slavery question was twenty years ago, the questions of "reform"—*i.e.*, of honesty in public life, of the abuse of governmental powers, of the revenue and the currency—are now. When the Granger excitement began, as when the American movement began, there were doubts as to the permanence of either of the dominant parties, and, as in the earlier case, a large number of ingenious and fertile minds at once busied themselves with seeing whether they could find out what move public opinion would make next. It must be confessed that, in the more recent case, they made what at first seemed a better hit than their predecessors had done. The railroad system of the country was overrun with abuses which had made a great noise, and the farming population of the West were interested in reforming these abuses, as a well-managed railroad system was necessary for the transportation of agricultural products. These were the materials to work upon. By inflaming the cupidity of the farmer and making him believe that the railroads were despoiling him, a new party would be formed which would have "all the elements of success." Republicans would come into it because it was a "reform" party, Democrats because it was a "free-trade" party, the farmers because it was a farmers' party. A taking confusion between *meum* and *tuum* was introduced now to serve the same purpose that an appeal to bigotry and prejudice had done before.

Just as before, it was announced that the two old parties were practically dead; that there was a great rising of the people; that a "new era" of purification and reform had set in. Granges spread through State after State, and in many State governments the Republican and Democratic parties ceased for the time to have any existence. The movement was represented to be directed against tyranny and oppression, and the "absentee" railroad owner was made to play very much the same part in the later, that the foreigner and the Catholic Church had been made to play in the earlier craze. Most of the leading newspapers had a good word to say for the movement as being, whether founded in reason or not, at any rate in "the right direction," or, in other words, likely to result in the breaking-up of the old parties. The move-

ment continued to spread until it numbered voters by the hundred thousand. It owned judges, legislatures, and Congressmen. And now it, too, is dead.

Our readers will, we believe, bear us out in saying that we have always predicted this result from the time when the new movement first showed its real character. We did so not because a movement against railroad abuses was at all distasteful to us, but because we have never believed that a movement would succeed in America which was really directed, not against abuses, but against the rights of property. That a particular class in the community would, under cover of a vague cry about oppression and wrongs, the exact nature of which they were never able to state clearly, be long allowed to masquerade as reformers for the purpose of making a living at their neighbors' expense, we have always had too high an opinion of American honesty and common sense to suppose. When the Grangers had once proclaimed that their object was to "fix rates," or, in other words, to declare by law what proportion of the market value of services they themselves should pay, and that they would not be bound by the terms of their contracts, it was perfectly clear that the Granger movement was rank communism, and its success in this country was against all reason and experience.

At the time when the Granger fury was at its height, those who endeavored to expose its fallacies received a great deal of advice from persons who felt it their duty to "labor" with all doubters, and to show them that a great movement was really on foot and was going to "revolutionize the country." These instructors of the public now maintain a judicious silence, and apparently have entirely forgotten the fearful perils which "watered stock" and railroad "combinations" and "pools" and "consolidation" and "Tom" Scott and Vanderbilt were going to bring in their train. The State, they assured us, must either absorb the railroads or the railroads would absorb the State. Unless we all became Grangers, this was the inevitable end to which we were tending. We trust that the collapse of the Granger movement will be a warning to all who shared these gloomy apprehensions, and who tried to persuade themselves and their neighbors that the way to remedy them was to plunder the railroad companies. When another attempt is made to "revolutionize the country," or to break up the old parties, we trust they will ask themselves, not how many votes the new movement probably numbers, but whether it has a solid reason for existence; whether the arguments of its supporters are true, or mere hollow imitations of reasoning; whether the grievances against which it is directed really exist, and whether, if they do, the movement will remedy or merely increase them; and, finally, whether the character of the men who advocate the new ideas is solid or flimsy; whether they are men who can defend the stand they have taken by their intelligence and reputations, or whether they are mere howling demagogues, emitting sound and fury and nothing more. If they cannot satisfy themselves on these points, we strongly advise them to let the movement rage, and to believe that honesty and good sense will outlive it, no matter how many States it may carry.

GIRTON COLLEGE.

JANUARY 16, 1876.

THE first question put by English people to an American student at Girton College is: "Why have you left your own country, where public opinion is so advanced on the question of female education, and where women's colleges are many, to come here?" The answer we might give is that the existing women's colleges in the United States are little more than high-schools, whose status is undefined, whose degrees, when won, mean little or nothing to the public, and whose domestic economy is usually so narrow, and their discipline so onerous, that women accustomed to refined and easy modes of life are unwilling to enter them. Girton College, for the first time in the educational history of England or America, brings women into direct competition with men, under the auspices of an institution of high character and wide reputation, and thus attracts to itself the best young Englishwomen; while the traditions of social refinement and domestic comfort which the college shares with the university of which it is a dependency, make a sojourn within its gates possible and delightful to the most fastidious.

For many years a large circle of earnest women in England have longed for a change in the education of their sex. Their views of what the ultimate system of female education might be did not, perhaps, always agree. To most of them it eventually became clear that women could only be fairly tested by the educational standard and methods which the experience of ages had shaped for men. "Let us move the stagnant waters," they said, "and the stream must find its true channel." The first answer to their prayers and efforts was the admission of girls, in 1865, to the Cambridge and Oxford Local Examinations for persons under eighteen years of age. The effect of this extension was immediately felt in all private schools, and also in the home training of girls. It introduced for women the era of definite and thorough elementary training. The best private schools are now organized with a view to sending up their pupils to these examinations, and many girls of the best families have been prepared at home and have passed. At first, the names of girls were not published in the class-lists. Now, it is optional with the candidate whether her name shall be published or not. The next step in the movement was the institution, in 1869, of the Cambridge Higher Local Examination for Women (since 1873 for men and women) over eighteen years of age. Finally, it was thought feasible to claim for women the supreme privilege of admission to the regular examinations of the University of Cambridge.

In 1869, a house was hired at Hitchin, about twenty miles from Cambridge. Some of the best tutors of Cambridge, who were interested in the proposed experiment, promised to give the benefit of their tuition, at no small sacrifice of time and comfort. In October, 1869, six women came together at Hitchin and entered upon their new and arduous undertaking. They were mostly ignorant even of the elements of classics and mathematics, and among their instructors there was no one who could well appreciate their peculiar position. Senior wranglers lectured on conics to students who did not know the symbols of algebra or the first propositions of Euclid, and girls who had just learnt the Greek alphabet were led into the mazes of Platonic philosophy. After a year of desperate, struggling work, the feeble band went up to Cambridge for the "Little-Go," still doubtful whether the university examiners would receive their papers. This crisis was successfully passed, and, three years later, one of the original students was examined in the papers set for the mathematical Tripos, and took her place high in the second class of mathematical honors. In February, 1873, two others took classical honors, Miss Cook, of St. Andrews, sending in the best philosophical papers of the year—an achievement which would have earned a college fellowship for her if she had been a male student of the university. Meanwhile, a field of sixteen acres was purchased in the parish of Girton, about two miles from Cambridge, and a college-building, fitted to accommodate twenty-one students, was erected. This building is one side of a proposed quadrangle. The funds required for it were raised by loans on mortgage and by public subscription. While the building was in progress, undergraduates and dons made it the favorite goal of their afternoon ramble, and many a brick was laid by these as a token of their goodwill. In 1872, the institution was incorporated under the name of Girton College. In October, 1873, the occupation of the new building began; and since then the interest of Cambridge in her foster-child has been more generous than ever.

It is needless to dwell upon the course of study at Girton, for it is simply identical with the university course. All university regulations as to the previous examinations and as to terms of residence are observed. The regular examinations take place at Girton on the day and at the hour when the students of the university take their places in the Senate-House. A Master of Arts comes out to Girton to superintend honor examinations, the sealed package of examination-papers in his pocket; and the allotted time for each paper is scrupulously observed. In every case, the papers containing the candidates' answers are immediately folded, at the close of the examination, and forwarded to the university examiners, who compare them with the men's papers, and report, formally, to the Mistress of Girton College the position which each candidate deserves upon the class-lists. After final examinations, the college ratifies to each student the decision of the examiners by what is called a *degree certificate*. Of course, as Girton is not incorporated in the university, the names of successful candidates do not appear upon the lists. It need not be said that the highest aspiration of Girton is incorporation in the university; but these hopes it scarcely yet dares to breathe audibly.

The only peculiarity in the methods of study at Girton is dependence upon the lecturers of the university for tuition. Hitherto this has never been felt as a disadvantage. The best "coaches" of Cambridge have

cheerfully sacrificed their afternoon hours, usually so jealously guarded for purposes of recreation, to lecture at Girton, and have expressed pleasure in the contact with the fresh, enthusiastic minds they found there. For nearly two years the college had the benefit of a resident classical tutor, one of its own graduates, and for three terms of a resident lecturer in mathematics and natural science, also a graduate. Private circumstances have now caused the withdrawal of these ladies from the college staff. How the tuition of the college will ultimately be organized it is hard to say. Its friends can only hope that the future has in store honors for Girton students which will qualify them as first-class tutors, and funds for the college which will enable it to offer inducements adequate to secure the permanent services of such tutors, whether its own graduates or those of other colleges. The arrangements for lecturers have hitherto been made by the Mistress, who holds a position corresponding to that of the Master of a Cambridge college. Since the resignation of this office by Miss Emily Davies last June, the responsibility of these arrangements has, I believe, been transferred to a board of lecturers. Up to the expiration of this last Michaelmas term, seven students have taken honors, none as yet higher than second-class. For a first-class graduate, Girton must probably wait until her students come prepared by the careful training which boys receive from early childhood. Four students have also passed the general examinations for the ordinary degree of B.A., one of them, last June, at the head of the list.

A confusion has often occurred between Merton College (now Newnham Hall) at Cambridge and Girton, somewhat to the disadvantage of the latter. Merton was originally established as a mere boarding-house for women desirous of preparing themselves for the Cambridge higher local examinations. No entrance examination, such as that which at Girton ensures the possession of a good English education, is enforced at Merton. Latterly, its students have been examined in the papers set for the Triposes, as at Girton ; but Merton does not require its students, as Girton does, to pass the previous examination, nor to observe the university rules as to the terms of residence. For instance, a student may pass an examination for classical honors five or six years after entering Newnham Hall ; whereas a Girton student must take her examination according to university regulations in her twelfth term of residence. Owing to this laxer constitution, Newnham Hall has more students than Girton ; but Girton's rigid observance of rules is the silent assertion of its worthiness to enter the body of the university.

Turning from the constitution of the college to its inmates, one feels it difficult to convey an idea of their vigorous tone without arousing in the imagination of American readers a suspicion of the "strong-minded" type, which has become so justly odious. Perhaps one may best indicate how false such an idea of Girton students would be by dwelling on their great unconsciousness of any representative character. They never seem to regard themselves as the exponents of a cause ; there is rarely any reference made among them to their conspicuous position before the eyes of the public. They are simple-hearted English girls and women, doing work for its own sake, spontaneously and with pleasure, without any of that morbid craving for recognition which is so frequently obtrusive in women's work. About half of the girls look forward to being teachers ; not governesses, but teachers and head-mistresses in schools. The great endowed schools for girls, the schemes for which were framed by the Endowed-Schools Commission, and are now being perfected by the Commissioners of Charity, will doubtless look to Girton for their head-mistresses, while, in turn, they will prepare students for her. At one of these schools—St. Paul's, London—£700 a year is provided for girls from the school to pursue their education at institutions of superior learning ; and at least a large share of this will naturally be spent at Girton. Other schemes have similar provisions. The other half of the students at Girton are working without reference to any special career.

Although the students now come somewhat better prepared, and the kind of "coaching" they need is now better understood than when the college was started, aspirants for honors still labor under a great pressure, except in cases of remarkable natural talent. Notwithstanding this, there has been but one instance of a student's health being injured by work, and that was the case of a young girl who entered at the minimum age and was led by her ardor to squander her strength. Several cases of nervous prostration have been materially benefited. Those students whose health is feeble usually limit their aspirations to taking the ordinary degree, which any girl of medium intelligence can obtain without onerous exertion, as the standard of attainments requisite to take a degree *without honors* at Cambridge is lower than that of the principal American men's colleges. What greatly facilitates an English college course for women is the absence of any system of marking at recitations. This allows a student, whenever she is temporarily out of sorts, to fall below her average of work, or miss her lectures entirely if necessary, with the knowledge that she can redeem the lost time afterward. Another feature of Girton life, while it is a condition of first-class work, appears to me also a great safeguard to the nervous, and therefore to the general health of students : I mean the opportunity which each student possesses of perfect privacy in her own apartments. A bedroom and a study, or one large room combining the two uses, is set apart for each student ; and as there are never more than five students on a corridor, there is never such a noise outside the doors as to cause disturbance. This arrangement forms a marked contrast to the provision at Vassar, for instance, where five students have only three bedrooms and one study together.

The internal discipline at Girton is as slight as possible. Students are required to enter their names on the marking-roll three times daily, and to be present at lectures, unless especially excused by the Mistress. They must not accept evening invitations more than once a week ; they must not receive visits from gentlemen in their rooms ; and they must always be within the college gates at 11 P.M. Within these limitations they study, walk, ride on horseback, play cricket and their favorite "fives," without let or hindrance. The student's day begins about 7 A.M. At 8 o'clock, prayers are read in one of the lecture-rooms. Between 8.15 and 9, breakfast is on the table. After breakfast, the morning hours are devoted to study, which is entirely done in the private rooms. As there is, as yet, no proper library-building, the small though choice collection of books that the college owns is kept provisionally in one of the three lecture-rooms. This is, of course, frequently occupied by lecturers, and books of reference are therefore carried off by students to their studies when needed. These studies are cheerful, airy rooms, enlivened with photographs and engravings, flower-pots in the windows, Turkish rugs, book-shelves, etc. In each of them a big table, loaded with papers and text-books, denotes the essential character of the apartment. Luncheon is spread between 12 M. and 3 P.M., but it is mostly about one o'clock that the students come in for a light repast, of which the rich, sweet milk, abundantly supplied, is an important part. After luncheon some hearty exercise is the general desire. Many of the students go off in pairs for an hour's rapid walk—in springtime or early autumn over the fields, through hedge and ditch ; in winter, when Cambridgeshire fields are half-flooded, along the highways. Like most English people, Girton girls are ardent lovers of nature, and as soon as spring stirs in the meadows a basket or pail is carried on every student's arm, and comes back from the ramble filled with entomological or botanical treasures. If the weather is bad, or if it is necessary to condense a great deal of exercise into a few minutes, a Bloomer suit is put on, and recourse is had to the gymnasium. This gymnasium is a covered court, separated from the college building, and has been erected by the students themselves. It is still destitute of gymnastic apparatus, and is mostly used for "fives," a game played with bat and ball, and resembling tennis. In the spring and autumn, lawn-tennis or cricket is preferred to exercise in the gymnasium. These games are played on the grass plots near the college building. The *entourage* of the building, by the way, is rather dreary. The land belonging to the college is mostly let to a neighboring farmer, and the portion reserved immediately around the college is only provisionally laid out, and almost destitute of trees.

Most of the lectures occur in the afternoon. A student does not have, on an average, more than one lecture a day. The variety of subjects which are pursued renders the number of those who attend each course of lectures very small, often only one person. At these lectures the lecturer reviews the work done by each student since the last lecture, whether mathematical problems, Greek and Latin compositions, or answers to papers of miscellaneous questions on the subject of study. Any questions which have occurred to the student are answered. Then the lecturer starts off on his lecture proper, usually choosing portions of the subject or methods of treatment which are not found in the class-books in use. Those students who have not taken exercise before their lecture go out after it. In the Michaelmas and May terms many of the students get a ride on horseback, in parties of two and three, before dinner, which is at six o'clock. This meal is always a specimen of good, plain English cooking—abounding in roast joints and puddings. After dinner, dressing-gowns are donned and tresses unbound. Sometimes a little music, college-songs in chorus, or a country-dance intervenes. Then the nocturnal labors of the students begin. There is always a break of thirty minutes or an hour, caused by the appearance of tea, coffee, or cocoa, which innocent beverages are brought to the students' rooms by the college servants before nine o'clock, or pre-

pared by the students themselves over their open fires at a later hour. This is the moment when hospitality is most practised. One student invites several to her room, and these gatherings take the place of the men's "wines." Many are asleep at 10.30. Others burn the midnight oil.

On Sundays most of the Girtonians attend both morning and afternoon service in Cambridge, lunching between at a lady's reading-room to which they have access, and where light refreshments are to be found. The services at the little parish church of Girton, half a mile from the college, are very drowsy, and seldom withhold the students from the fine services in Cambridge, specially attractive among which are the afternoon sermon in the University Church, always by some distinguished preacher, and the choral service afterward at King's College Chapel.

Cambridge is often visited during the week also by the Girton students, either to see friends or for the purposes of their simple shopping. At different times, again, students have gone into Cambridge regularly to attend professors' lectures which happened to be open to women, or courses of lectures (called the Cambridge lectures for women) similar in character to the college lectures above described, and gotten up in connection with the Cambridge Local Examination and Merton College. Once in a while, the students devote an evening to theatricals, a debate, or a Shakspere reading; but it is rare that all can unite to give up an entire evening to amusement. About once a year the Mistress gives an evening "at home" to the friends of the college from Cambridge. Some guests also come from London and elsewhere, and it is always a bright, pleasant occasion. The college has never been rich enough to afford a chapel, and the only religious exercises are family prayers, conducted by the Mistress, which it is optional with the students to attend. Girton rather labors under the reputation of a bias towards free thought, but fully two-thirds of the students have been staunch Churchwomen. The dress and manners of students at Girton are those of English girls of their class—*i.e.*, the professional and upper-middle. If one student threatens some eccentricity, there is a general outcry by the others. "Do not let us make too many experiments at once," they often say. They are asserting their capacity for that thorough education which is the foundation of practical effort in every department of life, and, if this experiment succeeds, they are confident that the practical life of women will so expand as to burst the gilded shackles of luxury and fashion by which it is now confined. Girton students, moreover, are as a rule much too true to their English nationality to profess any contempt for marriage. Some of them, however, seem formed for a purely scientific life, and one can scarcely imagine them hampered by domestic ties. There is considerable discussion among the students as to the proper fields of activity for women in after-life. One article of faith, however, has brought all these busy girls together: the conviction that, whether as scientific specialists, as teachers of the young, as business-women, or in a purely domestic sphere, the liberal education which they are gaining must ever be the best preparation for their duties. Such an education is not intended for all women, any more than for all men. To the superior minds of either sex it must be the best succor in adversity, the truest luxury in prosperity.

ENGLAND.—THE NEW PEERS.

LONDON, January 3, 1876.

THE Parliament of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland is composed of four constituent elements—the King or Queen, and the three Estates of the realm, viz., the Lords Spiritual, the Lords Temporal, and the Commons. These several powers collectively make the laws that are binding upon the subjects of the British Empire. The Lords Spiritual and Temporal constitute the House of Lords—the former consisting of the Archbishops of Canterbury and York and twenty-four Bishops of the Church of England; the latter consisting of—

1 The Prince of Wales,
4 Dukes of the blood-royal,
21 Dukes,
18 Marquises,
111 Earls,
24 Viscounts,
245 Barons,
16 Representative Peers of Scotland,
28 Representative Peers of Ireland,

or 468 in all. There are also 7 ladies who are peeresses in their own right. The House of Commons consists of 658 members, viz., 493 returned by English and Welsh, 60 by Scotch, and 105 by Irish constituencies. The members of the House of Commons, though they varied in the past, have remained stationary at the mystical number of 658 since the union with Ireland at the close of the last century, and this stationariness has survived notwithstanding the numerous, and almost fundamental, alterations which have been made in the distribution of the electoral franchise by the several reform acts which have been passed during the century. There is no reason why 658 should be selected rather than any other fancy number. Thirty or forty more or thirty or forty fewer members of Parliament would not make any perceptible difference either in the quality or quantity of the legislative or deliberative acts performed by this body. But the whole distribution of political power in this country is full of curiosities and anomalies, grown out of tradition or compromise, and fostered by the conservative instincts of a slowly-moving population. Probably 658 is as good as any other fancy number, and does its work with a sort of clumsy method that suits the genius of the people. The numbers of the House of Lords are not restricted. Peerages become dormant from time to time, or die out, but the gaps made by these natural processes are more than filled up by new creations and promotions from a lower to a higher rank. During the reign of Queen Victoria no fewer than 146 creations or promotions in the House of Lords have been made. Each Prime Minister seems to feel bound to tap the fountain of honor in favor of his supporters at the beginning, in the middle, or at the end of his tenure of office. When Lord Melbourne was Prime Minister, at the commencement of the Queen's reign, a couple of dozen peerages were authorized. Sir Robert Peel, between 1842 and 1846, was satisfied with four. Lord Russell, between 1847 and 1851, and again in 1866, created twenty; Lord Palmerston, fourteen; Lord Derby, ten. Mr. Gladstone, feeling the weakness of his party in the upper House, advised the creation of no less than forty peers in six years, and Mr. Disraeli, not to be outdone, has, in the brief periods of his two reigns in 1868 and 1874-5, created seventeen, and within the last few days he has promoted three of his supporters and elevated four more—giving him a round total of four-and-twenty in three years, or an average of eight a year. But among his four-and-twenty there are no less than three dukes, and no Prime Minister except Mr. Disraeli has ever managed more than two. Few, indeed, have ventured to aspire above a plurality of viscounts.

New creations are intelligible enough to any British-born subject. In a country in which position in society is so highly valued as it is in this country, entrance into and acceptance by the old hereditary nobility of Great Britain are obvious objects of ambition. What men desire, and still more what women desire, when they have acquired the necessities and comforts of life, is consideration from and power over others. A title, even the humblest kind of title, say a knighthood, is a stepping-stone towards the realization of their desires. But a knighthood is a poor thing after all. It confers the title of "Lady" upon your wife or widow, but it does not help your children. As soon, therefore, as a man is made a knight, he aspires, if he has a family, to become a baronet, and then the title descends to his eldest son, and so on through the generations which succeed him. But this, though a hereditary title, does not bring him within the hereditary peerage. A baronetcy does not give a man a seat in Parliament, and it does very little for his younger children. It gives them a sort of shadowy precedence at a dinner-table among a lot of commoners, and this shadowy precedence the sons and daughters of baronets are not slow to exact. But it does not give them either power or consideration. A barony is a very different thing. A baron is an august being. He is an hereditary peer of the realm, whose blood is ennobled, and whose dignities can be lost only by attainder or taken away by act of Parliament. He cannot sit in the House of Commons, but he has a seat in the House of Lords, which descends to his eldest son. He has precedence over all commoners and baronets and knights and privy-councillors who are not ennobled. He is, in virtue of his dignity, one of the king's councillors, and an hereditary member of the highest judicial body in the country. His wife shares his titles and honors with him, and their sons and daughters are distinguished from the herd whom their parents have left behind by courtesy-titles of "Honorable" added to their names. Their descendants, however, do not remain in the ranks of the nobility, as they do abroad. They fall back into the gregarious commons, and become the simple "Mr." and "Miss" of domestic life.

To be thus raised above your fellows into what most people consider a higher sphere of social existence is, if not a laudable, at least an intelligible, desire. What is not quite so intelligible is the desire for promotion in this higher sphere. Promotion in the army, or the navy, or the civil service means higher pay and more interesting and important and responsible work. Promotion in the peerage, if it means anything at all, means the

reverse of this. Why, for instance, should the present Lord President of the Council, the Duke of Richmond, desire to add a new barren dukedom to his name? He is Duke of Richmond in the peerage of England, Duke of Lennox in the peerage of Scotland, and Duc d'Aubigny in the peerage of France. He is Earl of a good many places, and Baron of many more. But his taste for titles is insatiable, and last week he was gazetted Duke of Gordon. He may wear his weight of dukedoms like a flower, but he cannot fit four rows of strawberry-leaves into his coronet; and, if he did, he and his coronet would look supremely ridiculous. Malignant rumor says he has persuaded the Prime Minister to advise the Crown to make him Duke of Gordon in order to snub the young Marquis of Huntly, who, as the lineal descendant of the old Dukes of Gordon, naturally aspired to see the dignity revived for him. Unfortunately, however, for his chances with the present Tory Government, Lord Huntly is Liberal—almost Radical—in politics, and actively hostile to the present administration. This is the only explanation hitherto vouchsafed of the Duke of Richmond's proceedings. The motive is contemptible if it be the true one. But Lord Huntly may console himself, if he cares to do so, by comparing his pedigree with that of the cuckoo duke who has entered into his nest. For, while his ancestry is lost in the clouds of antiquity which obscure the times anterior to Malcolm Canmore, the cuckoo duke descends from one of Charles the Second's bastards, who was born two trumpery centuries ago. Why, again, should the Earl of Abergavenny—the descendant of the Nevilles, one of England's oldest families—ask a Jew Prime Minister to enable him to sink the earldom which has been for generations in his family, and the barony which his ancestors have held since 1450, in a brand-new marquisate of 1876? It is easy enough to see why the Jew Prime Minister granted his request. No one has done more work behind the scenes, of a kind that peers do not generally do, for the party now in office than the "Tory Bloodhound," as the present representative of the Nevilles is called among his friends. But even the staunchest bloodhound looks for fondling and for supper when his work is done. Accordingly, he has got his promotion. He is entitled to be addressed by the Crown as "our right trusty and entirely beloved cousin"; to hear his eldest son called "Viscount," and the rest of his sons called "Lords"; and to take precedence over all the earls. He will probably rest and be thankful now, and leave the obscurer forms of party tactics to the humbler orders of the Tory peerage.

The thirst for such promotions in the peerage is difficult to understand by those who are not of it. But for many of that distinguished body all interest in politics and the political life is concentrated in that portion of the official gazette which narrates the new promotions. The explanation perhaps may be found in the principle that the steps of the social ladder are infinite in number, and every Englishman wishes to fix his foot upon the one immediately above him. Well, it is an innocent, if not a noble, ambition. It does not lead to crime like the desire for wealth, and it does not lead to universal misery like the desire for glory.

And for what services, you may ask, are these much-coveted honors granted? For an answer I must refer you to Mr. Disraeli. Speaking of Pitt's peerages, he says: "He created a plebeian aristocracy. He made peers of second-rate squires and fat graziers. He caught them in the alleys of Lombard Street, and clutched them in the counting-houses of Cornhill." But this description is but partly true. In the old time, when we were a military nation, peerages were granted for great services to the state. The conqueror of Blenheim was not a second-rate squire nor a fat grazier, and neither Wellington nor Nelson hailed from Lombard Street or Cornhill. In 1858, a man from one of the distant Hebrides was made Lord Clyde for distinguished service in the Crimea and in India, and even as late as 1868 General Napier took his title from the Abyssinian campaign. Literary services have from time to time been honored by a patent of nobility, and every Minister takes at least one peer out of the ranks of the legal profession. "Second-rate squires and fat graziers," no doubt, are raised to the peerage more frequently than men of any other class when Mr. Disraeli's friends hold office. But they generally do some party work before they earn their elevation; and it cannot be denied that devotion to one of the two parties in the state is the road that leads most certainly and most easily to the peerage. Given wealth enough to support the title, and a reasonably old pedigree, and sometimes even without the latter, a man can buy his way into the House of Lords. But he must begin early, and he must spend profusely, and he must do it wisely, to promote the true interests of the party of his choice. If he does this long enough, and has the education and cultivation essential to the dignity of the position, he will have bad luck if he does not die ennobled; and to this proud object of ambition there are not a few English gentlemen and ladies who will devote their lives.

Correspondence.

ART-INSTRUCTION IN MASSACHUSETTS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In an article, which appeared in the *Nation* of December 30, the system of art-instruction in Massachusetts is judged by a set of heliotype reproductions of drawings selected from State and city schools (published in the last report of the Drawing Committee), and condemned on the ground that it is essentially unæsthetic. As purely æsthetic culture is not its aim, how can it be fairly criticised for its non-æsthetic character? The value of any system of instruction depends wholly upon its fitness as means to a given end; wherefore, in judging it, we should consider what it is intended to accomplish, and not what we think it ought to accomplish. The latter course is, however, taken in the article in question, nor is the adverse judgment pronounced at all mitigated by the proof furnished in certain drawings from the high-schools and evening schools that æsthetic culture is attempted in them to a necessarily limited degree; nor by the expression in the text of the report of an earnest desire that casts and flat copies of the highest order should be multiplied in the upper schools, so that the industrial character of the authorized instruction given may there be elevated and refined. The writer criticises the system as if it had been framed to give an artistic training to the children in the public schools. He would have them taught as if they were pupils in so many art-schools, while the State wishes to teach them drawing as reading is taught, not for the purpose of making them professional readers, but to give every one the common and valuable power of reading. He says that "art-instruction is properly directed towards æsthetic culture alone"; the State says that to teach any subject in the public schools in such a manner as would be of advantage to the few would be directly contrary to the purposes for which they are established, and to attempt, even if it were possible, a directly artistic training, would be to sacrifice the advantage of the many, who would never become artists, for the benefit of a few exceptionally gifted individuals.

The aims of the State, being what they are, can only be compassed by means which, were they other than they are, would be totally inadequate. What we wish to show is that those used are adapted to do the work intended, and, being so, are worthy of commendation. The industrial drawing taught under the present system is such as every one, whatever his occupation, will be the better for. It is elementary, not special, and has the merit of being of such a character that the ordinary school-teacher can teach it in class-rooms of an ordinary description. On the contrary, a system of artistic and æsthetic instruction could not be carried on by regular teachers, but would necessitate the employment of special instructors at an enormous cost (could they be found in sufficient numbers to teach in the common-schools of even one city) and a complete change in the lighting of rooms and the arrangement of desks.

That drawing of some kind should be taught in the public schools is evident to all those who admit that a manufacturing State like Massachusetts cannot afford to neglect its interests so far as to do without that which is calculated to develop taste and skill, and thus bear directly upon improvement in industrial design. This being granted, it follows that the method of teaching it must be inexpensive and practical, and this we assert the Massachusetts system to be. Starting with the conviction that every one can learn to draw common objects, it treats drawing in the lower schools as a kind of writing, and, wishing to train the eyes and hands of children to attainable habits of accuracy, it bases its elementary instruction upon geometry, because the correctness or incorrectness of geometrical drawings can be mathematically demonstrated. It awakens the first idea of design in the young mind by teaching children to combine simple geometrical forms into patterns. This arouses their interest in the subject. The designs produced may be very inartistic, but in producing them the child's interest has been awakened. He has discovered that out of several units he can form a systematic whole, and when he is subsequently shown that plant-forms, used in the same way and treated according to the laws of growth, will produce still higher units, his mind is widened and he is already on the road to better things.

Having tried to make designs himself, he will begin to observe designs upon objects around him. These will appear to him in a new light, and as his taste improves he will learn to distinguish between the good and the bad in pattern and color. This he will be helped to do in the high-school, where, with the help of good examples, he will pursue his studies under a special instructor who has studied the subject of design and can explain its principles. There also his love for the beautiful will be in a measure culti-

vated by means of antique and mediæval statues and bas-reliefs and ornament, and by carefully-selected flat copies. When he leaves school and takes up some trade or profession, he will find himself able to draw any object with tolerable accuracy, he will have some idea of design, and some slight degree of æsthetic culture. All that the State expected that the authorized system of instruction would do for him, and all that it pretended to do for him, has been therefore done, and though the end thus reached be considered unworthy by some persons, they should not judge what is done as if the aim were to do what they think ought to be done.

In conclusion, we would point out that the system introduced into Massachusetts by Mr. Walter Smith is not identical with the South-Kensington system, and is not considered to be so by Englishmen who are acquainted with both. In proof of this we quote below from an article in the *Builder* of Oct. 9, 1875, written by Mr. E. R. Robson, Architect of the London School Board, a gentleman well known for his interest in and knowledge of matters connected with education, who, by the advice of the authorities at South Kensington, when they were requested to counsel the School Board as to how drawing should be taught in the London schools, came to this country to hear what Mr. Walter Smith had to say on the subject :

"In the struggle after science, good workmanship, and extended manufactures (writes Mr. Robson), one weak point had been keenly felt. America is profoundly ignorant of art. Further, she knows so much as to know her ignorance in this respect. Competition in all manufactures requiring artistic design (and what manufacture does not ?) must result in failure if wanting in this initial necessity. Efforts are, therefore, now being made in the direction of art-education *with a purpose*. This purpose is no other than the creation of a national school of designers, who at all points should be able to cope successfully with the artists of Vienna, Paris, and London. The movement has its beginning in Boston, where, by great good fortune, one of the best English instructors in elementary design, Mr. Walter Smith, has been induced to settle. It is not generally known that our system of schools of art, as carried on under the South-Kensington 'régime,' is merely a road which leads nowhere, because the ultimate aim and goal of all drawing and modelling, viz., the knowledge of the art of designing, is not taught. The advent of Mr. Poynter to South Kensington may probably inaugurate a new era for us. But the evil is radical, and arises from a bad system of teaching. Meantime, that drawing and designing can be taught at one and the same time by a skilful teacher, Professor Smith, of Boston, is proving every day."

Your obedient servant, VIGIL.

BOSTON, January, 1876.

[Our judgment of the system of art-instruction in Massachusetts was not based, as the author of the preceding communication asserts, upon the set of heliotype reproductions of drawings published in the last report of the Drawing Committee. Those reproductions, being avowedly selected to show the aims and results of the system, served us as illustrations of its defects, and we criticised them in detail with the express purpose to prevent the bringing of the charge of vagueness against our strictures. The defence of the system leads to the following dilemma : If these reproductions fairly exhibit, as we may suppose, the tendency and aim of the system, that system is, even for the accomplishment of its professed object, essentially defective. If they do not fairly exhibit its tendency and aim, the system, by its own showing, is a failure. The point of our objection to the system is by no means "that its aim is not purely æsthetic," or that it does not attempt "a directly artistic training," but that, proposing to teach drawing with especial reference to design for industrial purposes, its methods are ill-adapted to the end in view, and that this end is but one, and not the chief, end of instruction in drawing. No system of instruction in other than purely mechanical drawing, no system of drawing which contemplates design as an end, is good unless its prime and constant object be to train the eye and the hand so as to become the skilled instruments of expression—in other words, instruments for the expression of individual thought, feeling, and fancy. Among the first and essential processes of this training is the education of the powers of observation and delineation of natural objects. It is a sufficient condemnation of the Massachusetts system that it practically pays no attention to the careful study and delineation of nature. Not one of the examples selected for reproduction in the report is of a natural object. In the exhibition last year of many thousand drawings from the schools in Massachusetts, there were few, if any, drawings direct from nature, but, in their stead, elaborate and in part skilfully executed copies from chromolithographs of flowers!

Good design for industrial purposes is not likely to be the result of a system from which the study of nature is omitted, and much less anything that in a proper sense deserves the name of art.—ED. NATION.]

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION :

SIR : Several of the artists of Boston who have read the article on "Art-Instruction in Massachusetts," published in the *Nation* of 30th December last, desire me to express their surprise and thanks for the article. Surprise, that any one should dare to call in question the system of art-education as established in this great State by Mr. Walter Smith ; and thanks, that you published it.

We do hope that the author of that article will go through the bill of fare as set forth by Mr. Smith, and show in the columns of your (may I say influential?) journal how devoid of all true nourishment it is, and how much it fails to meet a serious and great demand for the best art-instruction in this as well as in other States of the Union. In the midst of so much muddle about art-education and the crying need of competent instructors, it seems almost useless to offer a protest against the present system, or to set forth the simple, easily-satisfied demands of those who need above all others lessons in art.

Very respectfully yours,

A SCULPTOR.

64 BOYLSTON STREET, BOSTON, MASS., Jan. 22, 1876.

COLONEL FORNEY AND HIS MISSION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION :

SIR : In your number of 13th inst., it is said "the Centennial Commissioners deny having in any way accredited Forney to act for them in Europe." This is inaccurate, in spirit at least, for Mr. Forney did bear with him authority from the Director-General of the Commission and the President of the Centennial Board of Finance to make known in Great Britain, and on the Continent, the character and purposes of the International Exhibition, and this duty he has performed most efficiently and satisfactorily.

When he was about leaving the United States for an absence of a year or more, he offered his services, for the purpose stated above, gratuitously, and they were accepted, and the allowance which has been made him has been confined to the actual expenses incurred by him for our purposes, not including either the cost of travelling or of living.

When he went abroad, the charge against him concerning the Pacific Mail had not been made. When made, we did not think it our duty to become parties to it ; his term of office was drawing near to a close, although it has, by his continuance abroad longer than he expected, been prolonged ; but as he has taken his passage for the 2d prox. for his return, it will cease in a few days.

The results of his mission, and the voluntary testimony borne to the propriety and great good judgment which Mr. Forney showed in its performance by a large number of American travellers abroad of high personal character, satisfy me that no one else could have been more successful than he has been. Whilst I agree with you that "no man ought to speak for us anywhere in times like these who is not above reproach," you no doubt agree with me, should it happen that he has done so, it is hardly just to injure a good cause because of it. Our unavoidable difficulties are great enough. May we not rely on you to aid us in lessening them as they arise, rather than to make them the greater by their aggravation ? It is due to Mr. Forney that I should say that he denies the truth of the charge made against him. He has been faithful to us. I sincerely hope he is so in all things.

Very respectfully,

JNO. WELSH,

President of the Centennial Board of Finance.

PHILADELPHIA, Jan. 15, 1876.

[The denial came to us from a member of the Executive Committee, and was unqualified.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

G. P. PUTNAM'S SONS will publish in the course of the next six months 'A History of Transcendentalism in New England,' by Rev. O. B. Frothingham ; 'A Survey of American Literature,' by Prof. Moses Coit Tyler ; 'Spiritualism and Allied Causes of Nervous Derangement, in their Medical and Medico-legal Relations,' by Prof. Wm. A. Hammond ; 'Cabin and Plantation Songs,' as sung by the Hampton Students ; the Japanese

romance 'Chinshingura,' with thirty full-page illustrations; and fresh volumes in their 'Series of Brief Biographies.'——The Congregational Publishing Society, Boston, have in press 'The Arabs and the Turks,' their origin, history, religion, etc., with chapters on the other non-Christian tribes of Western Asia, by Rev. Edson L. Clark, member of the American Oriental Society; and in preparation a translation, by Dr. Smythe of Andover, of Uhlhorn's 'Conflict of Christianity with Heathenism.'——Harper & Brothers announce 'A Bible Word-Book,' by Prof. Wm. Swinton; 'Early Man in Europe,' by Prof. Charles Rau; and 'Robinson Crusoe's Money,' by David A. Wells, with illustrations by Nast.——Scribner, Armstrong & Co. will publish 'The Chaldean Account of Genesis,' by George Smith; a volume of poems by Prof. John Stuart Blackie; and part third of Dr. Stanley's 'Letters on the History of the Jewish Church.'——Baker, Davis & Co., Philadelphia, have begun the reissue of 'Zell's Encyclopædia,' and have already published eight parts out of the sixty-four. So far as we have observed, the changes in it to bring it up to date are only such as could be made by alteration of the plates, and generally within the limits of the original article; thus, the results of the past half-decade's explorations in Africa are summed up in two new lines telling of Karl Mauch's supposed discovery of Ophir. Eighteen colored maps from 'Zell's Hand-Atlas of the World' are to be added to the Encyclopædia.——Mr. Charles Nordhoff's remarkable letters from the South to the *Herald* have been collected in a volume and published by D. Appleton & Co., under the title, 'The Cotton States in the Spring and Summer of 1875.' It belongs in the same useful category with the late Mr. Dennett's letters to the *Nation* on 'The South as It Is' (1865–66), and with Mr. Sidney Andrews's 'South since the War' (1866). In his "Preliminary," Mr. Nordhoff gives a striking summary of his conclusions, which will be found most suggestive reading by all who take an interest in politics or in the national welfare.——The readable papers on Florida in *Lippincott's Magazine*, by Mr. Sidney Lanier, now appear as chapters of a well-filled guide-book which deals exhaustively with that State ('Florida: Its Scenery, Climate, and History.' Philadelphia: Lippincott). It is certainly the best of its kind. Much valuable information is given about winter-resorts in other Southern States and about sub-tropical fruit-culture. The appendix also contains a gazetteer of Florida. The illustrations are excellent, and evidently from photographs.——The *Publishers' Weekly* offers a prize of five dollars for the shrewdest answer to the following question (first of several to be put to the trade): "Which are the most salable works in Biography?" Twenty-five titles must be given, in the order of their popularity.——The *Publishers' Circular* (London) shows, in its analytical table of books published in 1875, that works on theology numbered 782—"a very marked sign of recovery [from 1874] although an absolute decrease [from 1873]." The American importations under this head amount to but twenty-five.——Mr. F. W. Christern has received specimen pages and the prospectus of Firmin-Didot's magnificent publication, 'Paris à travers les Ages.' It will be three years in issuing, at the rate of one *livraison* per quarter.——Two acting editions of Tennyson's 'Queen Mary' have been published in America, and a third has been performed in Philadelphia with but little success. Renewed attention has also been drawn to the 'Queen Mary' of Aubrey de Vere. Two old plays by Decker and Webster and Thomas Heywood, affording opportunity for comparison with Mr. Tennyson's drama, have just been reprinted in London by Mr. Pickering, with a "Prefatory Essay on the Relations of the Old and Modern Dramas in this Chapter of History" by Mr. William John Blew. These are 'The Famous History of Sir Thomas Wyatt' and 'If you Know not Me, you Know Nobody; or, The Troubles of Queen Elizabeth.' The latter, we are informed in *Notes and Queries*, has been recently reprinted in Germany.——M. Henri Gausseron has just begun in *Notes and Queries* the publication of a list of English words used by French writers, and missing in Littré's 'Dictionnaire.'

—In an article on minor French novelists in the *Galaxy* for February, Mr. H. James, jr., discusses at some length the writings of M. Gustave Flaubert. Chief among these is of course 'Madame Bovary,' a novel which has had the remarkable success of attaining the reputation with half its readers of being a powerful moral tale, and with the other half of being one of the vilest novels ever written. Mr. James very candidly says that he remembers thinking, on reading 'Madame Bovary' for the first time, that "it would make the most useful of Sunday-school tracts." On the other hand, the book was judicially impeached and prosecuted for immorality; and though the writer was acquitted, the impeachment and prosecution, when we recollect the liberal character of the canons of French criticism, show at least a division of domestic public opinion. Whether a book is really one of the best or one of the worst in the world is rather an important question, and the solution of it which we should feel inclined to offer would be that, in this case, it depended entirely on the age, character, and education of the reader. As a Sunday-school tract, Mr. James would probably now be quite ready to admit, as he seems indeed to imply, the book would be a failure, for the reason that children would discover in it nothing to attract them but the immorality, which for the childish imagination has in all ages and in all races a certain fascination. On the other hand, persons of mature years and real cultivation, who will honestly read 'Madame Bovary' through without skipping the many unnecessary pages, will, we believe, admit in closing the book that they have not only performed a very difficult task, but that they have derived a great deal of information and instruction from it. It is a picture of the consequences of sin, or rather of the consequences of giving rein to the baser propensities of human nature, the most dreary and the most conclusive that we have ever seen. The career of Madame Bovary from the nursery to the grave is the "easy descent" that we all know about theoretically, but generally fail to know practically, except from the experience of our friends or ourselves. As a work of art, besides its manifold defects in construction, our objection to it would be that the fall of Madame Bovary is accomplished with a too logical necessity, and that in real life she would have had a *locus penitentiæ*, at which the devil would have been kept at bay for a time, or rather the reader would have been left in doubt whether he was at bay or not. As M. Flaubert is a realist, it is not a fair reply to this criticism to say that the other way is the true ideal manner of treating the subject. As a whole, the book is a wonderful pyschological study, whatever may be thought of it as a novel.

—*Scribner's* contains an article which deserves the attention of all fencers and persons intending to take part as principals or seconds in affairs of honor. For some reason or other most Anglo-Saxons, when they treat of Gallic peculiarities, social, moral, or intellectual, always discover a disinclination to take Frenchmen seriously, and a positive disposition to look upon the whole tableau of French life as a sort of genteel comedy, got up for the amusement and relaxation of the gloomier races. Of this tendency we see some slight traces in the article of which we have spoken. It is very brightly written, and evidently by some one who has been a good deal in Paris, long enough, too, to have acquired a genuine liking for the people without losing at all his powers of observation. His life, indeed, must have been spent a good deal in the fencing-rooms of Paris, where, as he avers, he has met with more genuine politeness than anywhere else in the world—an observation which will warm the heart of the honest conservative who sighs at the decadence of the duello and the disappearance of the polished manners of the old school. We are sorry to see that the writer explodes a tradition of fencing which has survived duelling in countries where duelling no longer exists, and which has furnished the foundation for many an exciting encounter in many an entrancing novel—the belief that there are "secret blows" possessing for offence magic properties which, once learnt, place the tyro on a level with the most expert swordsman, as, for instance, the "commander's blow" and the "Italian blow." These are, it seems, simplicity itself, and, like a well-known mate at chess, unless the adversary is a fool, cannot be successfully executed. There is one blow, to be sure, which is certain, and that is known as the "gendarme's blow," described in the following manner: "When your adversary is about to attack you, assume a horrified expression of countenance, cast a terrified glance at the horizon *back* of him, shout, 'There come the gendarmes!' As he turns his head to look, run your sword through him, exclaiming as you do so, and this artfully, that the whole sentence may seem to be one ejaculation, 'Let's make haste!'" The writer says, however, that it wrings him to the heart to be obliged to add that judges and juries are not disposed to look upon the gendarme's blow as a legacy of the Chevalier Bayard.

—A journal that has its editor, business manager, and contributors all in the "summer-land," as the future life is sometimes called by the Spiritualists, certainly possesses some advantages over those directed by us who are "in the form," or alive, and who are hampered by the responsibilities of this dark vale. Especially in times like these is this the case, and the enterprising citizen of Boston who, in order to publish a paper, has allied himself with just such partners, who have their names, preceded by the word "spirit," in the advertisement, showed full appreciation of their immunity from the processes of law, from assaults by offended readers, etc., etc. In what court, for instance, could we pursue Spirit L. Judd Pardee, editor-in-chief of the *Voice of Angels, a monthly journal edited and managed by Spirits?* The man "in the form" is amanuensis and publisher; in his announcement about the paper he tells us he is both an impressional and mechanical medium, who sometimes hears the words of his contributors and sometimes sees them as if they were written in a book; "but," he goes on,

"all are written mechanically through my hand—that is to say, I use not a particle of volition, as far as I know." It is not without suffering that he has reached this state of self-abnegation, "for at times," he tells us, who can well believe it, "when the project flashes suddenly across my mind I feel an indescribable, weakening, nauseous, sickening sensation in the region of the stomach—a sort of sinking-down feeling pervades my entire being." As to the paper itself, it needs but little comment. It has long since been noticed in what for distinction must be called earthly periodicals that all the contributors showed a monotonous likeness in their writings, and in this paper it is doubly true. Little "Tunic," James Fisk, jr., and Victoria Margery Wilton McG——y, all show astounding similarity of style. Fisk, for instance, speaks of "harmonizing mankind to the vicissitudes of life on the lower plane of being," and explains his own vicissitudes by saying that he was worked upon by a band of evil spirits, "with as much certainty of bringing about certain business results as a skilful pianist can, by manipulating the keys of a piano, produce sweet music." Unless fame does him injustice, this was not always his manner of speech.

—The late Dr. Francis Gardner, master of the Public Latin School in Boston, deserves to be remembered partly for his immediate contributions to classical scholarship in this country, but more on account of his prolonged term of service as instructor in the first classical school in the country—first in point of time as well as in excellence, for it is coeval with if it does not antedate Harvard College. He became an usher in it in 1831, and for the last twenty-five years was at its head. In this long period the best of Boston's youth, of all classes, came under his strong discipline and were prepared for college; and always, we believe, the Latin-School contingent formed a significant fraction—sometimes a sixth or a fifth—of the Harvard Freshman Class. Mr. Gardner's impress, therefore, was felt not only in his own school but markedly in the higher institution of which it was the principal feeder, since the Boston quota in every class at Harvard is large enough and coherent enough to give tone to the rest, being probably not less than 40 per cent., while the Massachusetts quota is, according to President Eliot's last report, 63 per cent. Probably not less than five hundred pupils were successfully prepared for college by Mr. Gardner, and no doubt a much larger number, who never went to college, have received their finishing education at his hands. When we reflect, with President Eliot, that "high education is hereditary in this country as in all others," Mr. Gardner's intellectual progeny assumes the formidable proportions of physical descent from a single ancestor in a few generations. He has left no other posterity, for he was never married. He had the faults of a rigid disciplinarian, and he was calculated to excite like and dislike about equally among his pupils. Those who got nearest to him knew him and will long remember him as a very kind and even tender-hearted man, whose time was ever at the service of others, and whose example of faithful, unflagging devotion to his calling would have compensated a multitude of defects. His death at the age of sixty-four seems premature, for he had an iron constitution well preserved by gymnastic exercise long after he was past middle life.

—The last number (December) of the *Rivista Europea* is an unusually interesting one. It opens with an article by Maurizio Schiff on "La Fisica nella Filosofia," an inaugural discourse delivered at the beginning of the present scholastic year at the "Instituto di Studii pratici e di perfezionamento" of Florence. Baron Otto Reinsberg von Düringsfeld gives an account of the various Christmas customs now observed in Denmark, the translator of the article adding some interesting parallel uses in Sicily. The editor, Prof. Angelo De Gubernatis, continues his well-known "Ricordi biografici" with a critical notice of Tullo Massarani, the conspirator, statesman, poet, and artist. A writer who hides himself under the name of "Pio Nesci" contributes a bitter article on the "Riordinamento nazionale degli Studii universitarii in Italia." He asserts that the universities are sectional, too conservative, and not original. The professors are underpaid and not well treated, the appropriations are wasted on supernumerary officers and extraordinary professors, and an enormous amount of time is lost through the observance of religious and national holidays and vacations. This gloomy view of Italian higher educational institutions is followed by an article on "L'Educazione e l'Insegnamento nelle Scuole dei Gesuiti." The establishment of the Catholic universities in France is viewed with much anxiety in Italy, and the writer of the last-named article endeavors to show the methods of instruction adopted by the Jesuits, and draws from them lessons of utility for the present approaching struggle between secular and clerical education. The remainder of the *Rivista* (with the exception of some articles which we shall mention later) is taken up with copious literary news, reviews, correspondence, etc., relating to Italy, France, Germany, England, Switzerland, Hungary, Russia, Spain, Roumania, and India. This department is considerably enlarged in the present number, and will be a characteristic feature of it in the future. We need not say that, as a rule, anything from the editor's pen is worth reading. In a review of Max Müller's last volume of 'Chips,' De Gubernatis deplores the strife waging between Müller and Whitney, thinks Müller is in the right, and advises Whitney to let his profound studies be his own defence and terminate the present discussion, "quanto curiosa per il pubblico, altrettanto disgustosa per i veri studiosi."

—The most interesting articles for the general reader of this number of the *Rivista* are those referring to the Count Alexis Tolstoï, the famous Russian poet who died last October. A year ago Prof. De Gubernatis, who delivered a public lecture at Florence on the poet, requested him to give him a sketch of his life. Tolstoï's letter in answer to this request is now published in the *Rivista* for the first time. It is dated at Mentone, March 4, 1874, and gives a number of interesting details about the poet's early life. He was taken by his uncle to see Goethe at Weimar, and always remembered the great poet's imposing countenance and being taken on his knee. He says he began to write verses when he was six years old, and when he was thirteen went to Italy, for which country he always cherished a profound affection. He closes his letter as follows: "Voici, mon bien cher Monsieur De Gubernatis, mon histoire au dehors et au dedans. Je crains qu'elle ne vous paraisse bien longue, mais du moins je vous ai épargné mes affaires de cœur, lesquelles, vu la grande intensité que prennent d'ordinaire mes souffrances, ainsi que mes satisfactions morales, n'ont pas joué le dernier rôle dans ma vie et ont dû de leur côté déteindre sur mes écrits. Je crois du reste qu'en cela j'ai subi le sort commun à tous les poëtes." That same winter (1874) the poet was in Florence suffering intensely from neuralgia and asthma, accompanied by sleeplessness, in spite of the use of opium in large quantities. It was during this period of physical and mental suffering that he wrote his last poem, which is Dantesque as well in metre as in spirit. It is entitled "The Dragon," and is an allegory descriptive of the German oppression of Italy. The scene is laid in Lombardy just before the destruction of Milan by Frederic Barbarossa. The *Rivista* gives a prose translation of the entire poem. Besides these interesting reminiscences of the poet, there is a letter giving an account of his last moments and funeral, a letter from Turgenef the celebrated novelist, and an excellent life of Tolstoï, translated from the Russian periodical, *Viestnik Evropy*.

—The Acropolis of Athens has at last been relieved from the square tower of mediæval times which stood out so conspicuously at the side of the Propylæa. The Archæological Society demolished it; Dr. Schliemann provided the funds. History has not recorded the name of the Venetian who built the tower, nor the year in which it was built, but some rude drawings or daubs on the adjacent walls, which were covered up by its erection, may yet determine its earliest possible date. A few sculptured marbles were found in its demolition, of which the most noteworthy are an echinus with larger eggs than have been met with hitherto, being perhaps the only fragment remaining of some colossal building, and the left angle of the pediment of the Propylæa—a block of marble one and a half metres long. The right angle had been discovered by Beule. Eighteen inscriptions were found. In one of Roman times, the demos honors Lucius Valerius Catullus (son of Lucius) and his mother, Terentia Hispylla. It is conjectured that this Catullus was none other than the brother of the Roman poet who died in the Troad, and doubtless passed through Athens on his way thither. Another inscription, belonging to the IVth century B.C., contains the names of the fifty prytanes of the tribe Leontis, who joined in setting-up a monument of victory to their eponymous hero, Leos. The formula of dedication is a novel one, and suggests several problems as to the contest in which the prytanes were victorious.

—A full account of the destruction of the tower, with copies of seven of the inscriptions, is given in the last number of the Ἀθήναιον. The other articles of this number are an art-criticism on the designs for the tomb of the patriarch Gregory the Fifth; on forms of early Christian worship; a textual criticism on the epic poem, 'Digenis Akritas,' the earliest known work in Modern Greek, a production of the tenth century, but first published last year in Paris; on new experiments in electricity; inscriptions recently found at Tanagra, at Chorseia, and in Attica. It appears from a note that the reported recovery of certain Elgin marbles is a mistake. They were sunk seventy years ago off the coast of Cythera, and have been searched for this summer by diving, but without success. The Ἀθήναιον, now in its fourth volume, is published in Athens six times a year, by two professors in the university. The subscription price, including postage to America,

is 16 drachmas, or $2 75 in gold. The reduction of postage between Greece and America ought to be followed by increased interchange of current literature. Persons desiring to study the Modern Greek may like to know that a weekly family paper of good literary character, the *Ἀστὴρ τῆς Ἀνατολῆς*, published under evangelical auspices, can be obtained for $2 50. A small daily, the *Παλιγγενεσία*, costs only twelve drachmas a year in Athens, and could probably be mailed in weekly packets for about two cents a week. For a grammar of the vernacular, the school manual of Gerakis can be bought for a drachma. Of course the student will not overlook the helps which our own scholars have provided—*e. g.*, the 'Modern Greek Grammar' of Prof. Sophocles, and the 'Selections from Modern Greek Writers' by Prof. Felton. He is fortunate who can find a copy of the old Romaic Grammar of Prof. Sophocles, with its excellent chrestomathy and vocabulary.

—The third volume of the ninth edition of the 'Encyclopædia Britannica' has just come to hand (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.) Though not comprising the number of long articles of agreeable reading matter contained in the first and second volumes, it is decidedly richer and more varied in its contents than either of its predecessors. The preference accorded to the treatment of technical subjects (a circumstance which, while raising the scientific standard of the work, adds but little to its value as a book of general reference) is equally apparent in the present volume as in the first two. Among the more important contributions of ordinary interest may be enumerated those on Athens, Austria, Francis Bacon, Baking, Banking (by L. H. Courtney, successor to the late Mr. Cairnes as Professor of Political Economy at University College, London), Basilica, Bee, Bengal (by W. W. Hunter), Bible and Bleaching. The article on the Atlantic Ocean, by Dr. Carpenter, embodies the very latest deep-sea investigations of the *Challenger* expedition. Professor Clerk Maxwell, who has gained an enviable reputation by his researches in molecular physics, treats the subject of Atoms at great length, his notice occupying no less than thirteen pages. Biology is, of course, mainly from the pen of Mr. Huxley; that portion of the subject relating to botany has been entrusted to Professor Thiselton Dyer. The article, however, which more than any other particularly demands the attention of the specialist, is that on birds, the joint production of Professors W. K. Parker and A. Newton. This highly comprehensive treatise, dealing solely with the structure and distribution of birds, would, if reprinted in common book-form, make a small octavo volume of about 250 pages. It is strictly of a scientific nature, and is profusely illustrated throughout. The essay on Bacon is very exhaustive; but it contains no allusion to the pretensions made in his behalf to the authorship of Shakspere's works. The four full-page maps appended to this volume, representing the distribution of currents in the Atlantic; Australia; the Austro-Hungarian Empire; and Bengal, are with one exception of tolerable execution. We may properly call attention here to the fact that on the cartoon-map of Alabama (Vol. I.) Pensacola is located wholly within the limits of that State.

BOCCARDO'S DICTIONARY OF POLITICAL ECONOMY.*

PROFESSOR GEROLAMO BOCCARDO of Genoa, the editor, and apparently the almost exclusive author, of an important general dictionary of political economy and commerce now in course of publication at Milan, is one of those men of encyclopædic learning, versatile talent, and indefatigable industry of whom Italy numbers many more than foreign scholars are usually willing to admit. One reason why so few Italian literati and scientists of the present day have acquired a European reputation is, that they habitually employ in their writings a language perhaps in itself not so well suited as English, French, or German to the discussion of themes of cosmopolite interest. Italian, too, is little cultivated abroad, because the people whose proper tongue it is has but recently won recognition as an independent member of the great body politic of Christendom, and has yet scarcely made itself felt as, at the same time, a living and individualized force in the intellectual commonwealth of our day. The Italians of the Renaissance gained the ear of the contemporary world not through their vernacular, but through the Latin, then the general language of high culture, which they used far more skilfully than any other people; and Dante and Petrarch expected European renown from their Latin compositions rather than from their productions in a dialect which they thought too trivial to engage or to merit the attention of strangers. When Latin ceased to hold predominance as the proper vehicle of intellectual expression, Italy lost her relative position in the republic of letters, and political and religious influences have since concurred to prevent her from regaining it.

A better reason for the purely *national* reputation of many Italian scholars and publicists who desire a wider fame is, that in Italy the sentiment, *Spartam quam nactus es hanc orna*, dictates to the man of letters, as well as to the devotee of physical and especially economical science, both a choice and a treatment of subject which adapt his works rather to native interests, taste, and judgment than to foreign standards. The new conditions of the awakening national life of Italy have imposed new duties on her educated sons. The reorganization of the political, the civil, and the social system of the nation, combined with the overthrow of the priesthood as a governing element, has created an absorbing demand for all the available legislative, economic, and administrative talent of a large portion of what Coleridge calls the *clerisy* of the nation. This is now the ruling class in Italy, and we are acquainted with no country where a greater proportion of men in official life are persons of wide and thorough intellectual culture. The members of the national legislature have almost without exception enjoyed an academic training. University professors, eminent medical men, jurists, journalists, engineers, naturalists, and physicists, educated soldiers in actual service, are very largely represented in the Senate and in the Chamber of Deputies, and many of them are very assiduous in the discharge of both parliamentary and of professional duties—duties which with us are regarded as practically incongruous. In fact, the statesmen who have controlled the destinies of Italy for the fifteen years of her existence as no longer a geographical expression, but as both a nation and a state, have belonged chiefly to positions in life which, with the exception of the law, would in the United States exclude them from occupying a seat in the national legislature; and it is a point especially deserving of notice, that the number of deputies, even senators, who have not won their spurs by achieving some personal distinction, and who owe their election solely to birth, wealth, or social position, is very small.

But although the professor, the lawyer, the scientist does not usually withdraw from the exercise of his special vocation because he has accepted a seat in Parliament, yet the calls of public life on those who prove eminently fitted for its duties often gradually weaken the ties which have bound them to the pursuit of science, of the learned professions, of public instruction, or of industry, and they end by devoting themselves exclusively to the service of the state as legislators or as cabinet ministers.

Italian scholars who do not enter into public life have comparatively little inducement to pursue the career of authorship. They cannot hope to secure a foreign public unless they write in a foreign tongue, and the circle of reading Italians is far less numerous than that of English, French, or Germans—so narrow, indeed, that a remunerative demand hardly exists for the productions of native writers. Hence Italian publishers must content themselves with the small gains yielded by small issues, and it is only fortunate authors who receive any pecuniary compensation for their labors. Italian writers, indeed, are often obliged to guarantee their booksellers against loss or to contribute a part of the expense of publication. The Turinese bookseller Pomba published, in the course of thirty years, five editions of a Conversations-Lexikon, or popular encyclopædia, in twelve large 8vo volumes, and a sale of 12,000 copies in all was thought a remarkable success. What would the publishers of English and American encyclopædias and their contributors say to such a success as this?

For these reasons there are hundreds, not to say thousands, of learned and able men in Italy who have never printed a line, but who are known to their own private circle and to their official associates as scholars of much native ability, of wide general attainments, and often of curiously varied and minute knowledge.

Prof. Boccardo gave early promise of success in political life, but, unlike most Italians who attain to official position, he has retired from active participation in national affairs, and devoted himself to his country's service in the field of public instruction, not only as an academic teacher, but more especially as an author of works designed less for scholastic use than for general circulation among educated men of all conditions, and especially of the mercantile, the industrial, and the professional classes. Besides many useful works devoted chiefly to the propagation of his views on various branches of public economy, we may mention his 'Fisica del Globo,' or Physics of the Earth, published in 1868, favorably noticed in these columns in 1869 as a very meritorious, comprehensive exposition of the subject indicated by its title; a new 'Italian Encyclopædia,' or general dictionary of science, literature, and art, in 25 volumes quarto, which he is carrying on almost single-handed; and the 'Dictionary of Public Economy and Commerce' which we have already mentioned. This valuable work, now advanced to the letter M, will make two royal octavos, of at out 1,500 pp.

* 'Gerolamo Boccardo. Dizionario Universale di Economia Politica e di Commercio.' 2da edizione. 2 vol. grande in-8vo. Milano, 1875-6.

each, and will probably be completed in the course of the year 1876. This is not a dictionary of merchandise, like the excellent 'Waaren-Lexikon' of Merck, but a series of condensed essays on important topics connected with the theory, the law, the practical exercise, and the statistics of national finance, of credit, of commerce, of navigation, and of monetary circulation and exchange, besides numerous special articles containing a great amount of information on the objects, the history, and the geography of international trade and of domestic industry, as well as on many subjects of both moral and material interest.

The first volume of this important work contains carefully elaborated articles on Abandonment, Abundance, Beggary, Waters, African Commerce, Agriculture, Brokerage, Aliment, American Commerce, Public Administration, Silver, Arts and Trades, Commerce, Average, Banks and Banking, Bankruptcy, Beneficence, Bank Bills, Balance of Trade, Blockade, Exchange (*Borsa*), Bills of Exchange, Canal, Cargo, Paper Money, Savings-Banks, Codes, Colonies, Consuls, Legal-Tender Money, Public Credit, Rivers, Customs, Exportation, Importation, Expropriation, Railways, Fairs (commercial), France, Commerce of, Fire, Industry, Interest, Mortgage, Public Instruction, besides many others of scarcely less importance.

Of course the opinions of critics on the doctrines of Prof. Boccardo will be modified by their own theories of political economy, but disputed questions will be found fairly presented, and none will deny the general accuracy of the statistical details and of the great amount of miscellaneous information contained in this work. The writer is acquainted with no equally condensed, convenient, and trustworthy source of instruction on the subjects treated in the English language; and in its specialties this dictionary is hardly less complete and satisfactory than our most voluminous encyclopædias. In our age, so prolific in word-books, few have appeared better suited to their purpose than Professor Boccardo's 'Dictionary,' and a translation of this lexicon, with such modifications as may be needed to adapt it to English and American use, would be a valuable addition to our commercial and economical literature.

GEORGE P. MARSH.

ROME, Dec. 18, 1875.

Winter Sunshine. By John Burroughs, author of 'Wake-Robin.' (New York: Hurd & Houghton. 1876.)—This is a very charming little book. We had noticed, on their appearance in various periodicals, some of the articles of which it is composed, and we find that, read continuously, they have given us even more pleasure. We have, indeed, enjoyed them more than we perhaps can show sufficient cause for. They are slender and light, but they have a real savor of their own. Mr. Burroughs is known as an out-of-door observer—a devotee of birds and trees and fields and aspects of weather and humble wayside incidents. The minuteness of his observation, the keenness of his perception of all these things, give him a real originality which is confirmed by a style sometimes indeed idiomatic and unfinished to a fault, but capable of remarkable felicity and vividness. Mr. Burroughs is also, fortunately for his literary prosperity in these days, a decided "humorist"; he is essentially and genially an American, without at all posing as one, and his sketches have a delightful oddity, vivacity, and freshness. The first half of his volume, and the least substantial, treats of certain rambles taken in the winter and spring in the country around Washington; the author is an apostle of pedestrianism, and these pages form a prolonged rhapsody upon the pleasures within the reach of any one who will take the trouble to stretch his legs. They are full of charming touches, and indicate a real genius for the observation of natural things. Mr. Burroughs is a sort of reduced, but also more humorous, more available, and more sociable Thoreau. He is especially intimate with the birds, and he gives his reader an acute sense of how sociable an affair, during six months of the year, this feathery lore may make a lonely walk. He is also intimate with the question of apples, and he treats of it in a succulent disquisition which imparts to the somewhat trivial theme a kind of lyrical dignity. He remarks, justly, that women are poor apple-eaters. But the best pages in his book are those which commemorate a short visit to England and the rapture of his first impressions. This little sketch, in spite of its extreme slightness, really deserves to become classical. We have read far solider treatises which contained less of the essence of the matter; or at least, if it is not upon the subject itself that Mr. Burroughs throws particularly powerful light, it is the essence of the ideal traveller's spirit that he gives us, the freshness and intensity of impression, the genial bewilderment, the universal appreciativeness. All this is delightfully *naïf*, frank, and natural. "All this had been told, and it pleased me so in the seeing that I must tell it again," the author says; and this is the constant spirit of his talk. He appears to have been "pleased" as no man was ever pleased before; so much so that his reflections upon his own country sometimes become unduly invidious. But if to be appreciative is the traveller's prime duty, Mr. Burroughs is a prince of travellers. "Then to remember that it was a new sky and a new earth I was beholding, that it was England, the old mother at last, no longer a faith or a fable but an actual fact, there before my eyes and under my feet—why should I not exult? Go to! I will be indulged. These trees, those fields, that bird darting along the hedgerows, those men and boys picking blackberries in October, those English flowers by the roadside (stop the carriage while I leap out and pluck them), the homely domestic looks of things, those houses, those queer vehicles, those thick-coated horses, those big-footed, coarsely-clad, clear-skinned men and women; this massive, homely, compact architecture—let me have a good look, for this is my first hour in England, and I am drunk with the joy of seeing! This house-fly, let me inspect it, and that swallow skimming along so familiarly." One envies Mr. Burroughs his acute relish of the foreign spectacle even more than one enjoys his expression of it. He is not afraid to start and stare; his state of mind is exactly opposed to the high dignity of the *nil admirari*. When he goes into St. Paul's, "my companions rushed about," he says, "as if each one had a search-warrant in his pocket; but I was content to uncover my head and drop into a seat, and busy my mind with some simple object near at hand, while the sublimity that soared about me stole into my soul." He meets a little girl carrying a pail in a meadow near Stratford, stops her and talks with her, and finds an ineffable delight in "the sweet and novel twang of her words. Her family had emigrated to America, failed to prosper, and come back; but I hardly recognized even the name of my own country in her innocent prattle; it seemed like a land of fable—all had a remote mythological air, and I pressed my enquiries as if I was hearing of this strange land for the first time." Mr. Burroughs is unfailingly complimentary; he sees sermons in stones and good in everything; the somewhat dusky British world was never steeped in so intense a glow of rose-color. Sometimes his optimism rather interferes with his accuracy—as when he detects "forests and lakes" in Hyde Park, and affirms that the English rural landscape does not, in comparison with the American, appear highly populated. This latter statement is apparently made apropos of that long stretch of suburban scenery, pure and simple, which extends from Liverpool to London. It does not strike us as felicitous, either, to say that women are more kindly treated in England than in the United States, and especially that they are less "leered at." "Leering" at women is happily less common all the world over than it is sometimes made to appear for picturesque purposes in the magazines; but we should say that if there is a country where the art has not reached a high stage of development, it is our own. It must be added that although Mr. Burroughs is shrewd as well as *naïf*, the latter quality sometimes distances the former. He runs over for a week to France. "At Dieppe I first saw the wooden shoe, and heard its dry, senseless clatter upon the pavement. How suggestive of the cramped and inflexible conditions with which human nature has borne so long in these lands!" But in Paris also he is appreciative—singularly so for so complete an outsider as he confesses himself to be—and throughout he is very well worth reading. We heartily commend his little volume for its honesty, its individuality, and, in places, its really blooming freshness.

An American in Iceland. An Account of its Scenery, People, and History. With a description of its Millennial Celebration in August, 1874, etc. By Samuel Kneeland, A.M., M.D., Secretary and Professor of Zoölogy and Physiology in the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. (Boston: Lockwood, Brooks & Co. 1875.)—If Dr. Kneeland's book is compared with previous tourist volumes on Iceland not only in English but also in other languages, it is fair to say that it contains more truth and less fiction than the most of them. But if we are to measure it according to its intrinsic value, then it must also be admitted that it is in many instances open to criticism. Still, there are whole chapters and numerous passages which are very well written, as, for instance, chap. xix, which treats of the new constitution of Iceland and her probable future (pp. 294–313); likewise chap. xi. (pp. 162–179), headed "The Old Norsemen"; and, among many others, the passage on pp. 20, 21 in which the author eloquently criticises the sectarian zealotry within the Christian church, and the one on pp 131, 132 in which he gives his own reflections on his departure from Thingwall, the celebrated place of Iceland's old general congress ("Althing"), will be found to possess decided merit. A book on Iceland written by one who, able scholar as he may otherwise be, does not understand the language of its inhabitants, cannot as a whole be of any permanent value. Even the Scandinavian languages do not possess any single reliable work on the present Iceland, and the study of its history by foreigners has as yet been limited to the republican period of the country, and for the most

part only to the so-called Saga-age ("Sögu-öld"), which ended in 1031. The eminent German scholar, Konrad Maurer of Munich, is in this respect an almost solitary exception. This being understood, it is easy to imagine how Dr. Kneeland, with his second-hand knowledge, on p. 40 asserts that "at the present day poetry and literature have ceased to be characteristic of Iceland"; and though in a note at the end of the book he does say that this statement should be modified so far as the present century is concerned, he still seems to think that all the centuries, from the loss of independence after the middle of the thirteenth to the end of the eighteenth, are quite blank pages in the history of Icelandic literature. On p. 213 he also says that when "the formal meeting" of Althing at Thingwall "ceased" in the beginning of the nineteenth century, and was transformed into the present high court of Reykjavík, "the spirit of the nation fell," whereas the fact is that this event was accompanied by an almost radical change of public and private life in Iceland into one more in harmony with that form of modern civilization which the author seems to adopt. From the end of the eighteenth and the beginning of the nineteenth century date the copious and learned writings of Hannes Finnsson (d. 1796), Magnus Stephensen (d. 1833), Jon Espolin (d. 1836), and many others; Jon Thorlaksson (d. 1819), too, the only one of modern Icelandic authors whom Dr. Kneeland mentions, belongs to the same time. The ecclesiastical writings of Hallgrim Petrsson (d. 1674), Jon Vidalin (Iceland's "Chrysostom," d. 1720), and Finn Jonsson (d. 1789), besides a great number of secular productions, such as the works of Arngrim Jonsson (d. 1648), Paul Vidalin (d. 1727), Halfdan Einarsson (d. 1785), etc., are all standard works of no less value or interest than the best of the old sagas, of which, indeed, many were written after the close of the age of the Sturlungs ("Sturlunga-öld") in the latter part of the thirteenth and even in the fourteenth century.

We do not think it necessary to point out all the misstatements found in this book, yet we must name a few instances. On p. 65, we read that "very little idea of the native population can be obtained at the capital (Reykjavík), where Danes and other nationalities constitute a large part of the residents," but the truth is that there are only three or four foreign (Danish) families living in Reykjavík. On p. 94, we find that the "deeds" of "demons, giants, and wild men," who, in the opinion of "the superstitious Northmen," inhabit the "mythical" desert of Central Iceland, "have been chronicled in the sagas," and on p. 236 the "sagas" are simply called "myths," against which opinion we seriously warn the reader. On the other hand, the reports of wild-looking men living in the "fertile districts" (!) found in the upland plateau of the country, on p. 95, asserted to be well authenticated, must be considered as myths or fables, and nothing else. Nor is the statement of a colonization of Iceland by the Celtic people on p. 194 (cf. pp. 202, 205, and 212) correct; and the selection of Mackenzie's list of Icelandic words (p. 240), in order to show the resemblance of that language to English, only serves as a warning example against borrowing anything from tourist-books on Iceland without submitting it to a thorough examination.

The Voyage of Verrazzano: A Chapter in the Early History of Maritime Discovery in America. By Henry C. Murphy. (New York; 1875; 1 vol. 8vo.)—France was the last of the great European powers to engage in maritime discovery. Columbus, the Cabots, Vespucci, had all run their brilliant careers and set up the flags of Spain, Portugal, and England in the New World before the lilies were seen on the western horizon. Then, as for three hundred years the story has run, another Italian—for almost all these great discoverers were Italians—taking service in France, discovered the American coast under the auspices of the French king. The name of this bold navigator was Giovanni da Verrazzani, and his birthplace was Florence, where his family was still in existence in the first half of the present century. Concerning his life there are wide differences of statement from its beginning to its end; one class of writers representing him as a successful discoverer, another as a successful corsair. Both, however, agree that he sailed under the French flag in the reign of Francis I.

Those who recognize him as a discoverer found their belief upon a letter first published by Ramusio some thirty years after the events which it relates. Upon this letter the whole question turns. We have called this document a letter. We should have called it an official report, which professes to have been addressed to Francis I. about the time of the battle of Pavia. We have already said that it was first published by Ramusio, the great collector of voyages, and, like most of the men of his class, more industrious than critical. His copy, he tells us, was obtained from Florence, and was the only record of the navigator which had survived the disasters of that unhappy state.

A question that here forces itself upon the attention is, why should there be no French copy or original of it in the French archives; and why should no French contemporary historian have taken note of an enterprise so honorable to France? All the references to it are made to Ramusio's Italian text. Of this text the only manuscript known is in the Magliabecchian Library of Florence, in one of those volumes of miscellanies which abound in Italian libraries and have preserved so much valuable matter for the industrious historian. It is written in the running hand—*carattere corsivo*—of the sixteenth century, and seems to have been the work of some collector of the day who had no doubt of its authenticity. For three hundred years, indeed, its authenticity was never called in question. Historians quoted it from Ramusio as they quoted the other narratives of that worthy and industrious collector. The only addition to our knowledge of the navigator was made some thirty years ago by the writer of the present notice. Little did he dream, while making his dusty way through the alcoves of the Magliabecchian in search of some new light upon this attractive subject, that he was upon the brink of a discovery which would deprive his hero of his glory for ever. But it so chanced that among the papers of that miscellany there slept unheeded a letter written by a certain Fernando Carli of Lyons to his father in Florence, to announce the return of their countryman Verrazzano from his successful voyage. This letter, if authentic, throws some, though a very feeble, light upon the early life of the navigator. We eagerly seized upon this new testimony, and by its aid constructed a plausible story, which was generally accepted as all that we were ever likely to know upon this obscure subject.

"All that we know with certainty"—so read the closing sentences of our monograph—"is that one great action distinguished him from the mass of adventurers in an age which had produced a Columbus and a Cabot, while doubt and mystery have enveloped the rest of his career, leaving us doubtful whether we should lament the untimely fate which gave him a prey to the barbarous appetite of cannibals, or execrate the ingratitude which compelled him to sacrifice to a struggle with the daily necessities of life a mind formed for daring and successful adventure."

And here, and not without a certain measure of complacency, we rested our pen, firmly convinced that we had brought a valuable side-light to bear upon a historical question of no inconsiderable interest. We had written a life of Verrazzano, founded upon documents. And thus the question stood for more than thirty years, fairly outlawed in every court in Christendom, till two daring iconoclasts—the late Buckingham Smith of St. Augustine, and Henry C. Murphy of Brooklyn—stimulated by what they doubtless regarded as historical conscientiousness, and not having the fear of criticism before their eyes, boldly reopened it, condemning the ingenuous Carli as an impostor, and barbarously sending the bold discoverer himself from the jaws of the cannibal to the garrote. Mr. Smith is dead, and his rash thesis is now represented by Mr. Murphy alone, whose elaborate monograph is before us.

We shall not attempt to follow him through the details of his argument. The weight of it lies, as we have already hinted, in the conclusion which we come to concerning Fernando Carli and his letter. Now, Carli is a person wholly unknown to the writers of that age. Ramusio says nothing about him. Peter Martyr, one of the greediest of newsmongers, makes no mention of him. The only authority for his existence is his letter to his father, and this loses its verisimilitude in the ordeal of historical criticism. If Carli's letter falls, Verrazzano's report falls with it. How, under any other conclusion, can we explain that thirty years' silence of his? According to our iconoclasts, the letter and the report are both ingenious forgeries, made, like some of the writings attributed to Vespucci, in order to add a new chapter to the annals of Florence. Bitter rivalries of glory embellish or deform the history of the Italian Republics. Genoa had her Columbus, who bore the flag of Spain to the New World; Venice her Cabots, who bore the flag of England; and Florence had already claimed the continent as the discovery of Vespucci: why should she not go a step further, and produce a Verrazzano to bear to unknown regions the lilies of France?

What, then, becomes of the great navigator? The archives of Simancas, which have already unveiled so many historical secrets, have revealed this also. Juan Florin, a French corsair, was put to death at Colmenar de Arenas, by order of the Emperor Charles V. Juan Florin and Giovanni da Verrazzano Florentino were one and the same person. Thus far for the present. But there are some who still believe in the original Verrazzano, the Verrazzano of Ramusio and Carli. We wait with interest, if not with an absolutely suspended judgment, for their answer to Mr. Murphy's essay.

Lettres à une autre Inconnue. Par Prosper Mérimée, de l'Académie Française. Avant-propos par H. Blaze de Bury. (Paris: Michel Lévy;

New York : F. W. Christern.)—Our readers have probably not forgotten the review of Mérimée's 'Lettres à une Inconnue' which appeared in these columns some year and a half ago. The book had been largely read, but it was variously appreciated. Some people thought it very trivial, others deemed it very deep ; upon its being entertaining, however, most people were agreed. Amid the criticism to which it gave rise, there was not a little animadversion upon the audacity of the lady to whom the letters were addressed, who, when her admirer had passed away, had not scrupled to make public some thirty years of their common very private history. We hardly know if it makes this lady's frankness more surprising or more natural to find another person capable of the same intrepidity. Here is another "unknown" with another bundle of confidential epistles. She has apparently very sagaciously reflected that to have been a correspondent of Mérimée is just now a remunerative situation, and that since the ice has been broken there is no harm in making a few more holes. About Mérimée himself everything worth saying seems to us by this time to have been said ; he has received his dues, and more than his dues. So small an investment of talent has certainly never brought in a higher interest of fame. He wrote a dozen tales which will last, but there is something really paradoxical in talking much about them—so very reticent, and spare, and frugal of eloquence are they themselves. M. Blaze de Bury, a writer who is a great talker (and it must be added a very entertaining one), has endeavored in a long preface to the present volume to say something new about the author of 'Colomba,' but most of his novelties are of a sort that would evaporate in quotation. He has made one good point, however, on the subject of that masterly reserve for which Mérimée has been so much praised. Mérimée never describes, he only narrates, and there is certainly often something very eloquent in his studied sobriety. It has always been assumed that if he did not describe it is because he would not, and not because he could not ; but M. Blaze de Bury reminds us that there is another side to the question, and that there is such a thing as glorifying negative merits too highly. In the 'Chronique de Charles IX.,' when the king comes in, the author, who is apparently about to give a sketch of his person, suddenly stops short. "His portrait ? —wait. Really you had better go and see it in the Museum at Angoulême ; it is in the second room ; number 98." "This is a convenient way of getting out of it," says M. Blaze de Bury ; "is it the best way ? Mérimée was a sly fox, depend upon it, and he had no need of La Fontaine and his fables to characterize the grapes that one cannot reach." It is certain, with all deference to what is called economy of effect, that the phrase above quoted could not have been written by a man of a rich genius, and Mérimée decidedly was not a man of a rich genius. There is fortunately a golden mean between bathos and blankness.

It is not, however, for their undue reticence that these new letters are remarkable. Mérimée's pen, in addressing his fair correspondents, was neither prudish nor cautious, and there are several passages in this little volume which seem to belong to a date much earlier than our modern prôprieties. They will afford an extra satisfaction to those connoisseurs who consider Mérimée the last of the French writers who has to some extent preserved the last-century traditions of style. These letters are fifty in number ; they are very short ; and they are really not valuable. Persons seriously interested in the author will find in them something to complete their mental image of him ; but those who should read them without having been otherwise introduced to Mérimée, would scarcely suppose them to be the productions of a superior man. They run, at wide intervals, through a space of five years, from 1865 to 1870, and the person to whom they were addressed is less of a mystery than the first unknown. She was a Polish lady of high rank, who seems to have been, like her correspondent, on a footing of familiarity at the court of Napoleon III. The Empress, during those laboriously brilliant years that preceded the war, had established certain "courts of love" for the entertainment of her social circle, and Mérimée's correspondent was "president," or judge, at one of these. Whether she had ever had to pass sentence on Mérimée as an offender is more than we can say, but it is in this character that he always addresses her. He deals chiefly in court gossip, and alludes to the trifles of the hour. Such slender value as the letters possess belongs to the fact that the Imperial court, having become so thoroughly a thing of the past, a theme for the historian and the moralist, Mérimée's anecdotes and *cancans* have a sort of historical savor. "We have the happiness occasionally of seeing the Empress of Mexico. She is a *maîtresse-femme*, and as like as two peas to Louis Philippe. She has some ladies of honor with flaming eyes, but complexions like gingerbread, and a sort of look of orang-outangs. We expected to see the houris of Mahomet ! It is supposed that her majesty has come to ask for money and soldiers ; but I fancy they will give her nothing but fêtes, for which she seems to care little." That seems very far away from the present moment in France. Most of the proper names have been retained ; the reader may judge of the practical results in some cases. "The Princess of Metternich is, on the contrary, all grace and amiability. Only, she has thrown herself into painting. I mean the *Samojivopistro* (the painting of one's self) ; and how this science has progressed ! She has lips of the most delightful flame-color, with which she can drink tea without leaving them on the cup." Here is another specimen, from Biarritz : "We have here the Grand-Duchess Marie of Russia, and the Grand-Duke of Leuchtenberg, who is a very handsome fellow, and who would make ravages on this shore if there were a few beauties less thoroughly known than those we possess. Madame de Talleyrand, whose hair has become blond, the Duchess of Frias—such are the highest temptations we can offer. I don't speak of Madame Korsakof, in a yellow dress and a black jacket, black stockings, and boots with yellow rosettes, who leads about a great black dog (without any yellow), and a gentleman to protect her. She has still a charming figure, and with her back turned makes a great many conquests." The following is more interesting : "We have brought back the Emperor in very good health. He took long tramps on foot with us, which quite used us up. In truth, the more I see of princes, the more I perceive that they are made of another paste than common mortals. For myself, I have no fitness whatever for the profession, and I abstain absolutely from all pretension to sovereignty—even to that of Greece or the Moldo-Wallachian Principalities."

On the whole, the unprejudiced reader may conclude that, if these letters add nothing to Mérimée's reputation, they were at least good enough for the person to whom they were addressed, and who has seen fit to give them to the world.

Glimpse at the Art of Japan. By James Jackson Jarves. (New York: Hurd & Houghton.)—After the opening of Japan to modern commerce, and the consequent importation to Europe and the United States of decorated objects of utility such as the Japanese were found to excel in, an interest was excited in this newly discovered manifestation of the spirit of design at once more profound and more widespread than had been called into being by any other recent development of the fine arts. There had existed many pieces of Japanese art in the museums of Europe, and in royal and private collections, and these generally of the more splendid and costly kind, such as would naturally survive from the time of Louis XIV. to our own on account of their costliness of material and decorative effect ; but it is probable that but few of the collectors, and fewer still of the savans, distinguished between the quality of art shown in those objects and the art of other Oriental nations. It happened, however, that the fresh influx of works of art from Japan was contemporaneous with a rapidly-growing interest in decorative art as well as in archæology and in ethnology ; moreover, the porcelain and pottery which was brought by the shipload, the modern lacquers, the simple bronzes, the books of wood-cuts, the fans printed in colors or painted by hand, the small carvings in ivory, the prettily designed boxes covered with straw and the like, with which the markets of Europe and America were suddenly supplied, were so cheap as to be within everybody's reach, and so tempting, from their neatness and quasi-utility, as to tempt many persons who would hardly have bought an article merely for the sake of its beauty or for what might be learned from its make and ornamentation. There was then a general desire to know all that could be known of this distant and almost forgotten race, whose unusual and elaborate civilization was vouched for by the uniform delicacy and refinement of their simplest manufactures. But this was as nothing to the longing of the students of art and of ornamentation to learn something of the people with whom there was found still to remain a universal, traditional, and inherited fine-art, not dissimilar to that which had existed in Europe at a time not so long gone by, and yet gone, as it seemed, for ever. If one could have slept and waked up in Italy or in France in the fourteenth century, he would have found himself living among designers in whose hands art was much as it was found among the Japanese ; simple, easily understood, easily taught, and in the hands of a large class of workmen, among whom there were masters and pupils, strong and weak, superior and inferior, but none devoid of that thing so rare to the moderns—the power of decorative design. The bygone age of art, so much lamented and so little understood, was found in living shape in the islands of Japan.

During the twenty years that have elapsed there has been much writing about the empire of Mikado, its history, politics, manners, and customs, and its extraordinary and sudden change of government and policy. The curiosity of artists to know something of the mythology and legends upon which so much of Japanese art is founded, and to know something of the

perfected processes which make it so remarkable, has had some slight satisfaction ; but there is still so much unknown that every book which, like the book before us, undertakes to explain something of these mysteries, is an acquisition and worthy of study. In the absence of positive evidence, it is as well to have plausible rumor. As we examine an interesting scene in which supernatural beings are represented, if we have no certain knowledge derived from literature of the meaning of the scene, the attributes of the personages, or the legendary history in general, it is well to have a good guess at all this, which may at all events stimulate our own imagination. In like manner, if we find it impossible to be sure of the epoch or of the province of a piece of porcelain or lacquer or bronze, if there is, as usual in Japanese work, no inscription upon it, and if documentary evidence does not exist, it is as well to have an approximately correct statement in regard to it from a person who has seen and examined many such pieces, as an authentication which will answer at least for a time. Mr. Jarves's account of the gods and goddesses, of the dragons and fabulous animals, of the sacred plants, and of the popular stories of the Japanese, and his brief notice of their working in earthenware, porcelain, and lacquer, is well enough to read and to credit until further and more exact information can be obtained. The most serious fault that we have to find with the book is that it is a little difficult to obtain from it the information it is expressly intended to convey : the book is very hard reading because of its faults of style, and the author's meaning is not always made clear even to the reader who overcomes that first difficulty.

The illustrations are far from being satisfactory ; they are chiefly or altogether reproduced by some photolithographic process from the pages of the Japanese books which are ascribed to Hoksai (called in the work before us Hoffksai) and other designers of whom as little is known as of him. Mr. Jarves calls attention to the difficulty which he has found in having made adequate representations of porcelains, bronzes, and the like ; he points out shrewdly enough the difficulty of getting European draughtsmen to render the art of Oriental nations with fidelity and without exaggeration of its peculiarities. In limiting his illustrations to mechanical reproductions of prints and drawings he has done wisely perhaps, but it is greatly to be regretted that the illustrations are not more distinct and more intelligible to the reader who may not have access to any of the original books.

Goethe's Märchen : ein politisch-nationales Glaubensbekenntniss des Dichters. Von Dr. Hermann Baumgart. (Königsberg : Hartung ; New York : L. W. Schmidt. 1875.)—There is evidently a growing disposition among cultivated Germans to rehabilitate Goethe as a political thinker and sincere, if not always outspoken, patriot. The outrageous defamation of Goethe practised by democratic radicals such as Börne, Scherr, and Menzel, is, in Germany at least, a thing of the past, although there are traces of its lingering existence in America, in places where we might least expect it. The reconstruction of the German empire in a dynastic form, and the indefinite adjournment of all dreams of a republic, have demonstrated the ideas of 1813–1849 to be fallacies, and their champions to have been visionaries. It is but natural, then, that the nation, wiser by experience, should now render tardy justice to Goethe and his contemporaries, who had the courage to abide by their principles in the face of obloquy. The evidences are multiplying year by year that Goethe's insight into German character and the German future was in the main correct. The critic of to-day has to disregard the prejudices that prevailed fifty years ago, and commence the study of Goethe's political opinions anew. Dr. Baumgart's pamphlet is a step in this direction. The 'Märchen,' has always been a puzzle to the interpreter. Written in Goethe's best prose style, it was attractive as such, yet no one could detect the precise point of the story, although opinions were agreed that it symbolized German politics. Dr. Baumgart is the first, we believe, who has undertaken to read the riddle in all its parts. The Ignes Fatui are the German pamphleteers who introduced French ideas into Germany in the eighteenth century. The Serpent is German literature ; the Youth is the genius of the German nation ; the Lily is the cult of æsthetic ideals ; the Old Man with the Lamp is German scholarship ; his wife is the German church. The story symbolizes prophetically the blending of the real and the ideal in Germany, the regeneration of political institutions, the transformation of the church. The three kings are the three factors of monarchical power ; the fourth king is the decaying German-Roman empire. The Serpent, *i.e.*, literature, in sacrificing itself to build the bridge over the swollen river of events, makes the garden of the Lily, *i.e.*, the ideal, accessible to all. Read in the light of this interpretation—and we see no reason for doubting its accuracy—the 'Märchen' becomes a singular revelation of Goethe's sagacity. It proves that Goethe had faith in the resuscitation of his country, and an intuition of the means whereby it was to be effected. Dr. Baumgart's pamphlet, therefore, will be acceptable to those who wish to understand Goethe aright.

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BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 3, 1876.

The Week.

THE Presidential campaign has already begun behind the scenes in good earnest, and even on the public board some moves are being made. Senator Sherman has come out for Governor Hayes of Ohio, and Mr. Kerr announces that Indiana will go for Mr. Hendricks. In this State the Conkling movement continues, with how much force it is difficult to say. The whole campaign has, however, as yet, a slight air of unreality, for nobody who knows anything about the way conventions are managed supposes that the names now put forward mean anything decisive. The bargains, the exchange of vote for vote, and State for State, and the arrangement of first, second, and third choices, have all as yet to be made. If we knew, for instance, that when Senator Sherman says he is going to support Hayes he meant to support him to the bitter end, and as it were die voting for Hayes, or if we felt certain that Mr. Kerr would do as much for Mr. Hendricks, we should feel that the situation was deeply interesting. But we know perfectly well that Mr. Sherman and Mr. Kerr need not do anything of the kind, and that they may even now, in their secret hearts, believe Hendricks and Hayes to be impossible candidates, and may be now chiefly considering whom they will vote for as a real candidate when it shall have been demonstrated to their party friends as conclusively as it already has been to themselves that neither Hendricks nor Hayes has a ghost of a chance.

The Senate has been occupied during the past week with a discussion of the rights of settlers on railroad land-grants, and has passed, by a vote of 44 to 9, a bill to confirm pre-emption and homestead entries within land-grant limits in cases where the entries have been made under the regulations of the Land De partment. The House joint resolution authorizing the payment of the 3.65 February interest on the District of Columbia bonds came up, and the House amendments, providing that nothing in the bill should bind the Government to pay interest or principal of bonds illegally issued, and prohibiting any further issues, were struck out—the objection on the part of the Republican senators being that the latter amendment assumed wrong when none was known to exist, while the former would prevent the payment of honest claims already audited and convertible but not converted into bonds. During the debate it appeared that these bonds now amount to something like $15,000,000, and Senator Oglesby of Illinois declared that Senator Dawes (who made a long speech on the subject) had made it plain to him that the extravagance in the District "would never stop until God in his wrath put his foot upon it" (a statement which caused a good deal of laughter among the senators), and followed this by a prediction that unless Congress stopped the manufacture of bonds now going on, the Commissioners would not stop until they reached "a hundred millions." This prediction caused "renewed laughter," though no one explained what there was to laugh at. An amendment was finally adopted limiting the issue to $15,000,000. Pinchback's prospects have been advanced by a report of Senator Morton from the Election Committee on Mr. Eustis's adverse claim, to the effect that there is no vacancy, as Pinchback was duly elected for the term commencing March 4, 1873. What with back-pay and mileage, poor Pinchback has lost now, we believe, about $20,000, and this, with the damage to his character caused by the attacks of a malignant press, must make up a very pretty sum; but we have no doubt he will substantially reimburse himself sooner or later.

In the House, the West Point debate has been the principal subject of interest. The general result of the debate, as far as can be made out from the newspaper reports, seems to be that the reductions proposed in salaries have been generally carried, though, as to the cadets' pay, a compromise has been effected, by which it is fixed at $540. The debate was wound up by what is known as a "tilt" between Messrs. Hale, of Maine, and Cox, of New York. Mr. Hale declared that Mr. Cox was unable to resist the orders of his "masters." Mr. Cox denied having any masters, and further retorted by urging that Mr. Hale had been known in the last three or four Congresses as Mr. Blaine's "little pup," on which Mr. Hale retorted by reminding his adversary that Mr. Butler had likened his political career to the buzzing of the domestic fly. The whole affair, however, passed off quite pleasantly in the end, the Chair reminding the House that dignity and decorum were absolutely essential to the proper conduct of business, and that if honorable gentlemen insisted upon turning the House of Representatives into a bear-garden, they could not expect it to remain at the same time a dignified parliamentary body. He also sharply reproved the galleries for the noise they made—a device always resorted to by shrewd Speakers when they lose control of the House. Mr. Morrison has brought in a bill to revise the tariff. The bill abolishes the present double system of duties and substitutes specific duties throughout; reduces the duties on many articles, and puts tea and coffee on the list at four and ten cents respectively; the estimated revenues at these rates being—from coffee, $12,718,800, and from tea, $6,485,600. The chief articles put on the free list (it embraces over a hundred) are: bituminous coal, which produced a revenue in 1874–5 of $327,537 50; aniline dyes and colors ($304,266 12); and caustic soda ($565,048 29). The bill seems to be designed as a compromise measure, and intended to pass the Senate. The House also has had before it a bill to prevent the sending of obscene matter through the mails, which the newspapers will have to look after. Though introduced by a Republican, it was opposed by Messrs. Hoar and Garfield, and recommitted. There seems to be some doubt whether its sweeping provisions may not furnish the means for new attacks upon the press.

Mr. Nordhoff's book on the "Cotton States during the Spring and Summer of 1875" has, on page 55, some statistics about murders which throw useful light on the charlatanry—we can hardly use a milder word—of speeches like Mr. Morton's about "Southern outrages," and particularly the special device of all these speeches which makes all Southern murders political, and blacks or Republicans the victims. The fact is that during the years of carpet-bag government crime went practically unpunished, and there were, therefore, many murders; but how absurd it is to ascribe them, or even the majority of them, to political causes is well illustrated by Mr. Nordhoff's figures with regard to thirteen parishes in Louisiana in which he obtained the statistics of crime. In these there were, from 1868 to 1875, 313 murders. Of these, 93 were of whites by whites; 143 of negroes by negroes; 28 of whites by negroes; 32 of negroes by whites; 3 of negroes by officers of justice; 5 negroes by persons unknown; 7 whites by persons unknown; 5 whites by mobs, and 5 negroes by mobs. This is no doubt a shocking state of society; but what can Congress do about it? How is it worse than the state of society at Mauch Chunk or in New Mexico?

Governor Chamberlain has been writing a letter to Governor Morton as to the election of Moses and Whipper to South Carolina judgeships. In it he says that "unless the universal belief among all classes of people in this State is mistaken, he [Moses] is as in-

famous a character as ever in any age disgraced and prostituted public position," and adds that if there is anybody in Washington who shall happen to deny this, he will prove it. As a specimen of his villany, he declares that Moses, in order to secure his election when running for Governor, sold out the commissioners of elections, of whom he had the sole appointment, for $30,000, of which $15,000 was paid to him in cash, and the rest made contingent on success. There is not a man in South Carolina, he says, who would "trust Moses with $10." As to Whipper, he describes him as "ignorant of law" to such an extent as to disqualify him for "the intelligent discharge of any judicial duty," "ignorant of morals, a gambler by open practice," and an embezzler. Moses, he says, is quite as ignorant as Whipper, and Whipper has "lacked only opportunity to prove himself the equal of Moses in infamy." He implores the Northern Republicans to "unload" Moses and Whipper, and declares that if they do not the party in South Carolina is doomed.

The Texas and Pacific Railway Company continues to hope for success in obtaining Government aid to secure its construction. The line of road which this Company proposes to construct is what is best described as the thirty-second parallel line, which passes through Arizona and New Mexico in close proximity to the Mexican border, and terminates at San Diego, the most southerly seaport of California. This road was among the earliest Pacific-railroad projects, and is substantially identical with the lines which have been known as the Memphis, El Paso and Pacific, and the Southern Pacific railroads, and in which at one time General Frémont figured conspicuously. The main line of this road starts from Shreveport on the Red River and extends to San Diego, a distance of some 1,500 miles. Of this only about 200 miles are now completed, and trains are run only to Dallas in the State of Texas; the Company, however, owns a branch seventy-four miles long extending to Texarkana, where it obtains its eastern outlet through the St. Louis, Iron Mountain and Southern Railway, and has partly completed a line parallel to that already built running directly west from Texarkana. This Company has received a land-grant from the United States Government, but has failed to construct its road with the rapidity required by the act conferring the grant; they now propose to relinquish all claim to the land, but ask the Government to guarantee five per cent. interest on their bonds, of which not more than $40,000 are to be issued for each mile of road. In brief, the request is the guarantee of five per cent. interest on $60,000,000—an annual charge of $3,000,000.

This railway must not be confounded with the present Southern Pacific Railroad, which is building by a California corporation, and whose projected line lies entirely within the limits of that State. This road is intended to run from San Francisco to Fort Yuma, at the extreme southern corner of the State, where it would connect with the Texas and Pacific Railway, and form the San Francisco outlet for a thirty-second parallel line; its general direction is from southeast to northwest, and it reaches over nearly six degrees of latitude. About 150 miles of the main line of this road have been in regular operation for a considerable time, 500 miles are now reported as done, and work is being diligently prosecuted among the mountains of Southern California. Though owned by a separate and independent corporation, the capital for the construction of this road is being supplied very largely by the capitalists who control the Central Pacific Railroad. The President of the Southern Pacific Railroad, Mr. C. P. Huntington, of New York, has recently published a letter, in which he offers to extend his road eastward from Fort Yuma to the eastern boundary of Texas, or to a meeting-point near the one hundred and third meridian, provided the Government will transfer to his company the land-grant which the Texas and Pacific Railway has forfeited. About one-half of the uncompleted portion of the Texas and Pacific Railway, from its present water terminus to the proposed connection with the Southern Pacific Railroad at Fort Yuma, lies within the State of Texas, and the proposed extension of the Southern Pacific Railroad through Southern Arizona and New Mexico would connect the mineral lands of that section with San Francisco, but would by no means complete the thirty-second parallel railroad; it can hardly be doubted, however, that capital could soon be found to supply the missing link. The effect of the subsidy would be to open a new transcontinental railway, under an independent management, to an undeveloped port in Southern California. The eastward extension of the Southern Pacific Railroad, for which a land-grant is desired, would probably secure at an early date the completion of a second line to the Pacific, and develop a country which is now virtually inaccessible; but it would leave the railroad system of the Pacific coast and the Western outlets of both transcontinental lines in the hands of the men who already control the railway system of California, and in whose hands the San Francisco outlet of the thirty-second parallel line must in any event remain.

Mr. Bristow has met with another success in the conviction of McKee, one of the proprietors of the St. Louis *Globe-Democrat*, and this result has not encouraged General Babcock's friends. The whiskey trials in St. Louis have been remarkable for the skill with which they have been conducted by the Government, and the intelligence shown by the juries in following the evidence. The standing and position of many of the defendants was such that there was every reason to anticipate a disagreement, particularly when we reflect that they were tried in a community in which the defrauding of the Government of its whiskey tax had almost become an established custom, so that it was rapidly becoming impossible for honest manufacturers to continue their business without joining the Ring.

The extreme minuteness of the religious question, as it is called in those States in which it has shown itself at all, will, we suppose, be taken by some people as proof that there is nothing in the dispute worth disputing about, and by others it will be maintained that the fury of the combat about mere trifles shows how deep-laid the trouble is. Everybody has heard of the Geghan law in Ohio, which has just been repealed by the Republicans, and against which such a fearful denunciation was raised during the last campaign in that State. It was talked about on the stump as if it had been drawn up by Cardinal Antonelli at the request of the Pope, and rushed through by a straight Jesuit vote, and as if its object had been the establishment of an Ohio branch of the Inquisition. The law really forbade compulsory attendance on religious worship in State "institutions" in the case of conscientious scruples against the form of worship, and made it the duty of the trustees to furnish "ample and equal" religious "facilities." There may have been something very bad behind all this, but we believe an exactly similar law has existed for years in Massachusetts without objection. The measure which in this State has been playing the same part as the Ghegan bill in Ohio, has been the "Gray Nuns Act." The mysterious name of this measure has had so powerful an effect on the imagination of the Legislature at Albany that a repeal has been carried through with great vigor, Morrissey playing an amusing part in the farce by making a tremendous speech, in which he declared himself willing to sacrifice anything on the altar of American liberty. The act presented the Gray Nuns with an exceptional privilege of obtaining certificates as public-school teachers at the discretion of the State Superintendent. Mr. Tilden declares that the act had really been repealed by subsequent legislation when the Legislature met. This seems at any rate to have been done now, and the Gray Nuns may as well give up the game.

The *World* is a very clever paper and an able expounder of the faith of the true Democrat, not necessarily as it is but as it ought to be, and indeed would be, were it not for the fact that, like other faiths, it has to be evolved from the acts and opinions, hopes, fears

illusions, and prejudices, of imperfect and erring men. It has, however, the peculiarity of giving its readers the impression that journalistically it is somewhat latitudinarian, and sometimes that each column is edited independently of every other. Notably is this the case with regard to the column contributed by a gentleman who calls himself "Piccadilly," and whose duty seems to be to explore and reveal the secrets of English current opinion as to current American politics. While the *World* editorially is denouncing the iniquities of the republican worship of Baal, the faithful "Piccadilly" is doing service in the good cause at the British capital. Lately he has been sending home "English opinion on Grant's latest campaign dodge" (for such, we are sorry to say, are the terms in which the Ishmaelites of the *World* characterize General Grant's bold onslaught upon the Bishop of Rome and his myrmidons); and this opinion comes from persons of no less importance than Mr. Gladstone, the Duke of Argyll, Archdeacon Denison, the Rev. James Martineau, and Mr. W. E. Forster. We cannot say that the replies of these gentlemen are conclusive, inasmuch as they almost all say that they know too little about the subject to venture an opinion. "Piccadilly's" method, however, is worthy of notice as an indication of the growing power of the press. He does not "interview" anybody. He writes a letter, and invariably draws a reply of some kind. Whether this epistolary method is to take the place of the now obsolescent interview it may be too early, as "Piccadilly's" conservative friends on the other side of the water would say, to express a decided opinion.

The week has been uneventful in the financial world. As was expected, the Bank of England reduced its discount rate to 4 per cent., but without effect on the discount rate of other banking institutions in London, which continued 3½ per cent., and without important effect on the London market for securities. Here the tendency of loans to lower rates was arrested by an enlarged demand for money from the Stock Exchange, where there was a rampant speculation in shares, which culminated, however, before the close of the week. The New York banks are each week becoming stronger in reserve, and now have a surplus reserve of $15,500,000, against $15,994,000 at the corresponding time last year. These banks chiefly have borne the contraction of Treasury-note circulation during the year, and have consequently about $9,000,000 less of this kind of currency than a year ago. Gold and sterling exchange have advanced slightly during the week by reason of the importations of United States bonds from London and the German markets, where prices, because of the unusually large demand for bonds from banks, insurance and trust companies here, continue much below this market. The final settlement between the Rothschild Syndicate and the United States Treasury takes place on the 15th instant, and bankers calculate that it will result in a diminution of the stock of gold in this market.

The mercantile situation calls for no special comment. The number of failures occurring is not alarming, and although there is not the utmost confidence in what constitutes the wholesale grocery trade, there is in dry goods a degree of confidence not witnessed for the past two years. The movement of Western staples has been somewhat checked by the unseasonable weather, which has made it impossible to haul grain over the dirt roads to the railroads. Western railroad receipts have therefore been unfavorably affected in important sections. The gold price of $100 greenbacks during the week has ranged between $88 30 and $88 59.

Mr. Albert Grant has written a letter, or pamphlet, of which a summary is given by the London correspondent of the *Tribune*, in which he offers to pay fifty thousand dollars to the Company in atonement for his share in bringing the Emma Mine on the London market if the legal proceedings against him—for which Mr. MacDougall is preparing—are abandoned. Mr. MacDougall is, however, a man of war, and is not disposed to compromise, particularly as he has his eye on Grant's confederates, Park and Stewart. The story Grant gives of his connection with the scheme is directly opposed on material points to Schenck's own and to Mr. Reverdy Johnson's. Indeed, Grant asserts that Schenck's name as a director was used many weeks or some months before Schenck says he first saw Park, as an inducement to Park and others to go into the mine, thus flatly contradicting the Schenck story that the proposal that he should become a director was only made to him after November 1, when he signed the agreement with Park. What the reporters call "rich developments" are still looked for. The fact is that the theory that Schenck was the dupe of Park has always been a hard one to swallow. In this "Emma Mine" discussion he has usually been treated by his friends as if he were a country minister who had been imposed on by a set of Wall-Street sharpers. He is, however, a politician sixty years old, who spent eight of the most corrupt years in the history of the Government—1863 to 1871—in Congress, and in the last of these served as chairman of the Committee of Ways and Means, when he was, of course, surrounded by the most hardened lobbyists and speculators of the time, and even among them was a renowned poker-player. The idea, therefore, that when he saw Park and Stewart he could not make out what kind of men they were, and that when Park offered to lend him $50,000 he thought it was out of patriotism, is one to which it is difficult to give serious consideration.

The Judicial Committee of the Privy Council in England has given judgment in the case of the Methodist minister whom an ill-conditioned country vicar refused to allow to call himself "Rev." on his daughter's tombstone. The vicar was sustained both by the bishop, the chancellor of the diocese, and the Arches Court, but common sense prevailed in the court of last resort, which decides that "Reverend" prefixed to a clergyman's name is and always has been a mark of courtesy simply and never an official title, and that under the law of England every man may take it who can get it. This—so strange a creature is man—has grieved some of the Anglican clergy so much that they are issuing circulars requesting their friends to call them Rector This or Vicar That, in order not to expose them to the imputation of being Dissenting ministers. Another very amusing illustration of the low state of the humorous faculty in the English Church has just been afforded by the public protest from "A Magistrate in Two Counties" against a speech of the Bishop of Winchester, in which he said he was prepared to accept a republic in England "if Providence so ordered it." This concession on the Bishop's part the magistrate considers atrocious on the part of a man who has twice sworn allegiance to the Queen, and says it would at one time have brought his head to the block. There are cases evidently in which he expects the Bishop to resist even the Divine decrees.

There are various statements telegraphed from the French "arithmetic men" about the composition of the Senate. The *Journal des Débats* gives the Conservative-Republicans 100, the Monarchists 70, the Bonapartists 41, and the pure Radicals 10. The *Siècle* strikes the Radicals out altogether, and gives the Republicans 101, the Legitimists 38, the Bonapartists 45. The *Paris Journal* makes a different division, taking away 17 from the Republicans and obliterating the Radicals, and distributing them among the Conservatives of the three sections: Orleanists, Republicans, and Bonapartists. These divisions are worthy of notice as showing the extreme faintness of the lines by which the various sections of French political opinion are divided, but have hardly any other importance. The fact seems to be that the Conservative-Republicans, meaning by that those who are disposed to give the new constitution a fair trial, are in a majority; but that the Bonapartists and Legitimists can, by combinations, play many disagreeable tricks.

MR. FISH'S FACTS.

IT appears from Mr. Fish's letter to Mr. Cushing (which is dated November 5, and therefore was written at about the same time that the very able expositions of international law contained in the President's message were being prepared) that the view taken at Washington of the Cuban difficulty is that the island is in a condition of anarchy, in the strict sense of the word. Spain is of course, in the eye of the law of nations, charged with the duty of providing a government which shall protect property, enforce order, punish crime, and, in short, maintain the machinery of society in such a condition that not only natives but foreigners may enjoy life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. According to Mr. Fish, however, she does not do this. She sends troops to the island, but they do not put a stop to the "ravages of war." She establishes courts, but they do not repress crime; she makes decrees, but is unable to enforce them. American property is seized without process of law; the orders of the home government are treated with contempt. Spain does not any longer, properly speaking, govern the island, and yet no native Government has arisen to take her place. Cuba, therefore, is in a state of anarchy, and as American commercial interests and the safety of the lives and property of American citizens are bound up with the preservation of order on the island, there is a growing feeling in this country that the time is coming when, to use Mr. Fish's words, "it may be the duty of other governments to interfere, with the view of bringing to an end a disastrous and destructive conflict." This, as Mr. Fish's note proposing representations to European governments shows, means intervention either singly or in combination with European powers.

It would certainly be a singular spectacle to find ourselves, ten years after requiring the withdrawal of the French from Mexico in obedience to the Monroe Doctrine, inviting all the European governments to repeat the Mexican experiment in Cuba, and we are sorry not to have had as yet any intimation of the view taken by the French Government of the proposal. But, leaving this out of view, intervention involves the provision of a remedy for the evils of which we complain, and of what this remedy is to be Mr. Fish gives no intimation. The American system of government offers no room for dependencies governed by the army; and Cuba as a state with universal suffrage would be so broad a farce that it cannot be seriously considered. The alternative suggested by Mr. Fish in his despatch of a year ago, that Cuba's manifest destiny is to become one of the family of American republics, is not a whit better, there being no reason whatever to suppose that American lives and American property would be safer under a Cuban Republic than they are under Spain. Nevertheless, we have assumed a very threatening attitude, and have informed Spain that if she does not govern Cuba she must leave it, or we cannot be answerable for the consequences. What, then, is to be the next move? Spain evidently has no stomach for fighting, and we have declared that the present state of things cannot continue. Spain cannot govern the island. The island cannot govern itself. We cannot allow a European protectorate. What can be done?

The whole difficulty in the case arises, we believe, simply from the mistake made by Mr. Fish in drawing upon his imagination for the postulates upon which all his arguments and threats are based. He brings forward no facts to prove his case, and we venture to say that every intelligent man who has watched the course of the Cuban question and the drift of public feeling upon it here for the last three or four years, knows that his whole foundation is pure assumption. The impulse which republicanism, bad and good, all the world over, received from the success of the North in the war of the Rebellion, did for a time furnish an unhealthy stimulus to the so-called Cuban Rebellion. A Cuban Republic was established in New York, Cuban bonds were put on the market, and Cuban filibusters sailed from our ports to reinforce the volunteers on the island. There was even a Cuban President, and a show of an army in the field. Within the past three or four years the condition of affairs has wholly changed. The Cuban Junta in New York is disorganized and in a moribund condition, the Cuban bonds have degenerated to the level of non-negotiable claims upon a non-existent promisor, the filibusters have been put down, the *Virginius* is at the bottom of the ocean, and her only remaining imitator, the *Edgar Stewart*—if indeed she was designed for a descent on Cuba—has been caught and stopped. The Cuban army has apparently disbanded, and does not any longer engage even in bloodless battles, such as it formerly fought; and the Cuban President is an official whom it requires a good deal more knowledge than we pretend to possess to identify.

These facts are so undeniable that, although Mr. Fish in his despatch talks about a "disastrous and destructive conflict," and represents the state of affairs to be getting continually worse and worse, General Grant, in his message, announces that there is no war going on. Mr. Fish declares that the state of affairs has grown so bad that we must be thinking about intervention. Yet, if we are to take General Grant's declaration as authoritative (and in these matters the Secretary of State is not supposed to have a "policy" of his own), we are forced to the conclusion that they have grown so much better that there are no Cuban belligerents and not even a *de-facto* Cuban Government. As to the drift of public opinion in this country, it is difficult to read what Mr. Fish says without a smile. He represents the Administration as engaged in an almost hopeless struggle to repress the fury of the American people, justly aroused by the repeated outrages of the Spaniards. Like the master of ceremonies in the well-known story relating to the fabled Giascutus, he tells the expectant audience that "he hopes" to get the animal "under," but is unable to express a confident opinion on the subject. When we look for evidence of this fury, where do we find it? Where are the public meetings; where are the newspaper articles; where are the petitions to Congress? Since the *Virginius* war-meetings of three years ago, there has not been the faintest ripple of excitement in favor of Cuba anywhere in the country.

Mr. Fish lays particular stress on the decline of commerce with Cuba; but here again the facts utterly fail to support him. The commerce is increasing and not decreasing, as the following figures, which we reproduced the other day from the *Commercial Bulletin*, show:

EXPORTS FROM THE UNITED STATES TO CUBA.

1868–9	$12,643,000	1871–2	$13,168,500
1869–70	13,091,000	1872–3	15,231,000
1870–1	14,200,000	1873–4	19,597,000

IMPORTS INTO THE UNITED STATES FROM CUBA.

1868–9	$58,201,000	1871–2	$67,720,000
1869–70	54,056,000	1872–3	77,469,000
1870–1	58,240,000	1873–4	86,272,000

In the face of these figures, Mr. Fish's assertion that the "ravages of war" have "well-nigh ruined" the relations of Cuba "to the commerce of the world" read very queerly, particularly as he gives no figures of his own.

With regard to the *Virginius* massacre, Mr. Fish states the only existing grievance to be that General Burriel and the other principal offenders have not been punished for their part in the tragedy. But an isolated affair of this kind is hardly a sufficient cause for intervention. The *Virginius* was an armed war-vessel, which our Government let loose on a Spanish colony in defiance of international law and our own neutrality laws, through culpable negligence. The Spaniards caught the ship and put her commander and crew to death. The objection to the execution was its haste and brutality. But, though this butchery was in itself shocking to the feelings of civilized mankind, violent death, after all, is no more than the ordinary risk of the filibuster's trade, and to undertake to govern Cuba because Spain has been dilatory in the performance of her promise to punish General Burriel, would be going rather far. Mr. Fish, going the rounds of Europe inviting the kings and emperors over here to do what his predecessor drove one of them out for doing, has already approached Great Britain on the subject, and, strange to say, there is no evidence of any desire in England to interfere in any way. Now, England is in the same position with regard to the *Virginius* massacre that we are. Her

citizens have been butchered as well as ours, and money damages have been paid in both cases. Her shocking indifference is, we suppose, to be explained by her stingy shabit of balancing expenses against results.

If any foreign government were to threaten intervention in the affairs of the United States, on the ground of the existing anarchy in the State of Mississippi, we should be, no doubt, justly surprised; yet any foreign government could make up quite as good a case for such intervention as we have against Spain as to Cuba. It could produce a speech made by a prominent senator of the United States, accompanied by a vast amount of sworn evidence, showing conclusively that it is as much as a man's life or property is worth to venture within the confines of the State; it could produce any quantity of evidence that the Government in many parts of the State is nothing but organized plunder, and that trade and commerce have almost been brought to a standstill; and it could prove from the Constitution of the United States that the Federal Government has no power to interfere. This is precisely the kind of anarchy which Mr. Fish declares exists in Cuba.

There would, we believe, be no serious difficulty with Spain if Mr. Fish would, in his discussion of the subject, confine himself rigidly to the actual facts. These are simply claims such as we have had against all governments, arising out of injuries to American citizens; in such cases, when the obligation of a government to protect foreign property is violated, the usual remedy is to demand money, and the ease with which we compelled Spain, at a time when we were utterly unprepared for war, to pay the *Virginius* damages, and even to promise, in a certain contingency, to perform a public act of contrition by a salute to the flag, shows that this remedy is available. But if, at the very time the head of the Government is explaining to Congress that there is no state of war on the island, and when commerce with the island is steadily improving, the chief cabinet officer is calling all Europe to witness the fact that "the ravages of war" have "well-nigh ruined" the commerce of the island; if, when there is no evidence on the subject, he will insist on the public feeling in the United States being so excited that it may "force events"; if, in short, he discovers facts where none exist, and suppresses those in existence when they become inconvenient, he can hardly expect his conclusions to be binding either upon the public mind or his successors in office. The true way out of the dilemma in which he seems to have placed us lies not in assaulting the imposing diplomatic superstructure he has raised, but in attacking the foundation, the extreme shakiness of which threatens already to bring the whole edifice down about his ears.

PROFESSORIAL PAY.

THE debate on the West Point appropriation, while it revealed in a gratifying way a desire among some of the members to let the School alone, or at all events to deal fairly with it, suggests some possibly useful reflections as to the condition of the popular mind about the pay of professional teachers. Teaching is one of the three or four callings for which it is ordinarily believed and said no man can be too good. No combination of mental powers and moral excellence is, in popular opinion, thought sufficient to raise a man above the position of an instructor. A first-rate man may be unfit for it, but he cannot be superior to it. The literature of the day, moral, political, and religious, is indeed full of magnification of the teacher's office, and of comment on its awful sacredness and importance. Now, it is a remarkable fact, in view of all this, that there is the greatest reluctance to apply to it the standard by which the value of nearly everything else is estimated—the money standard. A teacher cannot get in school or college, anywhere in the country, more than the pay of a clerk in a store or counting-room. In the very highest places in his calling he seldom receives the pay of a good book-keeper in a commercial house of moderate pretensions, and his salary is fixed, on the whole, in accordance with the popular view of fitness and expediency. The estimate is arrived at in two ways. Under one view, he ought not to get any more money, because his place can always be filled at that rate. According to another, he ought not to wish for more, and more would be injurious to him morally. His work is of such a lofty character that, if he is worthy of it, he will not care about money; if he does care about it, it shows he is not the man for his place. The answer to all objections to these views usually is: If teaching be underpaid, how does it happen that there are so many teachers in the market? Then, as in the recent debate in Congress, many people are satisfied that it is good for teachers and professors and people of that class to be economical. Economy is not ordinarily agreeable; few persons practise it themselves if they can avoid it, and, indeed, life to most persons in the United States is passed in an arduous struggle to escape the necessity of it. But everybody, while disliking it himself, thinks it would be good for his neighbor, and likes to see his neighbor practising it, and all, or nearly all, are agreed that, whatever doubt there may be about its usefulness in other cases, all schoolmasters and professors are the better for it, and would be seriously injured by being enabled to avoid it. A moderate anxiety about the food and clothing of his family is, in fact, considered by a large proportion of the public a kind of wholesome and indispensable stimulus to the scholar. It is thought injurious to the lawyer, doctor, or merchant, but somehow it purifies and elevates a minister or college professor. All through the debate in Congress, it was evident that the majority of the members would have considered a professor in easy circumstances something in the nature of a scandal.

Now, the effect of money on the character of the teacher is something we do not mean to discuss; but we think it is desirable to point out one way in which the teaching profession is seriously damaged by the prevailing opinion that its pay ought to be low. It is not possible in these times to set apart any profession, class, or calling as one needing a special regimen, nor is it possible to prevent the prevailing desire for money from reaching any class or calling. You may refuse to give its members money, but you cannot prevent their wishing to get it. The ascetic spirit is comparatively dead among us. We have various ways of using money, but we all want to use it. The man who would scorn to spend it in horses, or wine, or fine cookery, or furniture, would like to spend it in books, or pictures, or travel, or charity. In fact, everybody secretly feels that he would be improved morally by being rich, and that there are certain noble traits of character in him which nothing short of a million would bring out prominently. The ministers and teachers and professors cherish these convictions, in varying degrees of strength, as well as the merchants and manufacturers, and the worst of it is that the money-making people, in spite of their lofty view of the teacher's vocation, take it for granted that the professorial people cherish them; therefore, the common rough, popular view of a teacher is not that he is a saint or devotee who likes poverty, but that he has, like other men, gotas much money as he could and as much as he is entitled to. To "the average man," therefore, a minister, schoolmaster, or professor is not a hero, sacrificing himself for his fellows, but a "fifteen-hundred-dollar man" or a "three-thousand-dollar man," who has got into a poor business and cannot get out of it.

There are some shrewd people who think it well that the community is able to secure the services of able and conscientious men at starvation wages, and that having once got into the harness they cannot escape. But then, inequality and injustice are things that are pretty sure to defeat their own objects sooner or later. It is not possible in our day, when so little jurisdiction is left to custom and tradition, to keep any callings requiring exceptional mental and moral qualities underpaid. The effects of scanty remuneration in any profession we rarely detect. They are seen not so much in any diminution of zeal or activity in the men already in it as in the repulsion of the younger men who have not yet chosen their profession. Every calling is constantly making a silent, invisible draft on the talent and energy of the country, which is strong

or weak in proportion to the attractiveness of the prizes which it offers, and men make up their minds whether to enter it or not at an age while choice is still free, and when ambition and hope are still strong. They do not, however, publish their reasons for going into any particular calling or put them on record anywhere; but everybody who knows young men knows what they are. Men beginning life do not ask for certainties, but they do ask for a fair chance of pecuniary ease and social consideration if the prospect of wealth be wanting; and year by year and generation by generation the ability of the community turns away from professions in which this chance is small. At the present moment, the difficulty which every college finds in getting men of a high grade for the leading professorships is great, and grows steadily, and the cause is obvious. When a young man sees a first-rate man teaching the rudiments of French or German, or correcting the grammar or spelling of freshmen's themes, on $3,000 or $4,000 a year, he secretly resolves that he will not commit himself to any vocation in which such a waste of great gifts is possible; and in like manner, when he reads a debate in Congress approving of an attempt to discover the exact sum on which a military instructor can keep body and soul together, he determines that the service of the Government in any such capacity shall never be his business. In short, we have in our whole educational machinery done what we could to discourage the ambition and energy and capacity of each generation from entering the very callings in which energy and capacity are of most importance to the State, and we drive them into the already overdone work of material production. The only exception to this rule is the work of legislation, in which the legislators have taken care to make their own pay keep pace with the depreciation in the value of money.

THE BRITISH ARMY.

LONDON, January 16, 1876.

ENGLAND has periodical fits of her old military spirit. They are brought on mainly by an uncomfortable feeling of insecurity, but partly by an undercurrent of energy which, though latent, wanders about uneasily seeking for an outlet. The military class, as distinguished from the civilian class, is small, but it exists. It is represented, as it ought to be, near the throne, but it is not influential in the country. It might clamor from one year's end to another for increased armaments, but no one would listen to it. The military note must be struck much lower down the social scale. It must reverberate round and among the comfortable people who make up the middle classes of the community before it makes impression upon Parliament or upon the country. Panic, or something approaching to panic, finds its way into the breasts of the comfortable classes more rapidly and more effectively than a fit of energy or a desire for military glory. But when, whether by panic or, it may be, by a sense of indignity offered to the flag or the honor of the country, the great middle classes are roused from their inertness and their excessive desire for an easy life, the energetic and military classes are not likely to lag behind, and then we come face to face with the phenomenon of the military spirit of old England rising up to assert itself and to show that it was only dormant while men thought it dead. We went through a phase of this kind in 1852, when Louis Napoleon struck down the liberties of France and menaced England. Then we resuscitated our defunct militia, and entered on a career of expensive shipbuilding which has cost us many millions. We had another bad attack some years later when the French colonels made themselves ridiculous by calling upon their emperor to lead them at once across the Channel, and the Parisian gamins began to call out "à Londres" as they cried "à Berlin" in 1870. Then it was that we commenced an hermaphrodite military system by organizing our volunteer corps. The first symptoms of what threatens to be a serious attack are beginning to show themselves in the body politic at the present time, and, before the summer heats come on, we shall be in a tolerably advanced stage of the military fever.

People are awakening to the fact that this "money-logged island" is in what might turn out to be a defenceless condition. In the good old days we trusted to "the silver streak of sea" which separates us from Continental nations, and to our wooden walls. But the silver streak is not so formidable as it was when the first Napoleon chafed and fretted over the futility of his Boulogne flotilla seventy years ago, and Lebrun-Pindar sang, in anticipation, the dirge of London—

> "Tremble, nouvelle Tyr, un nouvel Alexandre
> Sur l'onde où tu régnais va disperser ta cendre;
> Ton nom même n'est plus!"

and the wooden walls have given way to steam and iron. We have, I suppose, as good a fleet of the new kind as any other nation—perhaps as any two other nations—and we have the old material out of which our sailors have been formed. But the conditions of naval warfare are completely changed. No one can predict the issue of a naval war between two first-rate powers. No one can say whether, under the new conditions, the old superiority of our men would avail us much. The chances are that British seamanship and British pluck would tell on board an iron-clad as they used to tell on board a wooden ship. But the comfortable classes do not like to trust to chances. The disasters of our "submarine fleet" during the last five months, and the fatuous incapacity which revels for the nonce at the Board of Admiralty, have startled the comfortable classes and made them feel about uneasily. What are we to fall back on, they say, if our navy were to fail us? Suppose, for the sake of argument, that we were at war, and that, by a series of misfortunes and unforeseen eventualities developed by the new conditions of naval warfare, our fleet were unable to resist a successful landing on our shores, what is there to prevent the enemy from marching from the coast to London, from London to Liverpool, and from Liverpool to Glasgow? The argument is suggestive of a bad nightmare produced by a city-corporation dinner where all the comfortable classes of the county dined together. But once stated it is difficult to answer, and it raises up a mountain of speculation, interesting perhaps to lookers-on, but grievous to surmount.

We have, I believe, an army numbering some 188,500 men; a militia numbering 116,000; some 172,000 volunteers, and 12,600 yeomanry cavalry. We have also 31,000 pensioners and reserves, and a great many honorary colonels. The total strength, therefore, appears not inconsiderable—on paper. It approaches a force of 500,000 troops, and if all these troops were efficient and available I do not think that the most timid of the comfortable classes would have much reasonable ground for alarm. But, unfortunately, we have not much confidence in their efficiency or availableness. The militia and the volunteers would prove of little value, authorities tell us, against trained troops: I am not competent to form an opinion upon this matter, but if I may judge by the appearance of an ordinary militia regiment out for three or four weeks' annual drill, I should not be without anxiety for the welfare of my country if even one battalion of regular troops were pitted against the entire body of 116,000. As for the volunteers, I should be the last man to disparage the physical benefit which shopkeepers' apprentices and city clerks derive from the movement, but I should imagine that a prudent general would reserve the period of their baptism of fire until every other resource had failed him. That the material of the volunteers, and of the militia too, is excellent I do not doubt, but time would be required to bring both branches of the service into working order. Recent wars, however, do not encourage the notion that time would be allowed for preparation. Wars are short, sharp, and decisive. While our militia and volunteers were practising the goose-step in barracks, the enemy might have overrun the country, reduced us to submission, and gone home again.

Our regular army is, of its size, most excellent, but nearly one-half of it must always be in India and on foreign service, and what we have at home it is not easy to keep together. The old recruiting system, under which smart non-commissioned officers, with long ribbons streaming from their caps, frequent likely street-corners in the vicinity of public-houses, for the purpose of picking up male waifs and strays who are willing to enlist, does not seem to answer. Even Mr. Gathorne Hardy, the present War Minister, and a steadfast believer in old institutions, expressed some anxiety as to the success of this time-honored system. Nearly 4,000 men deserted, he said in introducing the army estimates two years ago, in 1873, and the percentage upon recruiting was about 33 per cent. of the whole. In the infantry of the line it was 30 per cent., in the foot-guards 51 per cent., and in the army-service corps it had attained the extraordinary proportion of 146 per cent., so that if the corps were not recruited a little more assiduously the whole of it would soon melt away. We could not, I suppose, muster 100,000 regulars all told for home defence, and even this handful of men would be scattered all about the islands. This, it may be frankly admitted, is not satisfactory.

There is a good deal of talk about the state of the army just now, and the impossibility of securing an adequate number of recruits by the present methods of enlistment. Everybody has a remedy to propose. The Commander-in-Chief, the Duke of Cambridge, has publicly asked for more money

and that means an additional penny or twopence on the income-tax. The Conservative Government may grant his request, but, inasmuch as we spend more than thirty-two millions sterling each year upon our Home and Indian armies—or about the same amount as the armies of Germany, France, and Austria cost collectively—they will incur a dangerous amount of unpopularity by doing so. The War Office has published a scheme of mobilization of such troops, regular and auxiliary, as we have, but (though it looks well on paper, and is admitted generally to be a step in the right direction, and an indication of activity at headquarters) competent critics consider it faulty in detail and unnecessarily costly. The veteran Lord Grey has a prescription, which he has offered to the country through the *Times*. And now Mr. Holmes, the member for Hackney (best known as Mr. Fawcett's colleague), is addressing audiences nightly and expounding his remedy, which is neither more nor less than a subversion of some of the most cherished traditions of English military life. Mr. Holmes, unfortunately for the success of his scheme, is a cotton-spinner, and consequently the kind of animal that military authorities despise. But the public are not more prejudiced against a cotton-spinner than they are against a colonel, and they would give the cotton-spinner a fair hearing even on military matters, provided he showed ability and moderation. Mr. Holmes has, on the whole, answered the test, and he has succeeded in exciting a good deal of attention. His supporters, however, have not exhibited so much wisdom. They have shown a tendency to interweave their political crotchets, such as the abolition of the Contagious-Diseases Acts, into the web of military reform, and thereby damaged a good case. Mr. Holmes's system, so far as he has expounded it, is shortly this. He would abolish the militia because it is a sucker rather than a feeder of the army—the best men being always recruited into it, and being imperfectly trained when they are there. He would have only one force for home service. This force would not consist of one large army, but of several small ones decentralized and localized each in its own native district. The men would be enlisted for seven years, but would remain only two years with the colors. The remaining five years they would be in the reserve, earning their living as civilians, receiving a small portion of their pay when they come up for drill each year, and the bulk of it at the expiration of their time. For foreign service the pay would be higher, and the recruits who elected to go on foreign service would be required to enlist for the full seven years' active service. Considerable reductions would be made in the unnecessarily large number of officers, and a considerable saving would be secured, Mr. Holmes thinks, by knocking the centre War-office on the head. This system its author calls a modification of the Prussian system, of which he approves. But speaking, as he does at present, to Radical audiences, who have been taught by their leaders to regard conscription as a "blood-tax," Mr. Holmes seems to think it necessary to suppress the fact of conscription in the Prussian army. But conscription, or compulsory service, is the cardinal point of the Prussian system and the keystone of his own, and this is precisely what Mr. Holmes will not face. If he proposes to remodel the British army on a new system, he must have the courage to follow where his system leads. Short service can only answer in combination with compulsory service. As soon as Mr. Holmes is prepared to carry out his principles to their logical conclusion he will find attentive audiences, but I am not sure that those of Sheffield and Manchester will cheer his dry logic as lustily as they did his warm invectives against the existing system and the annual expenditure.

Though an amateur physician, I too have a cure for the military ills which oppress us, but I fear you will hardly give me space at the end of this long letter to prescribe it. Put very shortly, it is this: Let us face the necessity of compulsory service if we wish to feel secure at home and to exercise some little influence abroad, but let us make our compulsory service as light as possible. Let us begin it early; take it when we are young, like measles, and be all the better for it. Compulsory military training should be enforced at every elementary school as strictly as reading, writing, and arithmetic, and no boy should be permitted to leave his elementary school until he has satisfied the authorities of his proficiency. Such training could not be otherwise than of physical benefit to the recipient, and, once thoroughly acquired, it would never be forgotten. One year's regular service with the colors—say at the age of twenty—would then be sufficient to make the stupidest man effective, and a fortnight or three weeks' drill each year thereafter during the period of service in the reserve would be all that was necessary to preserve efficiency and to qualify the soldier to meet on equal terms the best-trained army in the world, and to give a good account of it if it should be rash enough to land on these shores. Compulsory service to this extent would not be grievous, and every male who was not physically disqualified should be compelled to undergo it. If Mr. Holmes would engraft this proposal upon his own scheme and persuade the public to accept of it, I believe he would render real and valuable service to his country. Some years would necessarily elapse before the scheme would take root and come to maturity. Our descendants would reap the benefit of our forethought, and the comfortable classes of the future, after the male members of them had served their time, would rest in peace, and sleep in their beds with a conscious feeling of security.

MADAME GEOFFRIN.

PARIS, January 14, 1876.

THE confusion of classes and of ranks did not begin with the French Revolution. It would be very interesting to study what may be called the democratic spirit in the French theatre, especially in the theatre of Marivaux. Read, for instance, the 'Fausses Confidences,' and you will find in it a curious sort of equality, not the equality arising from justice, the equality of right; it might be called the equality of sentiment. The eighteenth century was the century of *sensibility*; Rousseau was the doctrinaire of the heart.

A curious instance of the new equality which was assuming its rights in the eighteenth century may be found in the famous Madame Geoffrin, the so-called "mother of the Encyclopædia" and the patroness of the philosophers. If you look at the facts, and if you try to find the secret of her great influence, you are astonished to discover that she was of obscure birth, the daughter of a valet-de-chambre of the Dauphin. At fifteen years of age she was married to a manufacturer; Geoffrin was one of the founders of the first establishment where glass was made in France; it was formerly imported from Venice. He made a good fortune and left it to his young wife. He does not seem to have ever been noticed by anybody. A gentleman who returned to Madame Geoffrin after a journey, asked her once: "What has become of the old gentleman who always sat silent at your table and never said a word to anybody?" "Oh! I know whom you mean; he is dead." "What was his name?" "He was my husband" This conversation would not give a correct idea of Madame Geoffrin. She was not *légère*, indifferent; her peculiarity, on the contrary, was to be serious in a light age. She did not rise to fame by her love-affairs, like Mademoiselle de L'Espinasse; she had no *friend*, like Madame Du Deffant; her reputation always remained quite intact; she had no disposition for what was called *galanterie*; she was sociable, and nothing more. She had all the sterling qualities of true sociability; she was eminently discreet; she could keep a secret; she was faithful to her friends, constant; she took unremitting pains to bring people together, and to match them with art; she was not brilliant in conversation, but she could make her visitors talk; she knew how to keep a *salon*—an art which will soon, I am afraid, be extinct, thanks to the progress of civilization, to politics, and races, skating-rinks, operettas, pantomimes, extravagance of dress, and general absurdity and costliness of life.

Madame Geoffrin was left, at the death of the good and silent glass manufacturer, with a good income, but surely her dinners could not be compared to the most frugal repasts of one of our speculators in Peruvian or Ottoman funds. Otherwise, she could not have had, every Wednesday, at her table the philosophers—such men as Montesquieu, Voltaire, Diderot, Helvetius, D'Alembert, Raynal, Grimm, Marmontel, Maupertuis, Gibbon, Hume, Horace Walpole; every Monday, the artists, Bouchardon, Vanloo, Vien, Latour, Boucher, Cochin, Vernet, Soufflot, the Comte de Caylus. The philosophers were not fed with the black broth of the Spartans, and the artists have in all ages had the reputation of being *gourmands*; but the dinners and suppers of the last century were not at all the luxurious repasts of our time.

Madame Geoffrin had some points in common with Madame Récamier. This last lady was married very young to a gentleman who might have been her father; she had more beauty than Madame Geoffrin, but she kept her friends enslaved chiefly by the charm which distinguished people found in a *salon* where they could always meet each other; she had refined and cultivated tastes, she spoke very little herself except in the *tête-à-tête*, but she knew admirably how to *draw* people and how to place her literary diamond in the best possible light. She also found adorers among princes, and the Prince Augustus of Prussia was to her what Prince Poniatowski, who became King of Poland, was to Madame Geoffrin. The only Poniatowski now universally known in France is the unfortunate general who served in the great army of Napoleon I., and who was drowned in the Elbe River after the battle of Leipzig. The Poniatowskis were not originally Poles; they were Italians, like the Gondis and the Broglios, who became the Broglies. The family came from Lombardy, and

bore the name of Torelli. One of them married, in the seventeenth century, the daughter of Albert Poniatow, and took the name of Poniatowski; the father of Madame Geoffrin's friend, Count Stanislas, married a Princess Czartoryska, and by this alliance found a place in the highest nobility of Poland. He was one of the companions of Charles XII., whose adventurous life has been narrated by Voltaire. After having been a soldier, he became a diplomat, and was sent in 1753 to the court of Louis XV., accompanied by his fourth son. This young nobleman was very handsome, and the Duchess of Brancas wrote on this subject to Madame Geoffrin: "No foreigner ever came to us under greater advantages." At that time, Madame Geoffrin was already more than fifty years old. Count Stanislas-Auguste was introduced to Madame Geoffrin, and found much amusement in her *salon*. He took a great interest in art and literature, and quite adopted the tone of the philosophers. You shall judge of it by his somewhat coarse imitation of the allegorical style of the time. I find these lines in a letter he wrote on the subject of the family of the Sirvens, who had become, like the Calases, the *protégés* of the great philosopher. "I have seen," he writes to Madame Geoffrin, "in the letter which Voltaire sends to you *Reason* addressing itself to *Friendship* in favor of *Justice*. If I ever make a statue of Friendship I shall give it your features. This *Divinity* is the mother of *Benevolence;* you are mine since some time." Madame Geoffrin had become the "mother" of this foreign prince; she gave him his second education, and, though we may laugh now at the letters he wrote her, there was something rather touching in this devotion of the proud and handsome Pole to a French "bourgeoise."

Something extraordinary was expected from him; a magician had predicted that he would some day wear the crown. At an early age he was named ambassador to the court of St. Petersburg, and he became the lover of Catherine, the niece of the Empress Elizabeth, who was married to Peter of Holstein-Gottorp, accepted by the Empress as heir to the crown. Poniatowski was only then twenty-five years old; he was intoxicated with the favor shown him by the Princess Catherine, and little suspected that this favor would be the cause of all his misfortunes. The future Empress had taken his measure. She saw in him the vanity, the credulity, the generosity, the weakness which could make him an easy prey. Her vices were the covering of a deep-seated ambition; she resolved to make a king of Stanislas-Auguste, so as to become the mistress of his kingdom. He became her candidate for the throne of Poland, and, as he had the support of the Czartoryski faction, he was elected. He gave his French "mamma" an account of the election—"there had never been such a tranquil, such a unanimous election." This tranquillity will be better explained if it is added that Catherine had sent ten thousand of her troops into Poland, and that Frederic II. stood ready with his army at the frontier. "The principal ladies of the kingdom," writes our vain Stanislas-Auguste, "were presented to me in the midst of the electoral field, in the midst of the squadrons of the nobility, and I have had the satisfaction to be proclaimed by the mouths of all the women as well as by the mouths of the men present. . . . Why were you not there? you would have voted for your son!" Madame Geoffrin must be pardoned if she felt a little over-exultant at this triumph of her affectionate and devoted son. "My dear son, my dear king, my dear Stanislas-Auguste"—she gives him all these names together. She saw herself the distant Egeria of a new Numa Pompilius. It was the fashion of the time to ask the philosophers for constitutions. J. J. Rousseau had made one; every friend of Madame Geoffrin thought himself able to conduct the affairs of a great empire; why should she not herself be afflicted by this innocent mania? She did not spare her advice to the new king; she offered to send him secretaries, men of letters, philosophers, who could assist him in his new duties.

The king often pressed Madame Geoffrin to make him a visit, and she finally decided to go to Poland, not a small enterprise in those ante-railway times. The Parisians admired the courage of "the Queen of Sheba, who went to admire the wisdom of a new Solomon." Marmontel called her "Truth on her journey." At Vienna, on the Prater, a carriage stopped hers; a gentleman alighted, and, bowing to her at the door of her carriage, said, "The King of Poland is very fortunate in having a friend like you." This gentleman was no other than the Emperor. In Poland, Madame Geoffrin was not long in discovering that the royalty of her "son" was merely nominal. There was a "great general of the crown," who disposed of all the brevets in the army, much more powerful than the great Constables had ever been in France. The noblemen were all-powerful; Frederic II. and Catherine of Russia had their partisans, and their ambassadors kept the king in constant awe. Madame Geoffrin had left Paris in June, 1766; she left Poland in September of the same year. It may be inferred that Poland and perhaps the king had disappointed her. Her parting letters are cold; nobody knows, as yet, not even any member of the Poniatowski family, what came between the "mamma" and her crowned "son." Madame Geoffrin preserved a discreet silence, she never complained of the King of Poland, she continued her correspondence with him, but it became formal, and "your majesty" was now visible in every letter. The moralist can easily understand that a clever "bourgeoise" of Paris, spoiled by the conversation of the cleverest men of her time, could not like the chains of a semi-Asiatic court. "Gratter le Russe et vous trouvez le Cosaque," says a French proverb, which probably can be applied to many Poles.

Madame Geoffrin had more pride than Stanislas-Auguste. When the first partition of the kingdom took place in 1772, he resigned himself, while she told him to abdicate. He was contented with a nominal royalty, and took a childish interest in works of art, pictures, statues; his heart was always in Paris. He told Madame Geoffrin to send him Diderot to console him in his misfortunes. Madame Geoffrin did not encourage him. "Diderot," she wrote him, "is a good and honest man, but he has such a *mauvaise tête*, he is so badly organized, that he never sees what he sees, he never hears what he hears exactly; he is like a man in a dream. Who believes in the reality of his dream? It is not so with Grimm, who is wise, who sees well, who has much *esprit*." She sent him Grimm in 1774. Her letters became rare from that time; she was becoming old and sick, and she died in 1777. She had enjoyed for fifty years a sort of intellectual power which was more solid than the power of Stanislas-Auguste. It is impossible to read the volume of correspondence just published without seeing her real superiority to her royal correspondent. Stanislas-Auguste did not fall with Poland, he waited too long, and at the second partition he was thrown away with contempt. Madame Geoffrin died, so to speak, on the throne.

If she has left no great literary work, not even a correspondence worthy to be compared with the letters of a Sévigné or of a Madame Du Deffant, she will always, in the literary history of France, hold a respectable place among the great men whom she helped with her great fortune, with her excellent advice, with her faithful friendship; she is worthy of respect for her unimpeachable morality in a corrupt age, and for her genuine love and admiration for intellectual greatness.

Correspondence.

THE DUTY OF PREACHING.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A few words only as to the propriety of clergymen's writing for papers conducted by scoundrelly publishers. I cannot say with Dr. Bacon that I sell my articles in the market and write for pay. I am sometimes paid, oftener not.

Do you insist that when the opportunity is offered to a clergyman to speak, as he supposes, important truth to many thousand readers, he should refuse because another man [in and by the same sheet is propagating lies and perpetrating frauds and swindles?

I have been wont to preach for years in a theatre, sometimes all a-reek with Saturday's vulgarity. Was I wrong?

I preach summer after summer in a park owned by a generous man whose morals I disapprove, and whose example, in some respects, I deplore. Am I wrong?

I know of no newspaper or other periodical that does not at times shock me. Shall I cease writing wholly?

I know of no church or meeting-house from which evil influences do not at times exhale. Shall I cease preaching?

I pray you reconsider your incisive and, to me, painful condemnations of the clergymen who write for papers of questionable reputation. My own sense of duty leads me to offer my words where they seem to be most needed. Accordingly, I send this to the *Nation*. Thos. K. Beecher.

Elmira, N. Y.

[This obfuscation of the clerical mind on questions of morals which used to be considered plain is an alarming sign of the times. If Mr. Beecher's preaching in the theatre has helped to draw audiences for vicious and vulgar plays, of course he was "wrong." If his preaching in the generous but immoral man's park stimulates his immorality, and aids its gratification, and increases the influence of his example, of course Mr. Beecher is wrong. Whether Mr. Beecher ought to cease preaching or writing is a matter on which we cannot,

with our present light, offer an opinion; but we think if he keeps on, his head ought to be cleared on certain fundamental questions. We must also pronounce the notion that the importance of any one man's preaching is so great and its influence likely to be so beneficial that any opportunity of preaching ought to be seized, no matter what the circumstances or conditions, a most absurd and immoral doctrine, hatched in a conceit which is quite out of date. The first duty of all of us is to live rightly and to avoid giving direct aid or countenance to rascality; preaching comes afterwards, but is not always an imperative duty. If a man cannot find a good place to preach in, silence is a lawful and honorable resource.—Ed. Nation.]

PROFESSOR BONAMY PRICE ON CURRENCY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I beg to express my strong sense of the great obligations under which I am placed towards you by your kind notice in your number of December 30 of my little book on 'Currency and Banking,' and more especially by your criticisms on a portion of its contents. It is hard for me to express in words the value which I attach to any comments on my statements on these subjects which proceed from high intelligence and a sincere desire of discovering the truth. I court this in every way; and I hope I am not deceiving myself when I add that I feel the most perfect readiness to modify or abandon any opinion shown to be erroneous.

But here I must ask for your indulgence to allow me to advance a claim which you suppose I do not make. Do not charge me with conceit when I say that I did intend my book to be strictly "a scientific treatise." If it is not, then I do not know what other book is in this region. I have studied these matters for years; it has been my most eager desire to search out every element of the subject, to face it, and to pronounce upon it, whether rightly or wrongly. If I have omitted any fundamental point, pray inform me of it, and I will thank you sincerely for the instruction; and, on the side of the matter given, will you forgive me for asking whether the radical questions, What is banking? what is a bank? have been looked in the face more fully and have received more essentially scientific treatment than in the work which you have been so good as to notice?

You describe my "creed as that of the extreme orthodox English school, from which I do not tolerate the slightest dissent." That is perfectly true in respect of the convertibility of the bank-note by specie payment—only for the word "extreme" you might almost have substituted the expression "universal." There are few Englishmen who advocate inconvertible notes for which coin cannot be procured on demand. But pray do not imagine that in these matters of currency, and especially of banking, I am regarded by English authorities as an orthodox person. There are few writers on banking who are looked upon by the oracles of the money-market and the writers of City articles as more hopelessly heterodox. This reputation does not disturb me. I have given the most complete and the most careful explanations of the positions I take up which were in my power, and no one answers me, though my writings have appeared in not a few of the leading periodicals of England as well as in the public press. I am pronounced unsound and heterodox, and the wise ones pass by me as one crushed by the awful shaking of their heads. Be it so; only I will pretend to be right till I am shown to be wrong. But what I here say must not be understood as applying in any way to America. In your country I feel that I have always had a fair field. The sting of my heresy, which wounds so sharply the great ones of banking in England, has no play in the United States. The trade of your great country, in its relations to banking, is not delivered over, to its endless injury, to the supreme discovery of banking genius that the charges for interest to be paid by merchants on discount must be governed by the Bank of England having a million or two of more or less gold in its reserve. No American journal or writer, as far as I am aware, lays down the movements of gold in the till of a single bank as the scientific principle that rules the rate of interest. You have not reached that point yet, and I hope you never may. If you feel any interest in the discussion, will you allow me to refer you to letters which I wrote to the *Daily News* on the 3d, 17th, 27th, and 31st of last December?

I hope I am not guilty of "that forgetfulness of the fact that bank-notes and bank deposits are in all essential particulars the very same in their nature and effects which seems to affect the economists and legislators of all countries." I fully accept the assertion in respect of the ordinary issues of private banks. It is as you say: these notes and the deposits are debts alike. They have incidents each of their own; but those are only details not affecting their essence. Deposits differ from one another in many particulars; some are much more exposed to the danger of being suddenly demanded, others, like many accounts at the Bank of England, may be reckoned upon as likely to remain undisturbed for long periods of time. So with the issues of private banks of unblemished credit; a large portion of them is permanently needed by the community, and will remain out in circulation if the issuer's credit receives no shock. But in both cases these notes and deposits are debts due on demand.

But the case is wholly different with the bank-notes which circulate under the name of the Bank of England, and which are those of which I chiefly spoke in reference to England. They are entirely different in nature from deposits. They are exposed to no danger, to no uncertainties, to no thought or watchfulness in dealing with them. They scarcely fall under banking. For all the issue of our fifteen millions, there is gold in the Issue Department, given for these notes by the public, and to be had for the asking; for the fifteen millions gold is not actually stored, but the Bank is required to invest these fifteen millions in Government securities. The notes then are made perfectly safe, and there is not the remotest chance of a single one of these notes being presented for payment, except in the event of an invasion or of civil war. Every feeling, therefore, associated with deposits is absent from the notes of the Bank of England.

But I am sorry to say that I cannot agree with you in holding that bank deposits ever circulate or constitute any part of the currency of a nation, unless you comprise under the term currency every form of the tool of exchange. In that case, all the items in the debts set down on the books of every shopkeeper become currency, as also the slips of paper on which insurance brokers bind themselves, and even the words uttered by the lips which effect so many commercial transanctions. Under such a definition, the word currency would acquire a vagueness which would destroy its value for scientific and practical purposes alike. It is true that I have not brought out in express terms that "a banker can increase the volume of the currency by writing figures in his depositors' pass-books in precisely the same way as if he could issue notes at pleasure," because I do not think that there is any currency in such writing, and because I have given the significance of both acts in other words. By handing over notes and by placing figures to the credit of his customer's account, the banker does the same thing; he bestows means of buying, he enables his borrower to buy. But in saying this, I "overlook no important class of cases in which artificial debts are created by the simple exchange of evidence of indebtedness between two parties." There is nothing artificial in these acts. In both alike the banker says: Go and buy, and I will pay. That the borrower borrows in order to buy is shown by your own illustration—"he goes forth and purchases a piece of property." But how does the banker mean to pay? with what resources? Clearly with what his depositors placed in his hands, or the public who hold his notes. The public and the depositor get these means by selling goods; there is no other possible way. If the banker chooses to tell another man to buy goods, and he—the banker—will pay for them before he is put in funds by a depositor or the public, then of course he performs an artificial act, and by so doing may place himself in insolvency.

But legitimate banking does not increase the price of property. A bank is only an instrument of exchange, like a sovereign, and the use of a sovereign adds to the price of nothing. But illegitimate banking may easily raise prices. If a banker bids a customer buy goods which he, the banker, does not possess the means to pay for, the banker performs an act of speculation, and all speculators may raise prices by purchasing what the market will not take off their hands except at a loss. The banking I spoke of was sound, good banking, which transfers means of buying derived from a seller to a man who wants to borrow in order to buy; but banking that makes no reference to wealth placed at its disposal by depositors, but simply authorizes purchases, without any reference to the means which banking by its very nature obtains from others, is not banking, but speculation without means, carried on by two persons acting in concert.

With your permission, I will endeavor to explain in a second letter the question of suspensions.

Bonamy Price.

Oxford, January 14, 1876.

Notes.

Harper & Bros. have in press an Homeric Dictionary for the use of schools and colleges. It will be based on Autenrieth's, and will be edited by Robert P. Keep, Ph.D., late U. S. Consul at Athens. With a

view to giving a correct idea of ancient costume, armor, navigation, sacrifice, etc., a number of illustrations of Grecian antiquities will be inserted in the text. The dictionary, though filling about 300 pages, will be of a size convenient for carrying in the breast-pocket.——J. B. Parker, Hanover, New Hampshire, has published in pamphlet form the very interesting address delivered at the last Dartmouth Commencement by Nathan Crosby. It is entitled 'The First Half-Century of Dartmouth College: being Historical Collections and Personal Reminiscences.' Nothing in the history of education in this country is more romantic than the foundation of Dr. Wheelock's missionary school in the wilderness, and no incident was of more vital consequence to the cause of education than the famous "case" which decided the inviolability of Dartmouth's charter. Pending the decision, Mr. Crosby was a student at Dartmouth, and his reminiscences of the exciting days of the "college" and "university" duality are highly graphic.——The pamphlet report of the 'Centennial Anniversary of the Pennsylvania Society for Promoting the Abolition of Slavery, etc.,' is chiefly remarkable for the list of members since its organization, which is given in the appendix. Drs. Benjamin Rush and Benjamin Franklin were among its presidents, and its honorary membership included the names of Granville Sharp, Thomas Clarkson, William Wilberforce, Lafayette, William Pitt, the Abbé Raynal, John Jay, Noah Webster, Samuel Hopkins, Moses Brown, Elias Boudinot, Ezra Stiles, Samuel Dexter, etc., etc. Many of these American celebrities were officers of similar societies in the neighboring States, and the eminent English and French philanthropists and statesmen doubtless regarded the honor as not an empty one.——The twenty-second annual report of the State Historical Society of Wisconsin shows the usual solid progress. The library now numbers about 32,000 volumes and as many pamphlets: there are 2,467 newspaper volumes alone. A particular account is given of the way in which the recently-acquired Perkins collection of prehistoric Wisconsin antiquities was amassed. Among the miscellaneous "additions to the cabinet" we remark "a set of cards of the three-card monte game, by which a passenger on the Union Pacific Railroad lost $1,500"!——Hurd & Houghton announce 'Glen Ridge Orchids,' a manual of the culture of orchidaceous plants, by Edward Sprague Rand, jr.——The Women's Centennial Executive Committee of Philadelphia is endeavoring to obtain information concerning the various forms of religious, philanthropic, and patriotic work organized or conducted by women in America and in foreign countries. A printed report will be the result. Brief accounts may be forwarded to Mrs. Aubrey H. Smith, 903 Walnut Street, Philadelphia.——The heirs of the late L. Rosenthal, whose famous library of Hebraica and Judaica ranks next after the Bodleian of Oxford and that of the British Museum (see the *Nation*, Vol. XX., p. 275), have resolved to dispose of it *en bloc* on condition that it shall always be kept together and shall bear the collector's name. Mr. M. Roest, Amsterdam, the accomplished bibliographer of this library, is charged with the negotiations for the sale of it.

—We are glad to learn that steps have been taken by some of the alumni of the Boston Public Latin School residing in this city to raise a memorial fund in honor of the late Dr. Francis Gardner. The application of it will, if the responses are sufficiently liberal, probably be towards founding a scholarship at Harvard in aid of deserving Latin-School graduates. All of Dr. Gardner's pupils (whether recent or of long standing) who desire to contribute to this object, are requested to send their addresses to Edward B. Dickinson, Secretary, 206 Broadway.

—The Society of Painters in Water-Colors opened on Monday, at the Academy, their ninth and best exhibition. A number of paintings showed unusual effort and novel dimensions, being intended for future use at the Centennial. Messrs. Coleman, Tiffany, Richards, Smillie, Nicoll, La Farge, and Magrath have particularly distinguished themselves. Many pictures were sold at the private view, even resold among the purchasers themselves at an advance, and the most gratifying evidences of public support were offered in every kind.

—Five numbers of the *American Archit ct and Building News* have now appeared (Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.), and these show that the enterprise is in good hands, and that the profession is to be congratulated on having so respectable and well-conducted an organ. In its general appearance it resembles the London journals of the same class. Each number is accompanied by two full sheets (four pages) of heliotype reproductions, partly of original designs by American architects and partly of selections from foreign work—the subjects in the latter case being often drawn from architects' note-books. Thus far, these reproductions have been only of line-drawings, but we hope that occasionally the publishers will show what can be done with their process from nature, especially in giving interior effects. This has been tried to some extent, and with good success, in the *Sketch-books* which preceded the *Architect*, and which, we imagine, can hardly escape being now merged in it. The editorial matter of the new journal has seemed to our lay judgment sensible and intelligent, and the selections, both of topics for comment and of professional news, such as to interest not merely architects but also the general reader. The fourth number, especially, is full of instruction to building committees. It gives an abstract of a projected tract on competitions, showing their advantages and their necessary and needless disadvantages, and when competitions are likely to be useful, and when they are certain to be disappointing. It is a tract which, for the sake of a higher architecture and the *carrière ouverte aux talens*, ought to be speedily completed and widely distributed; nor is it the only tract which is required to place architects in true relations to their clients, and to make their profession seem to have the same excuse for being that the lawyer's and the doctor's professions have.

—One sees on entering the New York office of Wells, Fargo & Co. a huge map of the United States, painted roughly on one of the side walls, and showing at a glance the railroad system of the continent. The example deserves to be imitated by our railway companies in their stations, where it ought to be a canon of the mural decoration that the geography of the road and its branches should be clearly spread out for the benefit of travellers. Tourists in France will readily recall instances of such treatment in the great depots of Paris. We learn from the last *Polybiblion* that the subject was lately brought before the Paris Geographical Society in a communication from the French consul at Rio. He called attention to the fact that the Brazilian Government obliges railroad companies to post in their stations certain geographical particulars concerning the locality, the province, and the whole territory of the empire. It appears that the Geographical Society of Lyons had already taken the initiative in a similar movement for France, with a view, however, to voluntary action on the part of the companies. We wish the American Geographical Society might bestow a little energy in the same direction over here, where large and costly stations are constantly going up. The architects themselves could do much if they would only take the idea to heart.

—Mr. Spofford's annual report on the condition of the Library of Congress possesses unusual interest. The total number of bound volumes is 293,507 (exclusive of bound pamphlets), and the annual rate of increase is from 16,000 to 18,000 volumes, about half of which are derived from the working of the copyright law. As many as 2,315 pamphlets were thought worth copyrighting in the thirteen months ending Dec. 31, 1875. In the same period the cash receipts from copyright were $13,151 50. This department of the library, if no other, will soon have to be housed elsewhere. As for ordinary book-room, it was long ago exhausted, and when books had been placed in double rows on the shelves the fresh accumulations had to be piled upon the floor. Mr. Spofford once more asserts the pressing need of a library building apart from the Capitol, fire-proof, and capable of indefinite extension. Until that is provided, the riches of our national collection will never be available. Mr. Spofford instances the vast store of unbound maps and charts, and of bound but unshelved periodicals, as being inaccessible for practical use. He shows that a library of Congress, properly so-called, could be left on the spot whenever the main body was removed; and he might have added that the means of annihilating space and time are now such that a book could be almost as readily procured a mile off as within the walls of the Capitol. The cataloguing force of the Library has been employed on the new general catalogue to be issued this year, and now passing through the press, and also on a complete index to the documents, debates, and laws of Congress. In this latter work they were partly anticipated by the Boston Public Library, which had made an approximately full index to the documents alone. Mr. Spofford recommends the adoption of this as a basis to a more complete index, and that it should be published not separately but as a part of the more comprehensive scheme, which, with proper clerical aid, can be finished in two years. The publication of selections from the French archives relating to the discoveries and explorations made in our Northwestern Territory from 1614 to 1752 has been begun. They will fill six octavo volumes of six hundred pages each.

—The *Gazette des Beaux-Arts* for January 1 (F. W. Christern) gives a number containing three hundred pages and one hundred pictures, all devoted to Michael Angelo. The best article is one by M. Guillaume, a professor of sculpture at the École des Beaux-Arts, on "Michael Angelo's Statues." There is point as well as novelty in his observation that the great sculptor reinforced his carved work with resources borrowed from his knowledge of painting. The unfinished parts of the Medici statues, for instance, improve the whole in feeling. "We should think of these *impastos*

not as a superfluity, but as a sort of condiment strengthening the mass, substitutions for black cavities that would have been too large, and as acting for the sculptor like backgrounds for the painter." "The body of Christ (in the St. Peter's Pietà) sinks by its heaviness into the draperies of the Virgin, and takes an appearance of bas-relief which is of the highest art."—The new French journal, *L'Art*, may now be had of Mr. Bouton, in the three bound volumes which cover the past year for little more than two-thirds of the subscription price. It is perhaps an improvement on the *Gazette* in audacity and critical independence; the rival journals might be defined as of the Ingres and anti-Ingres parties. Certain faults of opinion are patent, and it is not exempt from padding, but the owner of a year's numbers finds himself possessed of a mass of curious and live criticism and a fine collection of etchings—pictures which the large page of 13 by 18 inches enables to interpret most capably the paintings from which they are copied.—The *Portfolio* for January (same publisher) gives for a new year's present a frontispiece copied from Raphael's "St Catherine," in an etching by Le Rat; the style is in the austere hard-lined manner of Marc Antonio—a most appropriate treatment, and thoroughly able.

—We have in previous years referred to the efforts making to place the medical corps more nearly on an equality, as regards rank and pay, with the other branches of the army, and we regret to find that they have not yet succeeded. Congress, indeed, authorized examinations to be held for the junior assistant-surgeoncies, but, at the same time, abolished one-sixth of the surgeoncies, thus leaving those actually in service so much the worse off, and entirely failed to provide any higher grade than that of major. A memorandum that we have received shows that Congress is now asked to allow the four senior surgeons to rank as colonels, and the next eight as lieutenant-colonels. These seem little things, and less, not more, than justice. Among others, the paper makes these statements, which, we believe, cannot be gainsaid:

"The duties of a medical officer require for their proper discharge as much intellect and culture as those of any other branch of the service. And it may be asserted, without fear of contradiction, that the officers of that corps, as a body, have for many years past been recognized, both in the army and out, at home and abroad, as men who, in character, education, and scientific attainments, are in every way the peers of their brother-officers, with whom they have shared the fatigues of every march and the perils of every battle." "The inducements to engage in private practice are the prospect of increased income and reputation with advancing years. In the army these are represented by rank, not only because increased rank carries with it an increase of emolument, but also because to the army officer rank is well and properly understood to enhance the dignity of the person holding it, as well as the respect in which he is held by his compeers and subordinates." "If it is to be understood that these advantages are to be perpetually denied, it is vain to expect that medical men of talent will be willing hereafter to devote their lives to the arduous and unrequited duties of the medical corps."

The medical officers, as such, are powerless to influence directly the legislation that is necessary to meliorate their condition. They can create no lobby, and there is no ring to profit by the enactment. But we can commend their appeal to the sympathy and interest of good citizens, whether physicians or others.

—That the persistent reader of novels has often to look to foreign lands for supplies to keep himself occupied is a well-known fact. This has certainly been the habit with us Americans, while the Germans have given even more marked example of what may be called free-trade in fiction, for they have translated almost every novel from almost every language as soon as it has appeared. France and England, having a good supply of domestic manufacture, have preyed less upon their neighbors. Recently, however, the French have shown a slight modification of their former exclusiveness, and, to take the most prominent instance, the *Revue des Deux Mondes* has helped itself largely from outside sources, and a good many American authors within the last two or three years have had an opportunity to improve their French by translating their own stories from the classic pages of the *Revue* into their own more or less classical English or American. The number for Dec. 15 shows the existence of this interest in foreign literature, for it contains an article on Thomas Hardy's 'Far from the Madding Crowd,' and another on the novels of M. Sacher-Masoch. What is said on Mr. Hardy's story is very good, and the article is a capital example of the excellence of French literary handiwork, but it may be worth while to utter a word of warning against the praise given to Sacher-Masoch, while at the same time we express our gratitude for the information given us about his life. He was born in Galicia, in Little Russia, in the year 1836, and as a child he saw many of the horrors of the Polish insurrections of 1846 and 1848, which he afterwards made the subject of some of his stories. At first, while a professor at Grätz, he wrote short tales and plays with moderate success, but afterwards, when he devoted himself more exclusively to writing about the peculiarities of life in Little Russia, he became better known. Some of the best of his sketches have appeared in the *Revue* within the last three or four years. He is an open imitator of Turgenef, but he is a man of far less talent than his model. He, to be sure, like Turgenef in his 'Récits d'un Chasseur,' represents himself as wandering about the country, and so collecting material for his stories, but he always keeps himself well in the foreground. Almost all of his stories are marked by the blackest pessimism, by the side of which Turgenef's melancholy is almost jovial. His principal theme is the unloveliness of love, and certainly he manages to draw it in a very unattractive way. His discovery is this: "Love is the war of the sexes; each strives to subject the other, to make it a slave, a beast of burden—for man and woman are naturally enemies." It will be seen that he is an advanced thinker, far ahead of most of his contemporaries. It may be said, by the way, that this number of the *Revue* promises the beginning of a new story by Cherbuliez in the number for January 15. It is to be called "Le Fiancé de Mlle. Saint-Maur."

—The literary activity of the year 1875 in the field of history has perhaps been most marked in the histories of special nations. The old Heeren and Ukert series (now edited by Giesebrecht) is represented by the continuation of the 'History of Sweden' (Carlson), and 'Poland' (Caro), and the commencement of a history of Greece since the extinction of ancient life, by Hertzberg; the volume published comes down to Justinian I. The series of recent histories ('Staatengeschichten der neuesten Zeit') has witnessed the second volume of Mendelssohn-Bartholdy's 'Greece' (to the year 1835) and the second part of the second volume (to 1815) of Bernhardi's 'Russia,' from the year 1813; the present volume is devoted mainly to the earlier history of the country, while the first volume contains what is pronounced to be a remarkably valuable and instructive sketch of general European history since the time of Napoleon. The third volume of Pauli's 'England' since the Peace of Vienna embraces the period from 1840 to 1852. An important publication in this class is Meyer's 'Austria,' with especial reference to the history of civilization. We have also Capponi's 'Florentine History' and the conclusion of Guizot's 'France.' Of particular periods, the most noteworthy are: the conclusion of Arnold Schäfer's 'Seven Years' War,' no doubt the standard work upon this subject; the first volume (1376 to 1387) of Lindner's 'Germany in the Fifteenth Century'; Gardiner's 'England under the Duke of Buckingham and Charles I.'; the fifth volume of Kinglake's 'Crimean War'; the second volume of Michelet's unfinished 'History of the Nineteenth Century'—a work possessing many of the author's best and most characteristic qualities; and Taine's 'Origines de la France contemporaine'—a study of the *ancien régime*; 'Der Fall des Hauses Stuart,' by Onno Klopp, is from a strongly Ultramontane point of view; two volumes have appeared, reaching to the death of Charles II.

—In ancient history, a very important treatise upon Egyptian chronology is Riel's 'Sonnen- und Siriusjahr der Ramessiden.' The 'Records of the Past,' issued by the Society of Biblical Archæology, furnishes students with most valuable and authentic authorities for the early periods of the Oriental nations. The 'Histoire de l'Economie Politique des Anciens Peuples,' by Du Mesnil Marigny, has reached a second edition. Two English works are instructive for special aspects of Grecian history—Lloyd's 'Time of Pericles' and Mahaffy's 'Social Life of the Greeks.' Gaston Boissier, author of 'Cicéron et ses amis' and 'La Religion Romaine,' has just published a new work, 'L'Opposition sous les Césars.' Two writers of some distinction in this field have died within the year. Bishop Thirlwall had long finished his work, but Prof. Clason of Rostock was engaged in a continuation of Schwegler's 'Roman History,' the interruption of which will be a real loss. The completion of Smith's 'Historical Atlas for Classical and Biblical Geography' is, in spite of shortcomings in some respects, an event of importance. A series of 'Epochs' for ancient history, edited by Mr. Cox, is announced. Mr. Cox himself undertakes a period of Greek and Dr. Ihne of Roman history.

—On the border-line between ancient and modern times belong Ebert's 'Geschichte der Christlich-lateinischen Literatur' (to Charles the Great), forming the first volume of a history of mediæval literature (this is pronounced a model work); the first volume of Kremer's 'Kulturgeschichte des Orients unter den Khalifen,' which has also received the very highest commendation; Coulanges's brilliant 'Institutions politiques de l'ancienne France,' an admirable but somewhat one-sided study of the origin of feudalism; Arnold's 'Ansiedelungen und Wanderungen deutscher Stämme,' an ingenious and successful attempt to extract historical knowledge from local names; and Ficker's 'Forschungen zur Reichs- und Rechtsgeschichte Italiens.' In the line of modern biography may be mentioned Stubbs's 'Dunstan,' Odillon Barrot's 'Memoirs,' Köstlin's 'Luther'—pronounced a

biography of the first rank, although rather neglecting the political side of Luther's career—and the 'Life of Lord Shelburne.' Documentary collections are represented by Böhmer's 'Regesta of Charles IV.' (1346–78), published from his remains; Ritter's 'Briefe und Acten zur Geschichte des dreissigjährigen Kriegs,' bearing upon the author's history of the German Union; Steindorff's 'Jahrbücher of Henry III.'; and, perhaps most important of all, Prof. Rogers's collection of Protests of the Lords, invaluable for the study of English constitutional history. Roscher's 'History of Political Economy in Germany' is a most important contribution to the history of civilization. Under the head of constitutional history we have some important works: the second volume of Stubbs's 'Constitutional History of England'; the second volume of Mommsen's 'Römisches Staatsrecht'; and the fifth and sixth volumes of Waitz's 'Deutsche Verfassungs-Geschichte.' Lastly, we will mention Digby's 'Introduction to the History of the Law of Real Property,' and Sir Henry Maine's 'Early History of Institutions.'

—Francis Deák, the Hungarian statesman, who died on the evening of January 28, was born of a noble Catholic family, October 17, 1803. Having studied law, he was elected by his native county, Zala, a member of the Hungarian Diet of 1832–36, at a period when the patriotic agitation of Count Széchenyi and the tragic fall of Poland had roused in the nation a lively spirit of reform. But the legal nation of Hungary then consisted only of the nobility. Gradually to transform it so as to embrace the whole people of the country, and at the same time to preserve and extend the constitutional rights which the nobility had possessed and defended for centuries, was now the task of the reformers. Among these Deák, by his eloquence, close study of constitutional law, tact, and moderation, rapidly rose to the foremost rank. Re-elected to the Diet of 1839–40, he was the leader, without a rival, in the House of Deputies, while Kossuth, released from state-prison, instituted a more radical political movement as a journalist. To the Diet of 1843–44, which opened amid stormy party conflicts, Deák was unanimously elected in Zala, but the reactionary party soon after carried a resolution instructing the two representatives of the county to vote against the taxation of nobles. Deák, the champion of this measure, refused to take his seat, and remained firm in his resolution even when the instruction had been rescinded, this having been achieved by party means of questionable fairness. The county, throughout the Diet, remained represented only by one deputy. Impaired health prevented him from accepting a seat in the Diet assembled in 1847, in which Kossuth rose to leadership. The revolution of February, 1848, made the radicals masters of the field, and Deák accepted the portfolio of justice in the Batthyányi-Kossuth cabinet. This position was offered him, in fact, by a kind of national acclamation, he being even at that early period of his career universally considered a modern Aristides—a distinction which no act of his later years ever tended to impair. When the contentions between the Slavs and Magyars and the cabinets of Vienna and Pesth finally led to open war and the virtual dictatorship of Kossuth, Deák withdrew with Batthyányi and others, and during the further course of the fatal contest only once figured publicly in a vain attempt to end it by negotiation. He lived in retirement when the independence of Hungary was proclaimed in Debreczin, and consequently remained unmolested when Russian intervention had reinstated the Hapsburgs. The following ten years he spent in great part on his country estate, from which throughout his life he drew a small income, devoting a considerable portion of it, as he never married, to objects of benevolence and public utility. Repeatedly sounded by the statesmen of Vienna as to a possibility of restoring harmony between the court and the Hungarian nation, he refused to treat on any other basis but that of re-established constitutional legality, and firmly expressed his opinion that the nation had time to wait. Solferino, in 1859, finally convinced Francis Joseph that *he* had little time to lose, and during the six or seven years which elapsed in negotiations, while the Hungarian Diet was opened, dissolved, reopened, and prorogued, until Sadowa forced a settlement on the dynasty, Deák, then a deputy of the city of Pesth, was the oracle of the people, of the Diet, and ultimately of the court itself. His advice was far from being ambiguous. All he had to say to both sides was, unequivocal return to legality as it existed in 1848. Beust accepted this basis, the dualism on which the Austro-Hungarian monarchy now rests was organized, and Francis Joseph was, in 1867, crowned constitutional king of Hungary. Deák declined the honor tendered him of crowning the king, as well as the task of forming a cabinet. He continued till his death a member of the Diet, counselling moderation, reform, and the total separation of church and state. As an orator he was logic personified, and has been best compared with Canning and Bright. He was plain, cheerful, and fond of good jokes and anecdotes. Among the sketches of him is one by Laveleye, written for the *Revue des Deux Mondes* (1868). Though historically correct, it reads like a panegyric—naturally so.

THE INFLUENCE OF INDIA ON ENGLISH OPINION.*

SIR HENRY MAINE'S lecture suggests an enquiry which must have occurred to observers of modern England: Is it not probable that the possession of India may in the long run modify the course of English opinion? Various circumstances seem to justify an affirmative answer. It is certain that the apathetic indifference to Indian affairs which has for a long period characterized the English public, is rapidly becoming a matter of the past. During the last twenty years India has begun to excite the keen interest of Englishmen. The constant publication of works like Hunter's 'Orissa'; the avidity with which such books are read; the popularity of Professor Maine's own later writings, filled as they are with references to the customs of the East; the excitement caused by the Baroda trial; the reception of Chunder Sen; the increasing frequency with which distinguished Englishmen visit England's Oriental Empire; the journey of the Prince of Wales, wearisome as are its details and unimportant as it is in itself—are all signs of the set and current of popular feeling, and prove that the "proverbial dulness attributed by Englishmen to Indian topics," of which Professor Maine so justly complains, is a reproach which will be soon undeserved. For the changed attitude of the English nation towards the affairs of the East is not the result of a mere fashion or sentiment which, arising without cause, may any day pass away without reason.

The causes which have turned the attention of Englishmen towards the East are in part at least not hard to discover. The progress of mechanical invention has, for all practical purposes, diminished the distance between Great Britain and her Eastern possessions. The abolition of the East India Company, again, was much more than a mere change in administrative arrangements. It was the opening of a new career to the whole body of educated Englishmen. It made Indian affairs and Indian customs at once a matter of interest to every energetic young gentleman in want of a career. Much may be said in praise of the limited class of persons who, under the government of the Company, practically monopolized the administration of India. With the question whether the destruction of their monopoly was expedient or not we have no concern. What needs notice here is that the Company's system of government tended to make Indian topics interesting to a special class and uninteresting to those who did not belong to this class. The destruction of this system renders Indian affairs matters of interest to a large number of Englishmen to whom they were before indifferent. It also effects another change, which has not received much notice—it transfers the government of India in a great measure to the literary class. The young men appointed to the civil service under a system of competitive examination may have great merits or great defects, and may, for aught we know, compare in sterling worth either most favorably or most unfavorably with their predecessors appointed under a system of patronage. What is, however, certain, is, that the men who owe their appointment to success in examinations will have far keener literary interests than the hard-headed Scotchmen who, at the beginning of the century, were appointed by the influence of ministers and directors. The modern Indian civil servant must be, to a certain extent, a literary man, and influenced by the literary culture and sentiment of modern England. This is a matter of considerable importance when it is taken in combination with the fact that, as Professor Maine points out, India and the East are exciting the attention of all the scholars and students of the Continent.

It should further be noted that the whole progress of Continental politics makes it probable that England will not again play, or wish to play, a leading part in the contests which may arise between the great Continental powers. But the less part she performs in the conflicts which harass the Continent, the more certain she is to turn her energies and her interest towards the East. It is further natural to suppose that the gradual settlement of the questions of internal politics which have hitherto interested the minds of Englishmen will, while it lessens the acrimony of party spirit, diminish at the same time the attraction of domestic politics, and thus turn the attention of Englishmen more and more to the sphere in which there is still a free scope for all the administrative and political talent of the nation. The mere fact, indeed, that India will almost certainly become, as each year passes on, of more and more interest to the British public, might, it would seem at first sight, lead to the extension of English ideas throughout India, but would scarcely be ground for anticipating the production of

* 'The Effects of the Observation of India on Modern European Thought. The Rede Lecture delivered before the University of Cambridge, May 22, 1875, by Sir H. Sumner Maine.' London: John Murray.

any appreciable effect through the influence of India upon England. It must, however, be remembered that one race or nation cannot affect another without itself being affected by that other's influence. England may diffuse "that bundle of influences which we call progress" from one end of India to the other, but it were vain to suppose that English opinion would not itself be affected by contact with the ideas and habits of a different kind of civilization. A very slight observation either of the men who return from India, or of the books that they write, is sufficient to show that experience of the East affects the imagination of individuals who have felt its force. Take, for example, Mr. Fitzjames Stephen's 'Liberty, Equality, and Fraternity'—you can hardly pick out a writer who exhibits more strongly the vigor and the principles or prejudices of a genuine Englishman; yet his book bears on its face a fact which he does not try for a moment to conceal, that his stay in India has, we will not say modified, but certainly given a color to his opinions. If this is the effect of Indian experience on a thinker of the power and individuality of Mr. Stephen, it is not rash to assert that the same experience will, directly or indirectly, influence with tenfold greater force the large class of modern Englishmen who seem mainly distinguished by the facility with which they surrender established convictions, and adopt with easy sympathy any belief or opinion that commends itself to their sentiment or imagination. For, after all, the most substantial reason for anticipating considerable effects from the influence of India is to be found in the present condition of English opinion. The existence of unrestricted freedom of discussion, and the prevalence of the so-called historical method, combined with other causes, have for a time undermined the strength of all the fixed dogmas, beliefs, or prejudices, whether political, religious, or social, on which modern society has reposed. This chaotic state of opinion affords exactly the field in which new or strange views are certain to spread. Let the mass of educated Englishmen once realize the facts of Indian civilization, and their "way of looking at things," if not their actual opinions, is certain to undergo a revolution.

Nor is it hazardous to predict that the first though not the ultimate effect of lessons gathered from India will be to shake still further the already tottering fabric of received belief. Sir Henry Maine calls attention to the difficulty of making the dogmas of utilitarian philosophy which form the basis of English legislation, or the axioms of political economy which form the most certain part of the science of politics, square with the facts of Indian life. It may be true that the object of government "ought to be the greatest happiness of the greatest number," but the application of this principle is difficult when the sovereign and his subjects form diametrically different estimates of the nature of happiness. The principle that every one pursues his interest is again a fruitful axiom when applied to societies whose members take on the whole the same view of their individual interest; but an Englishman must find it hard to draw legitimate deductions from it when called to rule a race governed by custom rather than by habits generated by free competition, or to calculate what will be the conduct of men who think it their "interest" rather to starve than to eat food which might involve a loss of caste. Professor Maine is, we believe, perfectly right in maintaining that even the peculiarities of Indian society can, by a process of thoughtful investigation, be shown to confirm the great principles, though they may modify the minor rules, both of political economy and of scientific law; but men who are for the first time introduced to a state of society which seems inconsistent with received rules, are certain to doubt the soundness of the principles on which received beliefs depend. It should further be noticed that while the whole effect of modern European development is to increase the political power of the people and diminish the influence of individual rulers, the necessities of the case compel Englishmen to rule India in a mode which may be benevolent but is undoubtedly despotic; and it cannot be expected that administrators imbued with the principles of autocratic government should readily sympathize with the democratic spirit of modern England. India will constantly foster among Englishmen a feeling of aversion towards the very principles which are assumed as the foundation of English constitutional government.

If India is likely to influence English views of politics, she is still more likely to affect English theology. No one, of course, supposes that Englishmen will adopt the specific beliefs of their Eastern fellow-subjects, but Indian religion may for all this tell on English theology. It is possible, though perhaps not likely, that experience of India may in some cases produce strange views of Christianity. A religion which itself came from the East may wear a new aspect when brought into contact with Eastern life. It is, however, far more likely that the study of strange religions may, as its immediate effect, intensify scepticism. Indian experience certainly throws a remarkable light on some of the curious phenomena of the ancient world. No fact, for instance, seems less comprehensible to modern students than the deification of the emperors, yet Professor Maine believes that modern India exhibits a condition of popular feeling under which such deification might easily take place. "I am persuaded," he writes, "that nothing would be easier for the British Government than to obtain that deification and worship which have seemed to some so monstrous when they were given to the Roman emperors. . . . One brave soldier and skilful statesman is remembered in India not only for his death at the head of the storming-party which had just made its way into Delhi, but for having found himself the centre of a new faith and the object of a new worship, and for having endeavored to coerce his disciples into disbelief by hearty and systematic flogging." The knowledge that an Eastern race can even in the midst of modern civilization deify a living man will, when appreciated by ordinary Englishmen, tell on their mode of considering the whole history of religious dogma. In the domain of theology, as in the domain of politics, thought and research may finally reconcile new experience with old beliefs, but the first effect of startling experiences is to encourage scepticism. When the Roman world met the East face to face, the first result was the growth of strange creeds and an alarming unsettlement of opinion. The aspect of the relation between England and India inevitably suggests analogies (possibly delusive) drawn from the history of Rome. It is at least possible that within the next century the effect of India's influence may at least teach Englishmen to understand the terror with which the noblest of the Romans looked on the spread of strange religions, and the tenacity with which ancient thinkers clung to the dogma that every state ought to cherish a special tone of belief and feeling suited to its constitution, and that a change in the fundamental sentiments of its citizens was the certain herald and minister of revolution.

RECENT NOVELS.*

MR. JOAQUIN MILLER has written a characteristic allegory, entitled 'A Dream of Italy,' as an introduction to the novel of 'Mae Madden.' His verses describe his meeting his "affinity" in Venice, and his vain pursuit of her "through the surge of the salt-flood street," but the real introduction of the book is crowded into the last lines, in which he says of the author, Mrs. or Miss Mary Murdoch Mason, that

> "By the windy waters of the Michigan
> She invokes the gods. . . . Be it bright or dim,
> Who does his endeavor as best he can
> Does bravely, indeed. The rest is with Him.
> Let a new star dance in the occident
> Till it shakes through the gossamer floors of God
> And shines o'er Chicago. . . . The Orient
> Is hoar with glories. Let Illini sod
> Bear glory as well as the gleaming grain,
> And engines smoking along her plain."

Miss Mae Madden had less difficulty about finding her "affinity." She went to walk one day in Rome with her brother Eric, "when they caught sight, down the pathway, of two approaching Piedmontese officers. 'Oh!' cried Mae, . . . and clasped her hands, and sprang to her feet—'Oh! Eric, are they gods or men?' The Piedmontese officer is godlike. . . . There is a combination of half-indolent elegance and sensuous languor, with a fire, a verve, a nobility that puts him at the head of masculine beauty." Mae is to be seen travelling with a party of friends and relatives, but their hold upon her is very slight, and she makes the acquaintance of the godlike officer, who finally proposes to her to share his villa on the shore of the Bay of Naples. She refuses him, however, and marries Norman Mann, her American lover, after she has disported herself in a way that French novelists and dramatists consider to be customary with all of our fellow-countrywomen. M. Alexandre Dumas may read this story, and disarm any hostile criticism of his new play by pointing to 'Mae Madden' as a novel written by an American woman about an American woman, and as probably true. Even he would find it hard to invent a bolder disregard of conventional decorum than fills this little book, of which the main characteristic is its innocent silliness.

'Owen Gwynne's Great Work' describes rather tediously the misery brought upon a family in the nineteenth century by one of its members undertaking to write a history of the fifteenth. This was the great work undertaken by Owen Gwynne, and its prosecution kept him up late and brought him down early to pore over books and write, while Mrs. Gwynne made copies and translations when they were necessary, kept up her husband's varying spirits, managed the household affairs, and sacrificed her children to her husband's chance of fame. One of these children is Lance, a promising painter in Rome, who is called back to England to take a lucrative position in a bank, and the other, a hopeless cripple, Mary by

* 'Mae Madden. By Mary Murdoch Mason. With an Introductory Poem, by Joaquin Miller.' Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Co. 1876.
'Owen Gwynne's Great Work. By the author of 'Effie's Friend,' etc.' New York: Macmillan & Co. 1875.

name, is left to lie alone on a sofa for the greater part of every day. The main point of the story is the sacrifice made by Lance from a feeling of duty; his painting he really cares for, while his clerkship is odious to him, but he plods on at his dull work until his business sends him again to Rome, when he has a great deal of idle time on his hands and takes up painting again. By a curious combination of incidents this nearly embitters the whole of his life, for Mary is left to grow more ill while all are away—Mr. and Mrs. Gwynne had gone to the Escurial to hunt up authorities for the great work—and the young woman engaged to Lance, who is anxious that he shall resume painting, suppresses a letter from his young brother calling for his return. Then we have a sight of Lance's proud and unforgiving nature, and a great gloom is cast upon the reader by a pitilessly full account of Mary's dying, which makes the book one that susceptible people would find hard to read aloud. It is written with considerable power, but there is not a ray of humor in it to brighten the heavy pall of domestic tragedies. Very cheerful people may like to read it; others will not.

'Pretty Miss Bellew' is a novel of rather light weight. The reader gets interested in the heroine and in the book in spite of the frequent and tiresome digressions and the perpetual vulgarity of a great many of the characters, but it is impossible not to regret that the writer—who sets up for a man, but who, we cannot help thinking, is a woman—had not blotted a great deal of very idle matter. Miss Bellew herself is cleverly drawn, but there is a touch of the melodrama in the mysterious, omniscient young lawyer, Bernard Clive, as well as in McKenzie, whose past was so obscure. On the other hand, the description of the family life of the Bellews bears much more surely the mark of being the result of the writer's observations than do other parts of the tale. The coldness of Bernard Clive's wooing is of a sort that often racks the readers of novels.

Mrs. Augusta Evans Wilson has taken for the preface of her novel, 'Infelice,' those lines from Mr. Disraeli's 'Lothair' in which he brands with infamy a hard-working race of men—namely, critics—by saying that they are the men who have failed in literature and in art. This fact would seem to imply that Mrs. Wilson has already had some trouble with the reviewers of her books, but nothing in this novel shows that she has either taken warning from the failures or followed the advice of those who have noticed her previous stories. The plot of this one is somewhat as follows: Minnie Merle at the age of fifteen marries the young aristocrat, Cuthbert Laurance, the son of a wealthy planter in one of the Middle States. The father is very angry, and makes Cuthbert part from his young wife, and then poisons his mind by false reports of her faithlessness to him. In time he, imagining his first marriage illegal, marries again, choosing, or rather letting his father choose for him, a great heiress. Minnie meanwhile studies for the stage, and leaving their daughter Regina in this country, goes to Paris, and in one of the theatres of that city acts plays that nearly represent her own sufferings, and so fascinates again her husband and charms his father that the latter wants to marry her and the other is wild in love with her, although neither of them knows who she really is. Regina, after living in the South until she is fourteen years old, comes to this city at that age and lives with her guardian, Mr. Erle Palma, a lawyer, who is like an exaggerated copy of Bernard Clive in 'Pretty Miss Bellew.' At this point the plot becomes very complicated, and the tender passion, with its retinue of jealousies and misunderstandings, introduces a good deal of discord into Mr. Erle Palma's palatial residence, to say nothing of his stony heart. At the end all comes out right; Minnie conquers, after a struggle, the temptation to marry her father-in-law, and for this she is rewarded by having the second Mrs. Laurance and her daughter lost at sea, while Cuthbert is rescued to take her once more to his home, and Regina marries Erle Palma. This outline reads like the dull routine of ordinary life in comparison with the ingenious inventions of some of the incidents, especially the play "Infelice," in which Minnie dramatizes her whole life and brings it out on the theatre with the scenery painted after photographs of the real places, in order to confound Cuthbert before a large Parisian audience. It is not every woman who can bring back a faithless husband in this way. As for the talk of the people, it is simply incredible. Here is a gem from the lips of a girl of this city; it outdoes even New York caricatures of conversation at the Boston Radical Club: "My dear, civilization is a huge cheat, and the Red Law of Savages in primeval night is worth all the tomes of jurisprudence, from the Pandects of Justinian to the Commentaries of Blackstone and the wisdom of Coke and Story. O halcyon days of prehistoric humanity! when, instead of bowing and smiling and chattering gracefully with his deadliest foe, drinking his Amontillado and eating his truffles, people had the sublime satisfaction of roasting his flesh and calcining his bones for an antediluvian *déjeuner à la fourchette* (only, to escape anachronism—*sans fourchette!*)" etc., etc. They all, brilliant lawyers, clergymen, women, men of the world, blackmailers—the whole band—talk in this style of airy elation. On the whole, it is high time that Mrs. Wilson should turn her attention to writing criticism. She might continue quoting bits of poetry at the end of savage notices, like music at the touching or alarming scenes in a melodrama, as she does in the most thrilling chapters of her novel.

'The Loves of a Lawyer' is a frank bit of autobiography which narrates some of the romantic chapters in the life of a lawyer who was so fatally attractive as to have two young women in love with him at once. They are both jealous, and have the fascinating habit of confessing their jealousy to him. He becomes engaged to one, and the other tells him how much she had herself loved him, and so on monotonously. The sub-title of the book is 'His Quandary, and how it came out.' The quandary was which of the two should he marry. He chose Laura, and their married life "became literally a reciprocity of idolatry." But soon Laura died, and then Lawyer Sam married the other. The only alternative would seem to have been the divorce of Laura. If anything could add to the fatuous silliness of the book it would be the fact that the whole story is represented as being told by the hero to a stranger whom he meets when travelling by rail. The grammar is like the taste displayed in the story. Almost every page is adorned with such gems as "between the Deacon and I," "Is he or I right?" etc., etc.

To say of 'The Bertram Family' that it is by the author of 'Chronicles of the Schönberg-Cotta Family' makes unnecessary any description or criticism of its contents. It shows all the qualities, especially the simplicity and gentle religious tone, which marked its well-known predecessor, and those who liked that will surely read with pleasure this peaceful tale.

Mr. B. L. Farjeon is an industrious writer who is supposed to have succeeded to some part of the late Charles Dickens's skill in drawing charming characters in the humbler ranks of life, and in investing everything he touches with a sort of winning geniality. How this notion arose it is easy to see from reading 'An Island Pearl,' in which our old friend the tarry, bearded, and honest sailor is robbed of the girl he loves by the pale-faced, beardless money-lender, who, when embarrassed, "gave his body such a remarkable screw that it appeared . . . as though all in one moment he was buttoning himself up from top to toe." This imitator of Uriah Heep manages to do a good deal of mischief; but he comes to a bad end, while the other characters, after straying into one of Jules Verne's maritime stories, return to England and the old-fashioned observance of Christmas day.

'Ralph and Bruno,' although by no means a remarkable novel, is yet somewhat superior to the great mass of those that are offered the reader. It is marked by a certain wise condensation which is agreeable, and the story, although a trifle tedious, is well told. The two heroes, whose names give the title to the book, were cousins, one of whom was educated in England and the other in France. The Englishman is heir to large estates and the Frenchman has to work for a living, and his spare hours he devotes to instructing workmen. Bruno, the Frenchman, marries a heartless girl with a pretty face, and is shot by the Versailles soldiers for being a Communist. Another character, Hervé, is first shot by the Communists for being a priest, so that there is some monotony in the way the end of the book is reached. It turns out after all that the suspicions of the reader, which are aroused at almost the beginning of the book, are justified, and that Ralph is Bruno and Bruno Ralph, so that this somewhat complicated story becomes even more complicated. It will be found readable.

It would be hard to find a more unequal writer in her limited field than Miss Braddon, who acquired a certain amount of contemporary fame with 'Aurora Floyd,' and has since written as poor novels as any unknown and speedily-forgotten beginner at the art or trade. Her 'Hostages to Fortune' is one of her successes. It tells the story of an easy-going, self-indulgent London *littérateur* who, tired by his work and his social duties, flies for rest to a distant spot in Wales, where he falls in love with a very charming country girl. Although he had already decided the question of mar-

'Pretty Miss Bellew: A Tale of Home Life. By Theo. Gift.' Leisure-Hour Series. New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1875.

'Infelice: A Novel. By Augusta Evans Wilson, author of 'Beulah.'' New York: G. W. Carleton & Co. 1875.

'The Loves of a Lawyer; His Quandary, and How it Came Out. By Andrew Shuman.' Chicago: W. B. Keen, Cooke & Co. 1875.

'The Bertram Family. By the author of 'Chronicles of the Schönberg-Cotta Family.'' New York: Dodd & Mead. 1875.

'An Island Pearl. By B. L. Farjeon, author of 'Bread and Cheese and Kisses, etc.' New York: Harper & Bros. 1876.

'Ralph and Bruno. By M. Bramston.' New York: Macmillan & Co. 1875.

'Hostages to Fortune: A Story. By Miss M. E. Braddon, author of 'Aurora Floyd,' 'Lost for Love,' etc., etc.' New York: Harper & Bros. 1875.

riage in the abstract unfavorably, he was led to break his resolution, and he married her and brought her to London. There he fitted up a house for her in a very extravagant manner, and wasted his hard-earned substance in little dinners, old china, etc., until bankruptcy stared him in the face. The wicked people are a Mrs. Brandreth, an actress, who had formerly been engaged to him but had thrown him over to make a better match, and who, being now a widow, is anxious to marry him, but who becomes a fury on account of her scorned love, and the other is a wealthy pursuer of pleasure who falls in love with his wife. These two come to bad ends; the wicked voluptuary dies of heart-disease and the actress is attacked by softening of the brain, while the man of letters resumes domestic life in Wales, well out of the way of the dangers of the metropolis. Is it satire on Miss Braddon's part that causes her to represent her hero as nothing but an adapter of French and German plays?

In comparison with the foregoing, a story like Wilhelmine von Hillern's 'Geier-Wally' stands out as a masterly production. This author had already written novels of the usual kind, in which a tepid imitation of life was made to do duty, and her stories bore great resemblance to hosts of others which are as tiresomely alike as if they were made by machinery. In this one, however, she has struck a vein of originality and poetry which is as rare in current works of fiction as it is delightful. It would be very unfair to her to condense in a meagre sketch the problem which forms the plot. It is only justice, however, to call attention to the admirable way in which the heroine's bold, independent character is drawn, and to the unceasing vigor of the narrative. The translation has been carefully done.

It is necessary to speak in cooler terms of 'The Chevalier Casse-Cou,' by Fortuné du Boisgobey. This is a story filled with every ingenious device to alarm the reader, who meanwhile knows that when everything is apparently in the most despairing state he can feel most sure of the hero's safety. It is the calm, peaceful novels that contain the really harrowing incidents. The publisher has kindly prefixed an announcement, to serve as a preface, in which attention is called to the various beauties of the book. "Graphic are the pictures," he tells us, "of 'Frascati's' with its crowd of gamesters and of courtesans," and of "Maître Allanic, a striking type of a Breton gentleman of an expiring school." We are further told that "the translation has been committed by the publisher into the hands of a well-known gentleman of established literary reputation, whose long residence in France has rendered him familiar with the language of that country. His aim has been to preserve the literal spirit of the original, so that at times, should sentences appear harsh and phrases obscure, these presumptive imperfections are to be attributed to an earnest desire to present to the American reader a reproduction of the tone, temper, and style of the author in corresponding language." We have not the French original by us, so that we cannot compare it with the translation, but it would seem as if the literary gentleman had stayed so long in France that he had forgotten his English. There are many "presumptive imperfections," as, for instance, p. 243, "Cambremer distrusted not to bring an elucidation forthwith from this erudite man, who regarded explanation of the living tongues of the East mere boys' play"; p. 247, "One would have been tempted believing her to have recited a lesson"; p. 73, "I beg pardon, sir, to derange you so early"; p. 23, "The unknown lady was laying on the floor"; p. 24, "My diagnostic"; p. 149, "'Pierre, taste that!' interrupted the housewife, placing on the table a smoking dish. 'It embalms,' quoth Morillon, attacking the corned pork." The publisher's apology does not cover imperfections like these nor disarm hostile criticism; nothing but a large bribe could do that.

If the wild plot of 'Off the Rolls' could have been omitted, the novel would have been much improved, or—should this statement seem paradoxical—if the rather ingeniously-drawn characters had been put in less artificial circumstances, the reader might have been more pleased. Mrs. King knows something about army life, and she has a tolerable knack at representing a flirtation or even more serious love-making, but she gets out of her depth when she tries her hand at severer work.

'Brought Home,' by Hesba Stretton, is really nothing more than a sensational tract about a clergyman's wife who becomes a drunkard, so that her husband has to take her from England on account of her disgraceful conduct. On the voyage to New Zealand she learns to resist temptation, and she becomes a useful citizen of that distant colony.

Round my House. Notes of Rural Life in France in Peace and War. By Philip Gilbert Hamerton. (London: Seeley, Jackson & Halliday. 1876.)—Mr. Hamerton is a surprisingly productive writer, but he is a very entertaining one; and to those who retain a friendly memory of his 'Painter's Camp' it will not seem that he has exhausted his welcome. He is capable of talking agreeably and philosophically about an extraordinary variety of topics, and if he is sometimes frank to confidingness on the subject of his domestic and personal affairs, he is so sympathetic and good-humored that one never thinks of calling the tendency by so harsh a name as egotism. He inspires his reader with a sort of personal regard. In the volume before us his personal affairs are the admitted text of his discourse. He proposes to relate what sort of a time he and his wife have had of it in attempting to live in a small French provincial town. They appear to have had a very comfortable time, and the story makes a very pleasant book. He begins it at the beginning, and enumerates the reasons why he determined to take up his abode in France—the need for mild winters and yet for a climate that made a summer residence possible, subjects for a landscape painter, moderate prices, etc. He describes various houses, in different provinces, which he did not take; but he finally found the desired advantages in a town which he does not designate by name, but which, from his description, we suppose to be Autun, near Macon, in Burgundy. Under the somewhat unduly trivial title which he has affixed to his book he gives an account of his neighbors and their manners and customs. His criticism is decidedly shrewd, but it is on the whole very friendly, though it fails to eradicate the impression with which most readers will take up the book, that "rural life in France" is but a dreary affair for the natives, and that for a foreigner to thrive upon it he must possess an exceptional store of domestic resources. This indeed appears to be Mr. Hamerton's case; it is evident that between painting and etching, editing, camping, writing, and boating, he is too well occupied a man to find time to be bored. He has very little that is disagreeable to say of anything or any one. He confirms a great many of the usual notions about French life—the thrift, frugality, love of "order," etc.; at other points, as with regard to the rigidity of class-differences, the pervasiveness of gallantry, etc., he is at variance with them. He found his neighbors at first very "inhospitable" in the English sense of the term, and it does not appear that even with the lapse of time they earned a reversal of judgment. It is a community in which, according to Mr. Hamerton, an invitation to dinner is not lightly given. And yet this reserve is not generally owing to small means, for the author gives an even brilliant picture of the state of fortune of the people about him. He has also some felicitous remarks about the difference between the French and English ways of estimating wealth. "In France, the idea of wealth begins with the first savings, and you meet with such a phrase as, Il est riche de mille francs de rente. . . . The Frenchman has greatly the advantage in the mental enjoyment of a moderate fortune. I had an English friend who, with £900 a year of his own and £600 a year with his wife, constantly talked of his poverty; whereas a Frenchman would have compared his £1,500 a year with nothing, and felt himself as rich as a little Rothschild." Mr. Hamerton relates a number of striking cases of French thrift, of the native talent for laying by money under any circumstances whatever, and of people with considerable incomes derived from property—$2,500, etc.—drudging as teachers and small clerks for the sake of the extra resource of a beggarly salary. The importance of noble birth in France, Mr. Hamerton thinks, cannot be exaggerated; it matters far more than in England what a man's name is. The *de*, misappropriated, purloined, dishonored as it has been, is still of the highest value—and hardly less, odd as it may seem, when it has been usurped than when it is rightfully worn. The only point is that it shall have been accepted. If a family have smuggled it into their name only ten years back, it has very much the same practical value as an approved pedigree. For a young man who possesses it, it is quite fortune enough; whatever may be his personal qualities, it will make it easy for him to marry a fat dowry.

Mr. Hamerton has some entertaining pages upon French servants, whom he thinks the best and most sympathetic in the world when they are treated with frankness and geniality. So in France they generally are treated, but Mr. Hamerton affirms that in certain high-pitched establishments, where it is the tone to keep the domestics at a distance, they are addressed with a curt contemptuousness much more inhuman than the English defensive reserve. He mentions a gardener of one of his friends who, falling fatally ill, sent him a message from his death-bed, having taken a fancy to him as a visitor at the house; and such conduct, he says, even in the presence of the "great hereafter," would have been impossible in an English servant. He gives a charming portrait of a certain gardener of his own, who appears to have combined, in an admirable manner, all the best French virtues

'Geier-Wally': A Tale of the Tyrol. By Wilhelmine von Hillern.' New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1876.

'The Chevalier Casse-Cou. By Fortuné du Boisgobey. Part I. The Red Camellia. Translated from the French original, by Thomas Picton.' New York: Robert M. De Witt. 1876.

'Off the Rolls. By Katharine King.' New York: Harper & Bros. 1876.

'Brought Home. By Hesba Stretton.' New York: Dodd & Mead. 1875.

with all the best English ones, and whose acquaintance—quite apart from his services—the reader greatly envies him. Mr. Hamerton has, of course, a good deal to say about the ladies of the society under his observation, but his gallantry cannot avail to conceal the fact that he has not found them signally interesting. French provincial women are divided into the two unvarying classes of the *femmes du monde* and the *femmes d'intérieur*. The latter are housewives pure and simple, with great skill in this department, great virtue, great piety, and no culture; the others are silly and frivolous, but with nothing to contribute to a society in which men and women may meet, in the English fashion, on common ground. The young girls know absolutely about nothing but church matters and embroidery. The consequence is that the separation of the sexes is extreme; the men live in clubs and cafés, and even in drawing-rooms they form knots and groups by themselves. This is one of those curious anomalies and self-contradictions of which French civilization is so full. France has been prominently the country of great and accomplished women, the country in which the social part played by women has acquired a development unknown elsewhere, and yet a moderate degree of observation is sufficient to indicate that, on the other side, the mutual segregation just mentioned is in form, if not in spirit, almost Quakerish. Mr. Hamerton has some very cursory remarks on French matrimonial morals; he apparently considers the topic much overdone, and affirms that conjugal fidelity is just about as inveterate as it is in England. He denies that Frenchmen marry mainly for the young lady's *dot*. They never take a young girl without a portion, but they very frequently take one with a portion hardly more than nominal. Thousands of young lawyers and engineers will marry girls with portions of four thousand dollars. This cannot be called cynically mercenary. The author talks to good purpose about the peasantry, whom he has seen, closely observed, and on the whole thinks well of, desiring for them chiefly only instruction; and about the clergy, for whom, especially in their more humble functions, he has a great kindness. The French country *curé*, with his poverty, his laboriousness, his devotion, his cheerfulness, his starvation diet at home, and his privileged voracity when he is invited out to dinner, is very pleasantly sketched. Mr. Hamerton holds that a French bishop is practically one of the most exalted potentates in the world. The honors that are rendered him are infinite (he is addressed as "*Votre Grandeur*"), he is at liberty to act, civilly and ecclesiastically, exactly as he chooses, and he is altogether an immense personage. The book closes with an interesting account of the occupation of Mr. Hamerton's neighborhood by the Prussians, and of the sojourn in the town itself of Garibaldi and his heterogeneous army. The author admires the General, but not the corps. His book is all entertaining, and not the less sagacious for being very unpretentious and easy in form.

God and the Bible. By Matthew Arnold. (New York: Macmillan & Co.)—Mr. Matthew Arnold's reply to the criticism called forth by his 'Literature and Dogma' has at length appeared in a book form under the above title. For some half a year it has filled the pages of the *Contemporary*, and in that ill-chosen method of publication it seemed to lack incisiveness and condensation, but the complete volume is more attractive. The attempt to regard the Bible in the spirit in which it was written, and thus to so illuminate its contents that the overlying errors and dogmas shall fade in the light of the great truths disclosed, is one with which the plain man, to whom Mr. Arnold appeals, will heartily sympathize. All the beauty of style, the fine irony, the delicate taste, that his readers know of old they will find here, with a careful avoidance of the harshness that sometimes annoyed in 'Literature and Dogma.' Occasionally some word or phrase like "vigor and rigor" will catch his ear and be repeated something too often. Sometimes directness attracts him more than sweetness, as, for instance, when, in speaking of John xvi. 27, he says, "We need hardly say that here the Tübingen professors smell *Tendenz*, and affirm that a piece of Greek Gnosticism must have got thrust into the Gospel of the old Jewish Evangelist"; but in general the mellow ripeness of his culture is very pleasantly apparent. Even his opponents will appreciate his defence of the much-abused Fourth Gospel, and find many a rich suggestion in his rearrangement of the sayings of Jesus. That opponents there would be, Mr. Arnold naturally anticipated. An attempt to reconstruct the Bible with miracle and dogma discarded could not hope to obtain the support of the conservative churchman. Declaring the idea of an Infinite Immutable Essence, underlying all the changing phenomena of life, to be an unintelligible abstraction of the metaphysician, he could not expect the support of idealists of any school. Styling it "surely ridiculous" to treat God as unknowable, he places himself in point-blank opposition to the school of Spencer and Fiske, which takes that unknowable as its basis; and the only other prominent division of thinkers, the English Positivists, are hardly more in accord with him. From their point he has fallen back from the positive to the metaphysical stage, and is holding up a mere mental abstraction to our worship, a "Power" which is not a faculty of the mind or a force of matter, a "stream of tendency" which, when separated from the things which tend, is a mere creation of the mind.

Indeed, the looseness of Mr. Arnold's treatment of abstractions is much to be regretted. The adequate conception of absolute substance, of infinite first cause, is the key to the best thought of the past, and is as necessary to the avoidance of its fallacies as the appreciation of its truths. Had Mr. Arnold devoted a little more time to the examination, he might have been more clear in his own conceptions and less airily contemptuous to those of others; and he would not have been driven to explain the arguments of Descartes and the appeals of the Jewish prophets by the substitution of etymological curiosities for ideas that to them were full of vital meaning. Descartes' famous argument—*cogito, ergo sum*—may be unsound, but it is a mere travesty of it to render it "I think, therefore I breathe." A little more of such consideration would have protected him also from himself repeating the error which he had just spent pages in exposing in Descartes, the assumption of a real existence corresponding to every universal idea. Yet this very assumption seems to be tacitly made when he rejects the miracles on account of the universal belief in invariable law, and again when he "verifies" the Eternal that makes for righteousness by appealing to our invariable belief in him. These ideas, he says, "prove themselves . . . . and the idea of their truth is in human nature," etc. He is not alone in this kind of argument; he can count cosmists and idealists alike among his comrades, so slowly and fitfully do the great fallacies of the past die out.

To Mr. Arnold, however, these considerations may not after all seem very important, for he only addresses himself to the plain man, unbiassed by metaphysical jargon. But such a man will find it difficult, we fear, to grasp this idea of a power that is not a person, this stream of tendency that neither thinks nor feels; and the more he attempts to realize it, the more indistinct and elusive it will appear. What can he make of an immortality that is neither of body nor essence, but only an immortality "in the eternal order, and the eternalo rder never dies"? Is it possible that Mr. Arnold has given us a figure of speech for a Deity, an empty phrase for an immortal hope? It seems incredible, yet we cannot but recall Mr. Arnold's favorite quotation from Homer: "Wide is the range of words; words may make this way or that way."

English History for the Use of Public Schools. By the Rev. J. Franck Bright, M.A. Period I.: Mediæval Monarchy, from the Departure of the Romans to Richard III.—449-1485. With maps and plans. (London, Oxford, and Cambridge: Rivingtons. 1875. 16mo, pp. lii. and 374.)—One would hardly think that there was room for a new short history of England so soon after a work of such superlative merit as Mr. Green's, and yet Mr. Bright's will undoubtedly find its place, all the more as it does not attempt to rival Mr. Green's in its points of special excellence. In reviewing the latter about a year ago, almost the only feature to which we objected was its discarding familiar forms and divisions. This gave great freshness and continuity to the work; it brought out the development of English society and institutions as it had never been brought out before; but persons at all familiar with the old landmarks experienced some difficulty in finding their place and way in the new arrangement. The book before us observes the usual arrangement and divisions. Neither is this so unscientific a method as it may seem. Under any form of government in which the chief-magistrates have any power or influence at all, changes in these must react strongly upon the social and political development of the nation, and must at the same time be affected more or less by these. No great subdivisions of English history are more vital than, for instance, the Norman Conquest, the accession of the House of Tudor, and the Revolution of 1688.

It results from the same feature that certain points which require a single, connected treatment will be found more clearly and compendiously given in this volume than in Mr. Green's. The Anglo-Saxon constitution is such an one; Mr. Bright's short account of this is admirable, although we have noted a few inaccuracies. He has, for instance (p. 29), in describing the primitive Germanic institutions, made use of Anglo-Saxon terms which, if used anywhere in Germany, were found only in the extreme north; *eorl* and *ceorl* were terms identical with the Danish *jarl* and *karl*—not with the German *edeling* and *friling*. The term *manor* is used (p. 31) for Anglo-Saxon times; while the name certainly did not come in until the Conquest.

On the following page the "twelve chief Thegns" are described as belonging to the moot of the shire, instead of the hundred; indeed, the hundred, as a whole, is very inadequately treated. On page 36, the condition of England, in respect to its feudal elements, is stated to have differed from that of the Continent in "that there still existed a certain number of freemen whose land was their own." The sentences which follow modify this assertion, and contain an excellent statement of the extent to which feudal elements existed at this time; still, so loose an expression as the above cannot fail to mislead the learner. All these errors may easily have arisen from an excessive effort to compress.

The maps are very good, as is also the index. The most original feature is the genealogical tables of noble families, twelve in number, which will be very serviceable in the study of this period. Mr. Bright is in general so good on points of genealogy that we are surprised to find (p. 307) the famous Earl of Salisbury (killed before Orleans, 1428) spoken of as simply "son of Sir John de Montecute," with no direct intimation that the father, too, was Earl of Salisbury, and with no reference at all to his being the one whose execution by Henry IV. is described, p. 277. In the table of the Nevilles (p. xlv.) it would not have been amiss to introduce these two Montecutes: it is interesting to note that the "King-maker" was grandson of the distinguished soldier, and great-grandson of the beheaded Lollard, from whom he may have inherited his hostility to the House of Lancaster. We should have been glad of a table of the Hollands and Percies, and perhaps other families. The royal family, by the way, is hardly treated so well as the nobility; at least for the period before the Conquest.

The German Element in the War of American Independence. By George Washington Greene, LL.D., etc. (New York: Hurd & Houghton. 1876.)—Among the numerous minor contributions to the literary celebration of our centennial, few will be more acceptable to readers at large than the present volume. The author modestly disclaims in his preface all "pretension to original research." In the strictest sense of the word "original," we may accept his disclaimer. The statements of facts are based upon the researches of Dr. Friedrich Kapp, which have been already noticed in our columns; but the adaptation of them to the American reader, the treatment of them from the American point of view, the lessons and inferences drawn or suggested, are distinctively the work of Professor Greene, and for this he is entitled to ample praise. Furthermore, he has produced an exceedingly readable book. Those who have not the time or disposition to study Dr. Kapp's original monographs will find here, in a volume of two hundred pages, all that they need know about the life and labors of Steuben and De Kalb and the employment of German mercenaries. The more we consider the services of Steuben, the firmer becomes our conviction that they marked the turning-point in the fortunes of the American army. But for the spirit of discipline infused by this enthusiastic disciple of the great Frederic, it is safe to say that Washington and Greene would have planned in vain. By the side of Steuben the services of De Kalb lose somewhat of their importance. The latter was a good general, and perhaps more fascinating in appearance; but the former was indispensable. In fact, De Kalb does not deserve, in strictness, a place among the German elements of our revolution. Although German by name and birth, he was a thorough Frenchman in every respect—a child of the *ancien régime*, with many of its nobler qualities and also with a trace of its weaknesses. He was a good officer, but without creative genius; yet he served us generously and faithfully, and we can scarcely cherish his memory too warmly. Upon the employment of the Hessian, Brunswickian, and other mercenaries—by all odds the darkest stain upon the English management of the war—it is no longer necessary to dwell. We have only to warn our readers against fastening any share of the blame upon the German people. The *Volk* was completely under the yoke of despotism, and the poor hirelings who shed their blood to no purpose were passive victims. They certainly suffered more than did our ancestors. The then rising German spirit of freedom in letters, science, and politics looked upon the sale of human life with abhorrence as a national disgrace; but "public opinion" hardly existed then.

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The Reader.

THE CUSTOMS AND LEGEND OF ETON COLLEGE.

Vivacious writers have sometimes satirized the "College of the Blessed Mary" at Eton. Among the venerable towers in the vale of the Thames, they say, Science still adores her Henry's holy shade; but she does very little else. Incited by the rumors of inefficiency in English secondary education, a Commission was formed not long since to report upon the management of nine principal schools, of which Eton was supposed to be the chief culprit. Mr. Matthew Arnold, who quotes and sides with the satirists above mentioned, went over to the Continent, authorized by the Royal Commission; and returned with an idea that what English schools like Eton want is "supervision, not explorative only, but also to a considerable extent authoritative."

A most important contribution to such enquiry is made by H. C. Maxwell Lyte, A.M., who has just published in a handsome, illustrated volume the history of this college from the beginning. To Americans, who are not concerned with the question of Royal intervention in English schools, the work comes with a purely narrative interest, divested of the harshness of a struggle for reform, and strange as a chimney-corner tale with its sequence of legendary incidents.

Mr. Lyte's work seems to omit nothing, and out of its wealth of incident but a very few specimens can be here accommodated. Eton College was founded by the pious Henry VI., of whom Fuller says that "he might well have exchanged a pound of patience for an ounce of valor." It was opened in 1442, and immediately began to have a very close connection with English literature. Chaucer's 'Man of Law's Tale' was depicted in the church. One of its earliest fellows, Weye, having obtained leave of absence for three pilgrimages, left his 'Itineraries,' a curious picture of Europe in 1456, now reprinted. Some of William Paston's letters describe the life of an Eton schoolboy in 1478. The earliest English comedy now extant, 'Ralph Roister Doister,' must have been written by an Eton head-master, Udall, about 1551. A continuous succession of British scholars and writers have emerged from the school down to the present time. Gray is a traditionary name of Eton. Charles James Fox, a Paris-bred debauchee of fifteen, was flogged there. Canning was an especial ornament. Praed wrote profusely in 'The Etonian.' Shelley was tortured there as a fag. Tennyson celebrates an Eton heroine in 'The Nioue of Swine,' whose litter was abstracted, it appears, for a succession of sucking-pig suppers.

The conservation of British valor was a specialty of Eton. At first the proper influence was derived, as among the Romans, from the torture of animals; but this yielded in time to the torture of boys, a spectacle frequently praised by old Etonians as equally improving. Bull-baiting came down from the earliest times, and continued almost under the eye of the authorities until 1833. In 1747 the Eton boys were compelled to give up their old custom of beating a ram to death along the street at election-tide. So late as Charles II. a live cock was tormented by suspension on Shrove-Tuesdays, in memory of Peter's sin. In our own time badger-fights, dog-fights, and cat and duck hunts, were organized especially for the Eton boys, just outside the grounds. Queen Charlotte, in 1778, caused the suppression of the custom of kicking down hill a boy dressed like a clerk by another dressed like a bishop—a game almost sacred, as referring to the suppression of Catholicism by Henry VIII. "Shelley-baits" were a regular pastime of Eton boys during the poet's youth, because the young reformer refused to fag. They consisted in "chasing up town." His comrade, Sidney Walker, another genius, was similarly persecuted. From Mr. Lyte's universal tone of condemnation we infer that like tastes are now expended upon cricket and boating.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 10, 1876.

The Week.

EVERY one who looks over, as every good citizen at one time or other is forced to do, the reports of Congressional proceedings, knows how difficult it is to make out from day to day exactly what is being done. This is due, of course, in a great measure to the disconnected way in which business is conducted, no one bill or resolution being necessarily discussed continuously until it is disposed of. But there are other causes too. It may seem preposterous to say so, but we know of no absolutely accurate report of Congressional proceedings. The *Record* is supposed, of course, to be such a publication, but the practice of tampering with speeches has now been carried so far that it is not an uncommon thing (indeed, it has been done within the past week) for one member of Congress to taunt another with an anticipated diversity between what he is actually saying and what he will probably appear to have said when the record has been altered. This throws us back on the newspapers, and yet no newspaper in New York publishes anything more than a meagre abridgment of Congressional proceedings. These abridgments are by no means accurate, and even in such an important debate as that on the West Point Salary Appropriation Bill, the other day, it was almost impossible to make out from the press reports exactly what had been done. The theory prevalent twenty years ago, that the progress of modern civilization had carried us beyond the point at which it was important to know what Congress is about, is, we suppose, pretty well exploded now, and we beg leave to call the attention of the Associated Press—which is, we suppose, the source of all our woes on this head—to the subject.

The debate in the Senate on the payment of the 3.65 February interest of the District of Columbia bonds resulted in bringing that body to pretty much the same conclusion that the House had reached before—viz., that in some way the manufacture of 3.65s must be stopped. The resolution as finally adopted by the Senate provides that there shall be no further issue; that the total amount of bonds (covering claims outstanding and audited, convertible into bonds) shall not exceed $15,000,000; that there shall be no increase "in the present amount of the total indebtedness of the District of Columbia"; that any one who shall "knowingly increase or aid or abet in increasing" this debt shall be punished by imprisonment (not to exceed ten years) and fine (not to exceed $10,000)." It abolishes the Board of Audit, directs a report of proceedings by it to the Commissioners, and provides against any construction of the resolution itself into a recognition of the liability of the United States for either principal or interest of any bonds issued on or since the 27th of January. With regard to the February interest (which had been defaulted on while the debate was in progress), the resolution provides that the District Commissioners shall transfer to the Treasurer of the United States the funds in their hands subject to this charge. Instead of the cumbrous phrases, "the Board of Audit" and "the Commissioners of the District of Columbia," it would have been simpler, though not perhaps so parliamentary, to have inserted wherever they occur the words "Boss Shepherd." It is extraordinary to reflect that within six months the Assistant Attorney-General of a great commercial State was obliged to resign his position because his superior officer insisted that these bonds were proper securities for savings-banks to invest the money of the poor in. The resolution has now been sent to a conference committee. Besides a Pinchback debate, and the passage of a bill to pay the *Alabama* claims awards already made, nothing else of importance has been done by the Senate.

The House has finally disposed of the one-term amendment by 144 to 106, two-thirds failing to vote in the affirmative, and has in great haste passed a bill repealing the Bankrupt Act by a vote of 186 to 57. The Judiciary Committee has reported the bill to reorganize the judiciary, the provisions of which we have discussed on another page. Mr. Kasson, of Iowa, tried to get the Democrats to vote on two specie resolutions, the first denying any authority in Congress to issue paper-money in time of peace, the second declaring that in any scheme of currency legislation redemption must be kept steadily in view. The House, however, refused to suspend the rules so as to allow their introduction. On motion of Mr. Pierce, of Massachusetts, a resolution was adopted directing the Committee on Foreign Affairs to find out what the Executive Department has done about the connection of General Schenck with the Emma Mine and the Machado claim. Several new investigations have been ordered, and the Diplomatic Appropriation Bill discussed.

The Committee on Foreign Affairs of the House has received a long reply to certain enquiries put by its chairman to the State Department, which makes the position taken up by Mr. Fish, in his recent circular despatch inviting European powers to join this Government in bringing pressure to bear on Spain in relation to Cuba, seem more singular than ever. It says that in pursuance of an agreement entered into with the Government of Spain in February, 1871, the claims of American citizens, native and naturalized, on account of damage to property and illegal arrests or imprisonment or personal violence, are now before a mixed Commission provided for by the agreement, which is holding its session in Washington. One hundred and fifteen cases have been submitted to it, of which nine have been already decided in favor of the claimants, involving the sum of $878,050, and fifty-eight cases are still before it. This being the case, it is extremely difficult to understand the necessity for the interference of Great Britain, France, Germany, Russia, Austria, and Italy. As to the extent to which American citizens in the island are guilty of slaveholding, Mr. Fish is unable to give much information, beyond suggesting that any American engaged in sugar-planting in Cuba is presumably a user of slave labor.

It is pleasant to see how frank and outspoken the leading politicians are getting to be as the Presidential campaign draws near. Ordinarily, as is well known, the business of politics does not train a man to the public exhibition of his private hopes, ambitions, fears, prejudices, and hates. As to the last, he is particularly trained from his earliest entrance upon the arena—his critics harshly say—to dissemble, to feign friendship with those whom he really detests, and to simulate hostility to those with whom he really divides the profits of statesmanship. That this is not always true may be seen from the frank and natural behavior, according to the Washington despatches, of all the leading Presidential candidates. As a natural man, each Presidential candidate must hate every other; but if politicians were always what they are accused of being, Grant, Bristow, and Conkling would just now be more than ever courteous and conciliatory to each other. So far is this from being the case that it is almost impossible for Grant to meet Bristow, or for Bristow to meet Conkling, without oaths and curses filling the air. The precise words used at these rencontres are not given, nor does it seem clear that any of them has as yet ended in a knock-down fight, but it is getting to that point very rapidly. Till within the past week or two, the quarrels have generally been between Grant and Bristow, on the subject of the whiskey indictments. The case of General Babcock, whose indictment has done a good deal to endear him to the Presi-

dent, is usually at the bottom of the quarrel, and the proceedings are of a stormy character. They almost always end in a total cessation of conversation, and the relations of the President and Secretary of the Treasury are such that it is almost impossible to conduct the public business at all. There is now a difficulty between Mr. Conkling and Mr. Bristow. On Thursday last, the Senator went to see the Secretary, as the reporter cautiously observes, on behalf of "an officer or employee" who "had been or was to be discharged" (a pretty safe statement as to the object of the visit), and the interview which ensued was so "furious" that the Senator said he would never enter the office of Mr. Bristow again. The reporter adds, rather enigmatically, that "the office-hours of the Department have been changed in consequence." What we like particularly about these quarrels is the manly openness which leads to the immediate communication of the facts to the press.

Mr. John Morrissey, the head of the Reform Democracy, has got a bill passed unanimously by the State Senate providing that all persons employed as laborers by this city shall receive a uniform rate of compensation, to be fixed from time to time by the Common Council, but not to exceed two dollars a day. As the act is purely declaratory, and has no sanction attached, there is no objection to its passage except the objection to humbug in general, and it will doubtless go through the House also by acclamation. We believe another bill is about to be or has been introduced making it a penal offence to pay more than the market rate for city labor, which will also pass, and so the good work of reform goes on. In the meantime, Mr. Campbell, Mr. Fitzjohn Porter's successor, is paying the market rate and no more, and no outcry has as yet arisen against him. The probable result of the whole affair will be the general substitution of contracts wherever possible for all other modes of doing city work. There does not seem to be any other way to meet the constant and growing tendency of the lazy, the vicious, and the improvident to live on the taxpayers. A few weeks ago, a candidate for the Legislature from one of the city districts met and was warmly greeted by a well-dressed man on Randall's Island, whom he recognized as one of his own inspectors of election, and found that, his "political duties" no longer requiring his attention, he had retired for the winter to the House of Refuge.

There has been a good deal of agitation for some weeks back over the privilege granted law-schools in this State to admit students to the bar without other tests of fitness than such as the schools themselves impose. These tests differ widely in different schools, and they all give their graduates considerable advantages, as regards time, over those who are admitted by examination in court after due service in a lawyer's office. The bar is now seeking to have the privilege withdrawn or modified, and the law-schools are offering a stout resistance before the Legislature, and one of them at least—that of Columbia College—with a good show of reason. But it is obvious that tests of admission to such professions as the bar, if they exist at all, ought to be uniform. Study in a law-school may fairly be allowed to take the place of service in an office, and might even be fairly exacted of all candidates for admission, but it is difficult to defend the removal from the jurisdiction of the bar or the courts of the process by which lawyers are made, and the relegation of the duty of passing on their fitness to professors whom the courts can neither appoint, remove, nor in any manner control, and who, though they may be excellent and conscientious in one school, may in another be inefficient and careless. To our minds, the proper use of a law-school would be the preparation of candidates for an examination by the courts, and the diligence and ability of professors in any particular school might be proclaimed by a system of marks and honors, which would not only glorify the school, but furnish a young man beginning practice a most useful and gratifying certificate of fitness.

The Granger movement has left in some of the Western constitutions, as a relic of its brief existence, a provision expressly recognizing the right or duty of legislative regulation. This has been done, for instance, in Nebraska, one of the most undeveloped of all the Western States, and therefore most in need of railroads. The Burlington *Hawkeye* points out that even this assertion of an abstract right or duty is likely to prove objectionable, as it is held *in terrorem* over one class of enterprises and not over others. Such a constitution as that of Nebraska practically says to all kinds of trade and manufactures, "we want you to come to us," and at the same time warns the only kind of industry that can make trade and manufactures flourish that it comes at its peril. The dreadful agitation which possesses the Granger when he pictures to himself the extortionate profits of the railroads, is comical when we remember that, as a matter of fact, railroad-building is a precarious and unprofitable business, and the principal fear of the investor in railroads is lest he lose his entire capital.

In addition to other investigations this winter, Mr. John Jay, in a letter to the *Herald*, has put the Democrats on the scent of a new branch of the Vienna Exposition scandal. When the Senate investigated and vindicated Mr. Van Buren, they had before them, it is said, not the original evidence, but an abstract prepared by the State Department. Now, in regard to some important particulars, the abstract seems to have garbled the evidence. For instance, with regard to a payment of $1,000 by a firm, the abstract says "it is not proven," when the official report, from which the abstract purports to have been made, says "$1,000 is next proven to have been paid." Besides, much evidence is said to have been suppressed. Mr. Jay says that an unpleasant impression was created abroad by the appointment of Mr. Van Buren, after his suspension on account of the Vienna affair, to a consulship. This only shows how stupid the Austrians are. His suspension was the reason of his appointment, not an objection to it. If faithful men could have no offices because a newspaper clamor was got up whenever they became involved in a scandal, the Government could not go on for a week.

The events of the week tend to confirm the opinion before generally held by men in business, that there will be no important legislation at Washington this winter either in respect to financial or fiscal affairs. Merchants, therefore, are making their calculations on existing conditions, and even with these are looking forward to a more satisfactory business than they had last year. It is true that Secretary Bristow has been before Congress asking for authority to issue 4½ per cent. bonds to the amount of $500,000,000—this to facilitate refunding operations; and that Dr. Linderman, Director of the United States Mint, has also urged that he be given authority to buy more silver bullion to coin. The latter officer supports his request by this argument: as silver bullion can now be bought at the lowest price ever known ($1 08 per ounce 900 fine), the Government should buy it and pay it out at its "coining rate" or artificial value, $1 24$\frac{4}{10}$, thereby making sixteen cents and four mills, less the cost of coining, which is not above two cents. Dr. Linderman does not point out that this is an unheard-of seigniorage for the Government to take, nor, what is important for the good name and good faith of the Government, that this silver coin would be worth less in gold than the fractional currency which it is proposed to redeem with it; that, in short, the plan, so far from bringing the currency nearer to a gold standard, absolutely does the reverse. And yet there are people who talk about this silver resumption as if it were part of a comprehensive plan to secure the payment by the United States Treasury of its notes according to original promise. In the money market, the rates for demand and time loans, as well as mercantile paper, have been lower, notwithstanding that there was a falling-off in the surplus reserve last week of $700,000. At the Stock Exchange, there has been a lively speculation in shares, resulting at the end of the week in few changes of importance; investments have been in strong demand, and the gold market has been lifeless. Sterling

exchange during the greater part of the week was dull, but at the close became more active and strong, both on account of freer importations of United States bonds and because the price of cotton—our principal export—in Liverpool was so much below the price here that exports were checked and this source of bills momentarily dried up. The gold price of $100 greenbacks ranged during the week between $88 30 and $88 69.

The *Tribune* has published its answer in the suit brought against it by Trenor W. Park, in which it repeats the story of the Emma Mine sale in London, with additional allegations, showing how Park kept secret the news of the collapse of the mine long enough to enable his confederates in London to sell out their stock. It further tells the story of the fraudulent sale of the Mariposa Mine, which is probably the worst transaction Park was ever engaged in, and the easiest to expose by proof, and also of his connection with the New York, Boston, and Montreal Railroad, which was a peculiarly disgraceful piece of business. In fact, Park's career has for many years been that of a mining and railroad speculator engaged in doubtful transactions, which gives a very comic air to Albert Grant's description of him in a recent letter as an eminent lawyer, and makes his offer to go into court about his character as a mining operator a piece of immense audacity.

Mr. Henry C. Bowen, in reply to "grievances" of a fellow-member of Plymouth Church, has sent a very rhetorical letter to the Examining Committee of that body, in which, after some rambling accounts of interviews, solicitations, and conversations, he says that years before the Tilton charges he had heard from "dear friends," presumably other members of the church, accusations against Mr. Beecher of "betraying the sanctity of home," but that he "never could or would be base enough to allow a single name to be bruited before the world," and he closes with a peroration in which he declares it to be his "unwavering opinion, in view of all the facts and evidence presented to him, that the Rev. Henry Ward Beecher, without even the shadow of a doubt in his [my] mind, is guilty of the awful crimes of adultery, perjury, and hypocrisy." As nothing can be alleged with any certainty with regard to the state of the Brooklyn mind, it is just possible that this extraordinary epistle may have a certain weight as evidence. But in other parts of the country it will be remarked that Mr. Bowen's declaration in advance that he will never tell whose the homes were of which Mr. Beecher "betrayed the sanctity," makes this charge all but worthless; that Mr. Bowen's unwavering opinion on facts and evidence will have no weight with anybody, inasmuch as he has no reputation as either a judge or a logician; and that his declaration in the tripartite agreement, made fully and without reserve, that "he knew nothing which should prevent him from extending to him (Beecher) his most cordial friendship, confidence, and Christian fellowship," shows either that he uses the words "friendship, confidence, and Christian fellowship" in a sense peculiar to himself, or that he has been guilty of gross falsehood either in the present letter or in the tripartite agreement. But the precise points on which Mr. Bowen has gone astray will, we imagine, interest the public very little.

The "Letter Missive," by which Plymouth Church summons the Advisory Council, has been published. The points on which advice is sought are the propriety ("according to the Word of God") of the church's procedure in the matter of dropping members; the proper mode of dealing (1) with members who stay away from public worship because the church has not done certain things not affecting them personally which they think it ought to have done, but which they have never asked it to do, (2) with members who stay away because in like case the church has not done what they did ask it to do, (3) with members who absent themselves because they believe the pastor guilty of offences of which the church on investigation has pronounced him innocent, and (4) with members who have made gross charges against other members, but refuse to substantiate them; whether the church ought to have called a Mutual Council to investigate the pastor, at the request of a member who has never made charges against him, and when such request is made a year after the church has investigated him; whether the church has acted properly in its dispute with Mrs. Moulton, and whether its general behavior is such as to entitle it to the confidence and fellowship of Congregational churches. It will be observed that the points are all fine, and need not, if well handled, carry the enquiry anywhere below the surface of things. We suggest, respectfully, a seventh point, which we think will make the enquiry full, final, and complete—viz., whether there is any truth in the charges made against the pastor in connection with Mrs. Tilton.

It appears certain that Count Andrássy's note, or the five principal points in it, will be accepted by the Turkish Government, but there is no present prospect that any special guarantees for execution will be exacted beyond supervision by a mixed commission of Christians and Mussulmans, which is in a measure exercised already by the consuls. The regulations for the organization and government of the Grand Council which the Sultan has decreed have been published, but they are very vague in character, and prove nothing except that the Council will be summoned, and will contain various high dignitaries, and will have great powers of investigation; but whether the investigations ever come to anything of course will depend on the general character of the civil service, which the Council will not control. The reorganization of the police service, which is also announced, is a more important matter, and promises to assimilate the police to that of Christian countries, with strictly defined powers as to arrest and detention. But it is doubtful whether any good police ever existed without a good public opinion to watch and check or stimulate it, and in the absence of this in Turkey new regulations are not likely to do much good. The January coupons have, contrary to the general expectation, been (half) paid.

The situation is likely to be still further complicated by the refusal of the Roumanian Principality to pay the customary annual tribute, which it defends by alleging that the consideration of the tribute is the promise of defence by the Porte against armed invasion. This pledge, it says, the Porte is now unable to fulfil, inasmuch as it is unable to put down one small insurrection in Herzegovina. The tribute is hardly worth fighting for, but the Sultan is extremely sensitive about anything which looks like a sign of decadence, and probably nothing but sheer weakness will prevent his trying to bring the Roumanians to reason by force. The air is, of course, full of rumors of outbreaks in other provinces and of fresh troubles with Montenegro; but rumors are in that part of Europe one of the chief weapons of rebels and their sympathizers. It may be taken for granted that the three Northern Powers, now that the Andrássy note has been accepted, will not allow the insurrection to spread further, or even run into the summer.

The news from Spain is, as usual, confused and contradictory, but in so far as anything positive can be detected in it, it seems to point to a somewhat rapid decline in the Carlist means of resistance. The weather is bad, and in the mountains this naturally delays and impedes the Alfonsists, but they are evidently better led and in better spirits than in any of the previous campaigns. There are wonderful stories of fraud and intimidation in the election of the Cortes, which probably mean that the Ministry have been "organizing" universal suffrage on the French plan, or, in other words, are determined to have a manageable assembly, and not a chaotic gathering such as poor Señor Castelar had to contend with. Of course the result will be a Cortes of creatures of the Government, like the Corps Législatif in France, but it will probably be as good a one as Spain in its present political and moral condition can supply. The peculiarity of the present state of the country is that any Government which proposes to stay in power has to be unscrupulous and high-handed.

"FIRST CHOICES" AND "FAVORITE SONS."

A LONG-ESTABLISHED usage has reserved the title of "Son" to candidates for the Presidency. As long as a man is simply a politician, with vague and indefinite aspirations, he is simply Mr. Smith of Indiana, or Mr. Jones of Illinois, but as soon as he begins to be positively spoken of as a candidate for the White House he becomes a "Son of Indiana" or a "Son of Illinois," as the case may be. The agitation among the Sons now begins to be great. Every State is producing a pair of them, one of whom the delegation in each of the party conventions will be bound to present as the "First Choice" and the "Favorite Son" of the State. As a general rule, no mention is made of a Son's personal appearance, either in praise or blame, though unpleasant allusions to his age or debility are not uncommon; but this year we seem likely to have in Mr. Conkling of New York a Son whose claims will be pushed on the ground of his physical beauty. Clubs for the advocacy of this gentleman's nomination have begun to spring up—mostly, it is true, in his own county—and we notice that in the speeches and articles which these organizations call forth, his great attractions of figure and feature are put in the forefront of the battle, showing that the female correspondent of the religious paper who dwelt on the "magnificence" of his "torso," and the fine shape and adjustment of his neck, had a true prescience of the main source of his political strength. There is, however, a certain vagueness in their description of his mind, though one local paper indirectly intimates that it is an instrument of extraordinary power and accuracy by declaring that his "conclusions are always correct."

The work of pushing the various Sons into prominence is, of course, going to furnish considerable interest and excitement to the professional managers from now until the conventions meet, and it is carried on with as much show of earnestness as if the public had no inkling or experience of its farcical character. There is something by no means complimentary to the popular intelligence both in the pains which some of them take to conceal, and in the pains which others of them take to avow, who is their "first choice," inasmuch as it implies in both cases that the first choice is a real man to whom they honestly and soberly mean to adhere. Mr. Kerr's chagrin, for instance, at having his letter published in which he pronounces Mr. Hendricks as his "first choice" and Indiana's "favorite Son," is something which, with all our respect for Mr. Kerr, we must pronounce a gross piece of affectation. Mr. Hendricks is, from our point of view, a very poor politician, whom we should be sorry to see in the Presidential chair, but as a "first choice" or a "Son" he is surely as good as anything in the field, and something of which nobody need feel ashamed. In fact, one of the peculiarities of "Sons" is that they bind nobody to anything, and reflect neither credit nor discredit on anybody.

In mentioning these "little games," however, what we wish to call attention to more particularly is that the utterances of the men and papers more immediately connected with the management of party machinery show little, if any, evidence of perception that there is any desire on the part of the public that things shall not go on in the old way; that a change of some kind is absolutely necessary; and that what the country is looking for, even if vaguely and blindly, is not a fresh batch of the old kind of Sons, but a complete change of system. For instance, it is only very rarely that in the discussion about the third term its opponents venture to remark, that even if a third term were allowable General Grant is not the kind of man for whom it would be well to establish the precedent; and yet this is by far the most important point in the controversy. It is of vastly more moment that the people should, after their experience of him, declare their unwillingness to leave the Government any longer in his hands, than that they should declare their unwillingness to allow any man to fill the Presidential chair for twelve years. There is, of course, a great deal to be said against the third term, but a movement to give a third term to a President who had reformed the civil administration, raised the standard of official honor and morality, magnified the value of knowledge and character in the public service, and made an honest and successful stand against the hindrances to the control of the Government by public opinion now interposed by the political machinery, would be by no means an alarming sign of the times or a dangerous precedent. What is dangerous and alarming in the present crisis, if anything be, is that we are really threatened either with a continuance of General Grant or of the system on which he has administered the Government, in the person of some of his adherents. In other words, the first term of such a Son as Morton of Indiana, or Conkling of New York, would be for all practical purposes a third term; that is, it would have all the injurious effects on public life, and on political morals, and on the popular feeling about the Government, which the re-election of Grant would have. We confess that we, for our part, see far more danger to the Government in popular familiarity with or indifference to the evils which General Grant's Administration has fostered, than in the possibility of the election of any man for three terms. It must not be forgotten, in estimating or in criticising his political career, that it is the very fact of his strong claim on popular gratitude which has made his two terms so demoralizing, and it is almost always by men with claims on popular gratitude that the seeds of political ruin are sown. If he had not been a successful general in dark days, he would have become odious before 1872; but with the halo of the war about him, not only have a terrible number of faults been forgiven him, but they have come to lose the appearance of faults, and to take on that of virtues. No ordinary President could, for instance, have been allowed to give a Government like this a Mussulman flavor, by appointing high public functionaries through pure personal caprice. When President Grant first began to make extraordinary and, as it seemed, scandalous selections for places in the civil service, his friends maintained that we must not reproach him, that he was a simple-minded man, who was necessarily in this matter in the hands of the senators and representatives; but he speedily dissipated this theory by appointing Simmons of Boston in defiance of the representative of the district, and McDonald of St. Louis in defiance of the whole State delegation. In short, he has administered the Government neither on the old American "spoils" system nor on the new "civil-service reform" system, but on the Sultanic or Turkish system, which says, "I like Mustapha; put the Vizier's robes on him, and give anybody who says he is a thief one hundred blows with a stick."

Now, this system has sunk deep into the habits and ideas of the politicians who have during the last eight years surrounded the White House. What with their mode of maintaining order at the South, and their mode of distributing the offices at the North, and the strength of the President's prejudices and his audacity in gratifying them, and his love of reforming by semi-military *coups* rather than by steady adherence to rules, and his way of "sticking to his friends" through thick and thin, a considerable change has been effected both in their notions and in those of a large mass of their followers about the methods of constitutional government. They have contracted a reliance on force, on the individual will of the executive officer, an estimate of the importance of ends and of the insignificance of means, and a dislike of criticism and of investigation and of all change, which are far more dangerous to our political system than any third term can be. If these things get worked into the habits and morals of political life, a change will have taken place of a very serious character. The "Senatorial Group," as *Harper's Weekly* has happily designated it, which has stood by the President in all his false steps, and perhaps instigated a good many of them, is a dangerous body, which needs to be broken up and shorn of its power, and the Republican Convention will therefore only half satisfy popular expectation by refusing to renominate General Grant himself. It must not attempt to foist on us any of his "favorite choices," because we must somehow have an end to the system which, owing to his faults or his inexperience, has grown up about him. That a vigorous effort will be made to prepare the Convention for its perpetuation there is little doubt. The work of "subsoiling" is going on now. The "pre-primaries" have been held

long ago, and nothing but very strong and positive indications of popular sentiment will prevent the nomination of an Administration candidate. The bold declarations which we hear from some opponents of the third term, "that while entertaining the highest respect (or 'yielding to no man in respect') for General Grant," or, "while fully recognizing the value of his services to the Union, we must adhere to the unwritten law which limits, etc.," are all that the Group desire. They at once present you with a "First Choice" or a "Favorite Son," who positively is not General Grant, and has never served before in the Presidency; you can examine him for yourselves and see whether they lie; nevertheless, if you elect him, you vote to continue the Grant system, which may be described, in one sentence, as a system which encourages corruption by its normal action and represses it by occasional bursts of rage.

THE PROPOSED FEDERAL JUDICIAL SYSTEM.

THE "Bill to reorganize the Judiciary of the United States," prepared, it is understood, by Mr. McCrary with the approval of the judges of the Supreme Court, is designed to remove a crying evil which was pointed out by the *Nation* as long ago as October, 1872 (No. 383). Commenting then upon the almost imbecile attempts of Congress to reform the evils in the Federal Courts, we said: "It is obvious that Congress should have *merged the district and circuit courts*, and *united the district judges of each circuit into a court of review*. Requiring them to hold court in each State of their circuit, *prohibiting the judge who tried the case from sitting to review it*, and *paying them liberally for their expenses*, would have made each circuit much like one of the courts of Westminster Hall; while *the occasional presence of a judge of the Supreme Court* would have tended toward the uniform action of all." The passages italicized above almost completely define the general principles of the new bill. The circuit and district courts are practically merged by establishing a circuit "at the same time and place at which a district court shall or may be held," and by taking away the present appellate jurisdiction of the circuit courts, except in bankruptcy proceedings. A final appeal from the new court of review lies to the Supreme Court, but it is restricted to cases above $10,000, and to cases involving a construction of the Constitution, of a treaty, or of a "law of the United States." There is also a saving clause, "when the court shall certify that the adjudication involves a legal question of sufficient importance to require that the final decision thereof should be made by the Supreme Court."

For some years the Supreme Court has been drifting steadily, and of late rapidly, into what may be termed a condition of official bankruptcy. It has not been able to pay off its obligations of duty, and adjourn owing nothing to its suitors. The obligations, too, are accumulating more rapidly than the payments can be made, so that, if things go on as they are going, it is absolutely certain that instead of being a "fountain of justice," the court will become a grand barrier to legal redress. At the beginning of the present term there were 666 cases upon the docket; at this time there are upward of 900. In less than twelve years it has published twenty-one volumes of reports; and, without disrespect, it must be said that no inconsiderable portion of these volumes is for the legal profession so much worthless matter, the decisions dealing with the facts of the case, the questions being of no earthly interest to anybody but the particular John Doe and Richard Roe who were contesting them, and the cases being of a kind that should never have found their way to a tribunal charged with the final determination of graver questions than were ever before confided to a court. It must also be said that too many of the important decisions have been unsatisfactory to the bar, the court treating legal subjects in a hasty manner, not going down "to the bottom of a case," and failing in that comprehensive generalization of principles which sheds light upon other cases and forestalls needless litigation. Notably, too, the court has fallen off from the patient research that made the opinions of Story a valuable repository of legal learning, and from the careful reasoning with which Marshall built up the structure of his decisions. There has been too much of that dangerous and superficial element called *ipse dixit* —"we think this"—"we are of opinion that"—without the court designating the principle upon which it acts. Such decisions dispose of cases but shed no light upon the disposition of future cases. They also create uncertainty, which is the great source of appeals. But beyond this it is the cardinal principle of our Anglo-Saxon system of jurisprudence that our judges shall be men who can render a reason for what they decide. The integrity of our judicial decisions rests upon an honest statement of every case, and a clear exposition of the principles supposed to govern it. Our matters of jurisprudence are not confided to an Eastern kadi to decide as to him may seem best. We of the Anglo-Saxon stock have been for centuries striving to make the law a science which can be intelligently understood and rationally administered. Under our system a judge has no more right to state the facts of a case and say, "The plaintiff should have judgment, because I think so," than an astronomer to say, "It is 95,000,000 miles to the sun, because I think so." The theory according to which English and American jurisprudence has endeavored to proceed is that a decision shall be a demonstration. When the moral sense of the American bar allows our courts to render final decisions on the crude conclusions of the judges without an exposition of the processes by which the conclusions were reached, and through which alone we can determine whether they be right or wrong, it will be a long stride toward committing matters to individual discretion and abandoning the scientific generalizations of the law. The Supreme Court has also fallen into the way of deciding cases upon points which have never been argued. A court not overladen with waiting cases could order a reargument; but with its immense and ever-growing docket behind it, our court of last resort cannot afford to give its suitors two days in court. Every lawyer knows what this means, and what a sense of injustice it generally arouses, and how ill able a judge is to decide upon the soundness of a point when the point is his own. Finally, there are too many "ear-marks" in these twenty-one volumes of too great haste in deciding, of rules laid down in one case without due reflection as to how they will affect a thousand transactions, of conclusions pronounced one year which the court was obliged to take back the next.

It is therefore not surprising that this bill to reorganize the judiciary of the United States is primarily a bill to relieve the Supreme Court. There is no doubt that it ought to pass; no doubt indeed that some such measure ought to have been passed long ago. The former legislation to relieve the judges partially from circuit duty has proved even more incommensurate with the difficulties of the situation than we predicted; for the chief evil, singularly anomalous though it be, was retained. So long as suitors in the circuit and district courts have substantially but one court to appeal to, just so long that one court will be overwhelmed with all the appealable cases of the Federal tribunals. It is absolute ignorance of the American character to suppose that the average suitor will surrender, if he believes himself in the right, on the decision of any one man. When a second tribunal composed of a number of judges decides against him he will ordinarily confess himself mistaken, lay the blame on the law, and give up the contest. But it is a folly which none but a member of Congress could be guilty of to suppose that in this country the court of first resort would be made voluntarily the court of last resort. This vast mass of cases has gone to the Supreme Court *ex necessitate rei*, because Congress provided no other appellate tribunal where they might go.

Appreciating and commending what might be termed the motive of this measure, we must nevertheless object to two of its provisions. The $10,000 restriction on appeals is an enormous advance in a very bad direction. It practically makes the Supreme Court a tribunal exclusively for wealthy litigants. All of our traditions, American and English, and our sense of justice and our theory of legal rights, are opposed to a restriction which will close the doors of any court to ninety-nine in a hundred citizens. The

problem must be to keep out petty litigation, but not to keep out poor suitors. When we read in every English newspaper of actions brought before the Superior Courts of Westminster wherein the damages are laid at not more than £50, we cannot avoid thinking that the Judiciary Committee of the House has travelled a long way from the old idea that all men are equal before the law.

We must also object to the provision which allows the right of appeal to be dependent upon the discretion of the tribunal whose judgment is to be reviewed. The less we have of discretion in our American jurisprudence, and the more closely legal rights are measured by fixed rules, the better both for the judiciary and the citizen. The less, too, that the administration of justice depends upon the skill, or ability, or personal influence of the advocate, the more certain and honest and cheap it will be. If a case be represented by very eminent counsel, it will be found "of sufficient importance to require that the final decision thereof should be made by the Supreme Court"; if it be represented by the young or undistinguished lawyer, the judges will shake their heads and say "the public welfare requires that there be an end of litigation." The only sound criterion to be applied to any such class of appeals is that of a divided court. "Of sufficient importance" sounds well in a bill, but means nothing. Of sufficient importance to whom—the plaintiff, the defendant, the public, the profession, the learned counsel, or the court which wishes to be reviewed? Of sufficient importance in what—the amount, the principle, the effect on other cases, the intricacy or novelty of the questions involved? In short, these two words constitute one of those openings through which, as a learned judge once said, "a man might drive a yoke of oxen." On the other hand, if the members of a Circuit Court of Appeals were to stand three to two and the judge of the Supreme Court and the circuit judge formed the minority, could there be any propriety in allowing the right of appeal from such a decision to depend upon the discretion of the three district judges?

Some opposition to the bill, we are informed, is likely to arise, coming from an unexpected source—the judges of the already overworked circuits. Having already more to do than they can perform, they are opposed to new duties which must inevitably retard the existing administration of justice in their courts. And this suggests a defect in the bill as being too exclusively designed for the relief of the Supreme Court. We have in the United States districts where there is not two months' court work during the year; and, again, districts where there may be said to be thirty-six months' work to be disposed of in a year. The "penny-wise, pound-foolish" parsimony of Congress has shrunk from sending the idle judges to help the overworked and paying their expenses. Before the bill gets through Congress there should be engrafted upon it a comprehensive and liberal provision to this effect; for it is in the highest degree desirable that the new system be well balanced at the outset, and that in relieving the Supreme Court it do not erect a new dam farther up the stream.

To us Americans the judiciary is relatively a more important element of government than the judiciary of any other people can be to them. Yet does any one know what the Federal judiciary costs? It costs less than our light-house keepers; less than our diplomatic service; less than the "salary-grab." The annual pay of members of Congress would support the judiciary for four years. If the pay of every soldier during the war had been docked only a dollar a year, it would have been more than sufficient to carry on the judicial branch of the Government. All of the salaries of the United States judges, clerks, marshals, district-attorneys, and reporters cost the people of the United States about one cent for each inhabitant. Yet there are demagogues possessed of so little intelligence themselves that they really suppose the intelligent portion of the people prefer, for economy's sake, a weak and defective judicial system, which must directly and indirectly occasion delay, uncertainty, business derangements, insolvency, and that demoralization which cannot be measured in money.

ENGLISH PRONUNCIATION.

IN due course, after having become familiar, through literature, in England, our spelling-bees have at last been practically introduced there, and are contributing to while away the long winter evenings. Reports of them have appeared in the newspapers; these reports have given rise to comments by correspondents; and, in culmination, editorial dignity itself has condescended to mount the oracular tripod in the interests of spelling and pronunciation. Some of the results, in the way of facts and opinions, which have consequently emerged into publicity, are instructive, and some of them are not void of amusement. As to the facts, we learn, for instance, that, at least in select circles, Walker guides our English contemporaries on questions of orthography, just as he guided our grandfathers. Among the statements which the newly-imported diversion has educed, one is that, out of every ten educated Londoners, nine say *peninsu'ar* instead of *peninsula*, and similarly append *r* to all words ending in *a*. To this assertion, however, a self-complacent Scotchman insists on an amendment by declaring that the style of barbarism thus exemplified is all but as widespread as our very language. For so saying we may, no doubt, give him credit for correct information as regards the elocution of rather numerous low cockneys; but the remaining basis of his induction he has simply supplied by conjecture. More especially his own compatriots, he seems to think, constitute, from among all who have to do with English, the sole homogeneous body of articulate men which does not herein offend. Another position of his is even more hardy than this, and, indeed, grazes the heroic very nearly. He asks us to believe nothing less than that "a Scotticism is not necessarily a vulgarism, while an Anglicism is." To reckon up and formalize the swarming corollaries which logically attach to this humiliating proposition would call for more space than we can consent to spare. Keeping to pronunciation, it is demanded of us, according to this, to admit that an Englishman's way of disposing the accents, etc., of his mother-tongue is coarse and ignoble so long as North Britons—people speaking largely only a dialect of English—abstain from ratifying it. *Advertise*, as not having supplanted, in Scotland, the old-fashioned *advarti'se*—its *i* turned into the rustic *ai*, withal—must needs be plebeian; and so must be *commit'tee*, instead of *com'mittee* or *committee'*, which Englishmen have long abandoned, but which Scotchmen are pleased to patronize still. On another interpretation of the dictum just quoted, there is an innate elegance in Scotchmen which forbids that they should originate, in speech, anything unquestionably vulgar, whereas miserable South Britons, owing to their unfortunate organization and unhappy instinct, are, on the contrary, never led to devise any form of utterance which is not vulgar intrinsically. The author of the cruel and depressing maxim on which we are remarking laid his account, we may surmise, to kindle an outburst of British wrath and reclamation which it might be hard for even a Scotchman to stand up against. It must be disappointing to him that he has only been laughed at. That an Englishman should not be more likely than any one else to utter aright his own native speech is naturally placed by his answerers on a par with the contention that the sum of two and two is not four. There remains to add that, abstraction made of the misaccentuation of a few well-known words, and of the mismanagement of the aspirate, Englishmen are, as a rule, exceedingly tolerant as to the pronunciation of our language. The reason of this, or one of the reasons, may be possibly that, with rare exceptions, all the energy which they choose to spare consciously in connection with the niceties of vocalism is exhausted in mastering the longs and shorts of Latin and Greek.

Not many months ago, one of our correspondents spoke of the words *glass*, *last*, and *pastor* as perilously near being vulgarisms if sounded with their *a* like that in *father*. The late Mr. B. H. Smart, an orthoepist of the highest authority, had gone even further than this in referring *ass*, so uttered, to "a vulgar mouth." At the time this was his judgment he named the *a* of *at*, prolonged, as furnishing the proper vowel-sound in *ass;* but he is quoted as having subsequently written: "It is no longer affectation to say *dss;* and *grānt*, *grāft*, etc., at present indicate the pronunciation of well-educated London people under sixty-five or sixty years of age." It is interesting to hear what Mr. Alexander J. Ellis has to say on this head. In a letter to the London *Daily News*, he states that "the words *ass*, *pass*, *path*, *staff*, etc., have each six different pronunciations, each of which would pass muster before the most fastidious audience; but *gas* has only one," etc., etc. This averment, the truth of which it might be hazardous to doubt, strikingly corroborates the conclusion we have come to, that, in regard to pronunciation, Englishmen, within defined limits, some of them rather capricious, are, for the most part, ready to allow a very liberal margin of choice.

Dealing in generalities, Mr. Ellis ventures the opinion that there "is no

existing standard of the pronunciation of any literary language." He continues: "The distinction *literary* must be strongly insisted on. A literary language is entirely artificial. It never has been spoken naturally, although it is generally founded on the governmental or ecclesiastical predominance of some local habits." In passing, while there can be no question that the jejune articulations of an unlettered boor are, just as much as the elaborate rhetoric of a Johnson or a Gibbon, acquired, we wish that even every one given to "rushing into newspapers," as Mr. Ellis puts it, could be compelled to peruse and ponder Mr. J. S. Mill's criticism on "Nature" in his 'Three Essays on Religion.' Quite possibly, as a consequence, we should have less of unmeaning talk about language "spoken naturally," a language "entirely artificial," and the like, than now helps to dilate the pages and becloud the brains of conventionally nebulous thinkers.

To say "there is no existing standard of the pronunciation of any literary language" is a statement of that description which we ought not to expect from one who, like Mr. Ellis, acknowledges that the letter *r* "has engaged his attention for more than thirty years," and who, therefore, must presumably have reflected much on language. The real facts of the case are, we conceive, as follows: Take English for an example. Subject, as everything else is, to the law of unintermittent change, it has no more absolute fixity than that which may be predicated of the present moment. Without cessation, it evolves or borrows new expressions, drops or modifies old ones, and ousts established senses of words in favor of others, or else accumulates the latter on the former. Further, that which obtains touching words obtains, and often as inexplicably, touching their pronunciation. But few lines of Shakspere, as they came out of Shakspere's mouth, would be immediately understood by a modern audience. This we know for certain; and yet science owns itself baffled when challenged to render a reason for so seemingly strange a phenomenon. Even now, when we adopt a word from the French, it does not at all follow, any more than it ever did, that we accept it to the ear as well as to the eye precisely as we found it. Then, as to terms from the Latin, Greek, etc., every generation shifts the accents of a number of them, generally to the producing of increased uniformity. Still, the words thus altered in enunciation are never very many within the compass of any one man's conscious experience. We repeat, that a strict parallel to what any one personally observes regarding the changes in our vocabulary, one observes as concerns pronunciation. In order to stereotype either of them in permanence, the human mind must first come to a complete deadlock. Room for option, alike in the one and in the other, there must, further, be to some extent, until we all get into and keep within one and the same groove of associations, enlightenment, and taste; a consummation awaiting what our far-off forefathers quaintly designated as nevermass. Why we demur to the precept that "there is no existing standard of the pronunciation of any literary language" will now be patent. Of literary English there undoubtedly is a standard of pronunciation, or, rather, as near an approach to a standard as seems attainable. However, in the estimation of Mr. Ellis, not only there is none, but, "in fact, there is no such thing as educated English pronunciation. There are pronunciations of English people more or less educated in a multitude of other things, but not in pronunciation."

Conformity with the pronunciation of the educated is not, then, good enough for our theorist. And so the secret at last is out, revealing to us a reminder of that visionary order which holds that the right and the wrong in the province of language is not determinable by good usage. Such wildness as this we emphatically protest against. Among the legitimate functions of a lexicographer are those of collecting genuine words, of defining them as in use, of tracing their etymology, and of spelling them as they are spelled after the consensus of the most intelligent writers. And no less the main service appropriate to an orthoepist is that of a mere explorer and recorder, that of ascertaining and registering the pronunciation which is agreed upon by a majority of the most cultivated speakers. Let the orthoepist additionally speculate on ideal improvements, by all means, if he will; but, inasmuch as the English-speaking peoples, at their best, are not barbarians, if, ignoring the actual and blind to all but theory, he says that "there is no such thing as educated English pronunciation," he might as well say that educated Englishmen and Americans are as yet non-existent. Right pronunciation is one of those things which are best acquired by unconscious imitation of one's right-pronouncing constant associates; and it is rarely acquired in any perfection otherwise. Place a ploughboy among lads of a higher social grade than his own, and keep him there, and he will sooner or later pronounce as they do. If, however, instead of being confined strictly to such companionship, he goes on herding with other ploughboys, no inculcation of rules, though ever so diligent, will avail to work much improvement in him as a pronouncer. Nor, since it leads up to a part of our conclusion, is the giving expression to a fact so obvious as this entirely needless. On the one hand, orthoepy, being considered, and rightly, as an attribute of thorough culture, should be studied privately by grown-up people whose bygone neglect requires it, and should in schools be taught professionally, if only to counteract the contamination of prevailing bad example. On the other hand, it behoves those who offer to teach orthoepy to deal honestly by their subject, and to teach real orthoepy. Not unusually, we suspect, if not universally, their own predilections and private fancies are, as to this, that, and the other, the sole foundation of what they put forth as unoptionally correct. As a sample of what we mean, Mr. B. H. Smart directs that the *h* of *wheat, which, whip*, etc, should be sounded; and he had endless vexation about these words with his pupils as a matter of course, for it may be doubted whether he ever heard them without the *h* silent from any Englishman whatever, high or low, who was unaffected by Scotch or other un-English influences.

We have contended that there is a standard of English pronunciation. As an existing thing, it must have a local habitation; and this there is no difficulty in discovering. Should any one demonstrate that London is not the grand focus of civilization of us who speak English, it will then be time to seek for the standard of our language, and of the way to pronounce it, somewhere else. In no other one spot are so many educated English-speaking persons permanently congregated; and in no other one spot are the fruits of the varied learning dispensed by the great universities of Oxford and Cambridge so numerously represented. Nor is this all, or near it. We have there, more specifically, the headquarters of Great Britain, literary, scientific, legal, ecclesiastical, military, legislative, aulic. Each of the groups here enumerated has, doubtless, for occasional use, its minor professionalisms of speech; each, however, bearing with any of the others, when these professionalisms escape involuntarily or are obtruded wittingly. But essentially they all agree at any given time, and their general agreement is a thing which an attentive observer may make out with very little pains. Such an observer will soon satisfy himself, also, that a certain scope is left for choice of pronunciation, and that nothing but unmitigated vulgarity of utterance is thought to warrant injurious impressions. An ancient gentleman is not blamed for keeping up the *bale'ny, goold*, and *obleege*, which he learnt seventy years ago. An Oxford man and a Cambridge man will say, respectively, *nī̆ther* and *nee̊ther*, the one to the other, perhaps unaware that they do so; and bystanders, if they notice the difference, and are questioned on it, will allow that both are right enough, and so will the contrarient pronouncers themselves. An uncompromising college don, to whom classical syllabic quantity is as sacred as the Thirty-nine Articles, will signify his profound erudition by his *medi*ē̆*nal* and *Alexandri*ă, varied with *O'hi*ō and *Pot'omac*, and his hearers are not appreciably aggrieved. An affected guardsman drops all his *r*'s, and no one, even mentally, proposes to pick them up and beg him to utilize them. A nobleman pronounces *volcano* with the so-called Italian *a*, and he may therein consult his pleasure, though he finds no imitators. Yet, in one respect all Englishmen harmonize as speakers. We refer to their tone of voice; and this, we apprehend, no adult foreigner can ever school himself into, or can so much as mimic successfully.

To sum the matter up, pronunciation, provided one avoids that of the confessedly illiterate, is an affair of only subordinate importance. Perpetually undergoing mutation, and its fashions not being so readily transmissible as the changes in written language, no one living at a distance from the centre where it is determined should be severely censured if ignorant of its present standard. Viewed rationally, it is the most ephemeral of modes; and, under any but an historical aspect, as between the decisions of veracious professors of it, those which were given last year may be of no more value, in comparison with those given this year, than a superannuated almanac. Excessive anxiety, or a habit of finical and superpunctilious exactingness, as with reference to dress, so with reference to pronunciation, is, moreover, an unfailing index of frivolity and little-mindedness. For the rest, nowhere on earth, we suppose, is correct pronunciation necessarily a concomitant of good breeding, except in so far as good breeding is assumed to include good education. A different opinion has, of late, been industriously promulgated; but we submit that it stands on much the same footing with the transcendental notion that the essence of gentlemanhood is wholly irrespective of both knowledge and morality. Pronounce as a man may, at any rate let his attitude towards pronunciation be that of common sense, and free from an inflated egotism. Whether we exert ourselves, or do not, to follow the English in their utterance of the language which we share with them, we shall, most assuredly, do well in deferring to their example

of good-natured tolerance of those whose elocution is not exactly to their own liking, and of checking a disposition, if it should arise, to draw censorious deductions from peculiarities which may, perhaps, be more than compensated by merits we can ourselves make no pretension to.

Notes.

A. S. BARNES & CO. will publish 'The Battles of the Revolution,' by General Carrington; and a reprint of 'Principles and Acts of the Revolution,' by Hezekiah Niles, famous in our political history as the editor of *Niles's Register*. The work has been thoroughly revised and chronologically arranged, with a classification of the contents under the respective colonies, by his grandson, Samuel V. Niles.——Mr. James E. Munson, 34 Park Row, announces that on March 1 he will begin the publication of a semi-monthly *Phonographic News*. Each number will contain eight medium octavo pages, all (except the title-page) printed entirely in phonographic characters, reproduced by the *Graphic* process from short-hand manuscript written by the editor. The reading matter will be adapted both to beginners and to experienced writers of short-hand.——The *Publishers' Weekly* for Jan. 29 contains a new and useful kind of advertisement, showing the number and titles of all the works issued by any given house in 1875. Another year we may hope to see the representation more complete, and some discrimination made typographically between home products and foreign reprints.——*Bulletin* No. 36 of the Boston Public Library (Jan., 1876) continues its suggestions for Centennial reading under the head of "Literature of 1776," with the sub-headings: In general; the Canada expeditions; Fort Moultrie, Sullivan's Island; Independence declared; Battle of Long Island; New York, White Plains, Fort Washington; Arnold on Lake Champlain; Retreat through the Jerseys, Trenton, Princeton; naval operations. It also contains a very full bibliography of music, and the beginning of an important "Check List for American Local History" (Abington—Boston).——The American series of A. B. Auerbach, Stuttgart, which we have already described as in progress, now embraces a translation of Franklin's Autobiography ('Benjamin Franklin: sein Leben, von ihm selbst geschrieben'), with a preface by Berthold Auerbach and an historic-political introduction by Dr. Friedrich Kapp, who gives a general sketch of the whole of Franklin's career. He finds a physical and psychological resemblance between the author of 'Poor Richard' and the Westphalian folk, or the Mecklenburgers whose homely wit and wisdom Fritz Reuter has made familiar to us in their Plattdeutsch dialect. Mr. Kapp instances as quite Franklinesque the remark of one of these about a neighboring advocate whose reputation was unsavory: "He is an honorable and worthy man, my boy, but you could not prove it on him"—a form of libel for which Mr. T. W. Park would perhaps not seek to recover damages.—— Dr. Kapp, we may notice by the way, contributes to the January number of the *Deutsche Rundschau* an interesting article on the "Centennial Celebration of the American Declaration of Independence," in which he enumerates the reasons why Americans may revert with pride and gratitude to July 4, 1776. The *Rundschau*, we are informed, has a circulation in this country of not less than 800 copies.——In our review of the historical literature of 1875 last week we neglected to speak of Maspero's 'Histoire ancienne des peuples de l'Orient,' which would seem to be the best and most recent statement of the results of scholarship in this field.——J. B. Lippincott & Co. have in press a 'History of the Philadelphia Brigade' (69th, 71st, 72d, and 106th Reg. Penn. Vols.), by Chas. H. Banes; and 'Centennial and Other Poems,' by R. S. Pollard.

—The fiftieth annual report of the President carries the history of Harvard College along another year, and the appended report of the Dean gives a number of statistics showing the effect upon the class of 1875 of their release during the senior year from enforced attendance upon college exercises other than morning prayers and examinations. The Dean sums up the result briefly by saying "that the average number of absences from recitations was between two and three times as great as it would have been under the system of enforced attendance, and that the influence of the change upon the average scholarship of the class was imperceptible either for good or evil." "Of the students, forming just one-half of the class, who obtained 75 per cent. or more of the maximum mark, three-fourths were absent not more than sixty times in the course of the year, or not more, on an average, than twice a week; while a considerable number of scholars of high grade took advantage to this extent of their freedom." By one of the Dean's tables it appears that the first ten, in point of scholarship, of the class were absent on an average twenty-four times. The rank of these ten ranged from 98 to 92 per cent. of the maximum. The fourteenth and last ten, who obtained from 53 to 48 per cent. of the maximum, were absent on the average one hundred and twenty-four times—the total number of exercises to be attended by each senior being about three hundred and sixty. If the experiment of freeing the seniors from enforced attendance upon recitations stood unrelated to the general discipline of the college, one year's trial of it might not be considered decisive of the result, but it is not an isolated experiment; it marches with the policy of the college in making almost all the work after the freshman year elective, and it depends upon observations of the effect of elective studies upon the student which extend back a good many years beyond the present college administration, so that it may be supposed that the trial of 1874–75 has gone a good way towards making the new arrangement permanent. The friends of the change, whose number was revealed by the applause that accompanied Dr. Hedge's triennial address on "University Reform" in 1866, ought to feel gratified. There may occur some abuses of privilege; but the Faculty are not likely to allow the effect of an improvement in educational methods to be spoiled by a few idly disposed persons. Notwithstanding the negative result of one year's trial, we do not know why some advance in general scholarship may not be looked for eventually under the new arrangement.

—The Dean's report gives the number of students in the different classes attending different studies, but does not calculate the percentage of attendance in these studies. We have done this, as somewhat interesting in the present state of learning at the college. We find that in the three upper classes, reckoned as one, where these studies are not required, 32 per cent. elect Greek, 68 per cent. Latin, 41 German, 33 French, 9 Italian, 5 Spanish, 48 History, 25 Mathematics, 50 Physics, 23 Chemistry, 34 Natural History. From the Freshman Class, of which Greek, Latin, etc., are required, 2 in number took advanced Greek, 4 advanced Latin, 2 German, and 2 French. In the year 1875, French or German was required for the first time in the examination for admission. Of 318 examined, 294 presented French, and 24 German. Of those offering French, 41 per cent. failed in this requisition, and 21 per cent. of those offering German. In the year 1874–75, French was not taught in the freshman year, but was taught as a prescribed study to 89 sophomores out of 208. At the same time, German was a required study of the 195 freshmen. Philosophy, not including Political Economy, as the table does, was taken by 37 per cent. of the three upper classes. This includes 42 sophomores with whom Philosophy is not a required study. Philosophy, however, is a required study in the junior year, and was then taken in the prescribed exercises by 138 out of the class of 159. Political Economy is a required study in the sophomore year; advanced Political Economy was taken by 42 per cent. of the juniors and seniors. The 48 per cent. of students in advanced History (mediæval and modern) included 51 sophomores, in which class History is also required. The 25 per cent. of advanced students in Mathematics does not include 15 freshmen who were associated with them. Of the 197 freshmen, 184 appear in "Mathematics, Class I.," and 185 in "Class II." Advanced, in addition to prescribed, Physics was taken by two sophomores. Attendance upon lectures in Physics is required of all the juniors. Advanced Chemistry was taken by 1 freshman. Two freshmen also elected studies in natural history. Music was elected by 3 per cent. of the whole college; Fine Arts (principles of design in painting, etc.; history of the fine arts and their relation to literature) by 12 per cent. of the sophomores, juniors, and seniors. About 6 per cent. of the same elected English, including Anglo-Saxon, and the comparative grammar of the Teutonic languages. Exercises in Rhetoric with six themes were also required of all the sophomores; the same, with four forensics, of all the juniors; and four forensics (a noun not recognized by the dictionaries—the thing meant is a variety of theme) of all the seniors. Two seniors studied Hebrew, two seniors and one freshman Sanskrit. It is necessary to say further, in explanation of some of these figures, that for the past three years sophomores and juniors "have been at liberty to present themselves for examination in advance upon any of the prescribed studies of those years, and upon passing a satisfactory examination in any subject have been exempted from attendance at exercises in that subject, receiving their mark from the anticipatory examination." In 1874–75, of the 159 juniors 17 thus anticipated the prescribed Logic, 21 Psychology, and 88 Rhetoric; and of the 208 sophomores 104 prevented (to employ a convenient archaism) their prescribed Political Economy, 83 Constitutional History of the United States, 31 History, and 43 Physics. Of the 25 freshmen admitted at the last examination, 7 passed on the Latin of the freshman year, 8 on the Greek, 9 on the German, and 10 on the whole or a part of the Mathematics, and took in their room electives.

—Harvard College is now the only college in the country—at least, the only one of the leading colleges—which makes a full and complete and public annual report of its work and condition, a fact to which President Eliot in the document before us calls attention. Harvard has now for fifty years laid before the country this yearly statement of its affairs. Every college, great and small, in the country ought to do so, and we think it would not be amiss for the legislature to compel it to do so. The funds of the various colleges now form a sum of enormous amount, constituting a trust of the highest importance to the public welfare, and there is, therefore, every reason why those charged with its administration should render a periodical account of their stewardship. At present, many of the colleges—and some of the richest—carry on their work with far greater secresy than if they were private money-making corporations. An annual report would not only do a great deal to abate or remove any popular hostility to their accumulation of property, which may before long show itself in an attempt to tax them, but would convey invaluable information, both to the officers of other colleges and to parents and guardians. It is not by way of casting any imputation upon any college in particular that we add that there is no body of men, however conscientious or able, which does not in the administration of a great public trust need both the stimulus and check which comes from the knowledge that they will have, at short intervals, to lay before the world an account of what they have been doing, their reasons for doing it, and the results.

—In the *American Law Review* for January is an article on German Legislation which illustrates that curious fancy for foreign follies that our over-modest American citizens are so apt to acquire when exposed to the baleful influence of benighted Europe. The author explains how the drafting of the laws is there done in the most elaborate manner by experts of the highest ability. The laws are not intended to be revised by the courts of law; and "they not only contain a brief statement of the special rule, but also set forth the principle on which it is founded, and by which it is to be construed." The legislation "here described is not done in a hurry, and is meant to last. Certain laws have been years in preparation. In these cases the draft is printed and put in circulation, so as to obtain the weight of opinion long before it is put on its passage, or they are submitted to permanent committees. By these means a general and satisfactory understanding is apparently arrived at, so that at the end bills of great extent and importance are rapidly passed, not without opposition, but so as thus far to have saved the German legislature from that appearance of weakness and indecision which has been fatal to some parliamentary governments. . . . One has to confess to a new sensation at finding it [the law] prized for intelligibility, and at detecting no suspicion that it is not to be understood like other matters by the unaided human faculties." Our readers will remember that Mr. Mill once suggested the application of skilled labor to law-making, by entrusting the formal shaping of statutes to professionals of high standing; but this has been regarded as one of those curious vagaries in which the soundest minds will sometimes indulge. He obviously did not know how we make laws in this country; and we turn with a sigh of relief from this foreign red-tape to our simpler system. Taking up the blue-books of one of the leading New England States, we find that in the last two years 816 laws, general and special, were enacted, and of these about two-thirds were private laws, most of which extended the powers of corporations. The remaining two hundred odd were all amendments of previous general statutes. Of the general laws passed in 1874, twenty-five (about one-sixth of the whole) were amended or repealed at the same session, and twenty-one at the next session, some of them being amended a number of times, so that these hundred and fifty laws have required some sixty alterations during a little more than a year from their passage. The general statutes of 1873 were fewer in number (less than 130) and the amendments now number 44. The general statutes of 1872 have been less leniently dealt with. Numbering about the same as those of 1873, they have already received 64 amendments. A little more than three years has elapsed and the amendments already number half as many as the original statutes of that year. It would be tedious to go over in such detail the legislation of previous years; but the reader will notice that the ten years, 1860–1870, doubled the bulk of the statute law of the State, and the next decade promises to be much richer. Some subjects have received an attention worthy of remark. Thus, the divorce laws have been amended nearly every year in the last fourteen, only five legislatures leaving them untouched; and amendments are now before the present Legislature. This subject is no doubt regarded as especially fit for the experimental methods of modern science, the fixity of domestic relations being of so little comparative importance. We hope the commonwealth of M——tts will send a set of its blue-books to the Centennial Exposition. It seems a pity to lose so fine an opportunity of showing the effete and semi-barbarous tyrannies of Europe how to make laws.

—In the death of Mr. John Forster literature has suffered a considerable loss. His contributions to letters during the last forty years not only have been numerous and various, but distinguished by thoroughness of research, accuracy of statement, generous feeling, and masculine common-sense. He had a high estimate of the dignity of his calling, and though his literary style had little of splendor or of grace, it was that of a man who had made good English his study, and who had learned to express his thought in general with vigor and precision. His books are not works of genius, but they display a strongly-marked character, and secure for their author the respect of his readers. His 'Lives of the Statesmen of the Commonwealth,' and his more extended 'Life of Sir John Eliot,' have taken a secure place in the small library of English histories that will not need to be rewritten as time goes on and opinions change, while his lives of Goldsmith, of Landor, and of Dickens will always remain the chief and best sources of information concerning their respective subjects. His 'Life of Swift,' of which the first volume is but fresh from the press, must, it is to be feared, remain a fragment. He wrote it under conditions of depression and illness. It was the work, he said, of his "sick leisure," but it shows no marks of feebleness or weariness. It is the fruit of long studies and of carefully accumulated material, and it gives proof of the same literary zeal, the same fidelity of research, the same painstaking and minute accuracy, and the same cultivated faculty of appreciation which are characteristic of his earlier productions. In reviewing his literary career, the fact is prominent of a prepossession in favor of biography, and the list of the lives he has written exhibits the breadth and variety of his sympathies This was in truth the ruling characteristic of his nature and his life. It is strikingly illustrated by his having been the chosen biographer of men of genius so diverse, of temper so opposed, of lives so unlike, as Landor and Dickens; and Forster will be remembered hereafter not so much for his services to literature as for his friendships. To have been the chosen, lifelong friend of Landor, Dickens, Carlyle, and other men not unworthy to be classed with these, is the proof of a genius far rarer than any which wins mere literary celebrity. "The only way to have a friend is to be one," says Mr. Emerson, and this was Forster's prime quality. It is this which makes his death a deep personal loss to many persons known and unknown to the world. Mr. Forster was born at Newcastle in 1812. He studied for the bar, to which he was admitted, but his literary tastes soon withdrew him from the practice of the law, though he long retained his chambers in Lincoln's Inn—pleasant chambers, always hospitably open, and a frequent meeting-place of the best spirits of the time. He was for many years editor of the *Examiner*, and made its influence felt in politics and in letters. He was a Liberal in politics; and, deeply interested in American institutions, he followed the course of contemporary history in America with unusual intelligence and appreciation. His knowledge of English literature was extensive and thorough, and he collected a library such as few men of letters have had at command. For a long period he was, first, Secretary to the Commissioners, and then one of the Commissioners in Lunacy, and he discharged the responsible and often laborious duties of his office with exemplary fidelity. He married comparatively late in life, and became possessed of ample means; but ease of outward circumstance did not abate his industry or diminish the activity of his cordial sympathies. His latest years were saddened by the death of friends and by the failure of health; but even in the depression of sorrow and illness the strong vitality of his nature displayed itself in the quickness of his interest in affairs and in his ready social animation. In personal intercourse, the sturdy traits of his character were conspicuous. He was thoroughly English in the build of his body and his mind. His dislikes were as hearty as his likes; his prejudices were often indulged to humorous extravagance. An impetuous and vehement manner covered or disclosed the almost womanly tenderness of his heart. His memory was excellently stored, and he used its stores easily. His talk came from a full mind. He knew his books, and his library became by degrees one of the best in its kind. The room was a delightful one, and the volumes on its crowded shelves were the true surrounding for one whom their authors would readily admit on even terms to spiritual companionship. Swift, Addison, Fielding, Smollett, Goldsmith, Johnson, seemed but little less familiar with him than their living successors; and now that he is dead, Forster, as he would have liked, has become to thought the contemporary of them all.

—Frédéric Lemaître, born a month before Déjazet and dying a month after her, had not, like her, preserved his powers unimpaired; he had long been little but a ruined relic of his former self. Perhaps the greatest of the

four great artists of the romantic period of the French drama, he had survived for years Bocage, Mlle. Georges, and Mme. Dorval. After playing in "Trente Ans, ou la Vie d'un Joueur" with Mme Dorval, he created—and here the use of the French idiom is exact—"Robert Macaire," transmuting the cheap melodrama, of which he was one of the authors, into a colossal caricature almost Aristophanic in its grandiose buffoonery. Perfected by the wit of Philipon and the pencil of Daumier, "Robert Macaire" has remained a type. In 1835, after playing *Gennaro* in "Lucrèce Borgia," and *Richard Darlington*, he visited England, where he was well received. It can hardly be doubted that his powerful but occasionally vulgar acting exerted a visible influence upon Dickens (then only beginning to be known as "Boz"), with whose nature his had much in common. Upon his return to France he appeared in "Kean," a piece of tawdry bombast by the elder Dumas, unworthy of criticism, but effectively contrived to show off the varied genius of the actor. To Edmund Kean, from whom the play borrowed only its name, the French critics frequently likened him. Gautier called him "the only actor who reminds us of Garrick, Kemble, Macready, and especially Kean"—a conjunction of names which must appear absurd to any one who knows the unlikeness to each other of the actors thus grouped together. Mr. Lewes says that to "speak of Lemaître as a rival of Kean or Rachel seems to me like comparing Eugène Sue with Victor Hugo—the gulf that separates prose from poetry yawns between them." M. Hugo himself thought otherwise; in the note appended to "Ruy Blas," in which Lemaître acted the hero, the author declares that "for the old, he is Lekain and Garrick in one; for us he has the action of Kean united to the emotion of Talma." He was often called "the Talma of the boulevards." It is related that, at the first reading of "Ruy Blas," Lemaître supposed that he was to play, not the hero, but *Don César de Bazan*, an incident which perhaps suggested to that skilful playwright the setting of *Don César* in a separate play of which Lemaître should be the protagonist. After this, his next important part was the *Chiffonier* of M. Félix Pyat. In Balzac's "Vautrin," his make-up to resemble Louis Philippe caused the suppression of the play. It is inaccurate to say—as it has been said since his death—that of late, or after his failure in "Les Saltimbanques" in 1832, he played no new parts; for in 1838 he acted the old schoolmaster in M. Barrière's "Crime de Faverne" with much of his old effect, if we are to believe M. Claretie ('La Vie Moderne au Théâtre,' first series). Again, in 1870, he played in "Le Portier du No. 15." The well-known "Contennaire" was written for him, although he never acted it. In the last years of the Empire he received a small pension from the Government, and in the summer of 1873 a general benefit was arranged for him at the Opéra, which fell through, owing to the anonymous intermeddling of a composer and critic who would not allow the desecration of the stage of the national opera-house by the "Fille de Mme. Angot." Mr. Lewes, whose temperate opinion seems more just than the enthusiastic eulogies of the French, thought Frédéric Lemaître "singularly gifted" and of "exceptional genius," but he detected in him (as we lately had occasion to remark) "something offensive to good taste," "a note of vulgarity, partly owing to his daring animal spirits, but mainly owing, I suspect, to an innate vulgarity of nature."

—Encouraged apparently by the success of the excellent "International Scientific Series," the publisher, Reinwald of Paris (F. W. Christern, N. Y.), announces a "Bibliothèque des Sciences Contemporaines," of which two volumes, 'La Biologie,' by Ch. Letourneau, and 'La Linguistique,' by M. Hovelacque, have appeared. The prospectus contains a list of good subjects and names; but reading it makes one wonder after all whether the number of compendious repetitions of the same given material which the public really needs be not overestimated by publishers. The Biology of this series, for example, which we have received and read, is assuredly a skilful and learned compilation, well written, and not without original suggestions and expressions. But for whose use is it? For that of studious youth? of leisurely eld with a taste for smattering and desultory dilettanteship? or for busy middle-age in men of other sciences who, having no leisure to look at the details of biology, yet need to know its more general results and tendencies? Not for the use of youth assuredly, for the English fashion of popularizing science by describing in full detail a concrete instance or two, and knitting a few general results to this as a text, is far better for beginners than a book like this, where the whole treatment tends to the abstract, and where the breadth of the "laws" disguises the physiognomy of the instances. We incline to think that the best function of such a book as this (and, *mutatis mutandis*, of its fellows) is to give medical practitioners, and persons who have studied anatomy and physiology sufficiently to supply from their memory some concrete particulars to give body to the author's generalities, a notion of the way in which biological science is to-day tending. But surely for these readers the need is not pressing, considering how many other manuals are within their reach; whilst for *beginners* in science the abstract-general-result method of exposition can only be regarded as a muddler of the imagination and an inspirer of conceit.

—Our objections to M. Hovelacque's book are not less decided, though of a somewhat different character. It has far too much of fact and too little of inference and reasoning for a manual of science. Of its 350 pages only about 50 are devoted to the discussion of general questions; and of the 50, a good part are wasted on the establishment of distinctions which would, with a better method, take care of themselves, or on what is worse. Nothing can show more strikingly the author's inaptitude for sound theorizing than his crusade against "etymology," which he declares to be the antithesis of linguistic science, the latter being the systematic historical study of a language and of its laws of development, as if these ends could possibly be reached in any other way than through etymology, the study of the history of words! M. Hovelacque would apparently have us get our principles and laws *à priori*. His general views, too, bear pretty clearly the marks of such an origin. His main authority is Schleicher, than whom a more untrustworthy guide in these matters could not well be found; and he adopts and puts nakedly forward, without any attempt to establish them or to refute the reasoning by which they have been repeatedly overthrown, such dogmas as that the study of language is a natural and not a historical science; that languages are born, grow, decay, and die, like all living creatures; that man became man by learning to talk, the faculty being the unique characteristic of humanity; and that languages have necessarily a variety of origins. In the purely descriptive work which constitutes the bulk of his volume, and which is, therefore, carried into far greater detail than in any other similar manual, M. Hovelacque is, of course, much more to be trusted, and a good deal may be learned from him if sought with some caution and independence of criticism. Yet here he does not always go to the best sources; for instance, for the American languages his authorities are the old ones, Pickering and Duponceau, with the modern addition of Friedrich Müller of Vienna—a man of great but very unequal merit, of too wide range and too great oddity of judgment to be safely followed. The Dravidian languages and the Basque are those which the volume before us treats most fully and with most originality. It rejects vehemently the "Turanian" family. It repels all idea of relationship between Indo-European and Semitic, but allows the connection of Semitic and Hamitic. As to the real character of Etruscan and of the "Accadian" of the cuneiform monuments, it expresses no decided opinion.

—In the hot theological controversies of the present day it is hard to treat any subject even remotely connected with ecclesiastical history without betraying a "tendency." This tendency is frankly avowed by August Werner, "Evangelisch-Protestantischer Pfarrer," in the very title of his 'Bonifacius, der Apostel der Deutschen, und die Romanisirung von Mitteleuropa' (Leipzig: T. O. Weigel; New York; L. W. Schmidt.) He reminds his readers that twenty years ago, at the eleven-hundredth anniversary of the death of St. Boniface, all classes and creeds in Germany hastened to pay honor to this greatest of missionaries; but that Archbishop Ketteler, his successor in the see of Mentz, cast a chill over this generous enthusiasm by harshly chiding the German people for its heresies and predicting its speedy downfall as a nation. Mr. Werner has a sense of satisfaction, we may be sure, in quoting the prelate's words, and comparing them with the present order of things in Germany. For the rest, while admitting that his work is a contribution to the present religious controversy, he asserts for it a scientific basis, in studies and authorities. He has produced a really instructive and readable book, and has shown with great clearness and fulness the nature of the ecclesiastical claims of Rome and the results of the mission of Boniface. He is not one of those—and here we agree with him—who accept historical movements, even on so large a scale as this, as necessary and therefore salutary; he can regard the Romanizing of Germany as essentially only a calamity, from the effects of which the world has not yet recovered. The political bearings of Boniface's career are very well analyzed, and the character and policy of Charles Martel are admirably described; the secularizations of Pepin are, on the other hand, inadequately treated. The style is animated, but there is at times too much detail for common readers. There is a great lack of dates and, as it seems to us, of references; neither is the index a very good one.

—It is now about ten years since Domenico Berti's 'Life of Giordano Bruno' threw a new and lurid light on one of the earlier tragedies which have marked the conflict between theology and science. The well-merited distinction which it conferred on the author has been maintained by a recent

work of even wider interest. On the fourth centenary birthday of Copernicus, Signor Berti pronounced a discourse in his honor, and this he has now published with considerable additions, including inedited documents illustrating the struggle through which a paternal Church preserved the purity of the faith by sending Bruno to the stake and condemning Galileo to silence. The Copernican theory was the field on which was fought out the battle between intellectual slavery and freedom of thought, and no one can fully comprehend the vicissitudes of the momentous struggle without referring to the labors of Signor Berti. In addition to the main subjects of interest in the volume, the author has collected much material which illustrates graphically the social and intellectual condition of Italy during the Renaissance. For instance, one of the curious incidents of the revival of letters, amid the ignorance and corruption of the Church before the Reformation, was the spread of unbelief and paganism among the learned—unbelief which found its way into the Vatican itself. In sketching the university life of Copernicus at Bologna during the closing years of the fifteenth century, Berti gives us vigorous portraits of some of the notable teachers of that mother of learning. Among these is conspicuous Codro Urceo, the Professor of Greek, who carried his learned fanaticism so far that he was wont to declare that the gods would pass away and fall, but that Homer never would; and it is related of him that once he turned to an image of the Virgin and addressed it: "Hear, O Virgin, these words that I utter from the bottom of my heart, and with full self-knowledge! If on my death-bed I implore thy help, take me not to thee, for I have resolved to pass my eternal life with the infernal gods!" No one can fully understand the development of our modern civilization without taking account of all the currents of thought which have contributed to it, and among these the neo-paganism to which we have alluded is not the least important. During the period between the suppression of Hussitism and the rebellion of Luther, the Church was wonderfully tolerant. Secure in the possession of its temporalities, it cared little what men might think or say so long as its revenues and immunities were not threatened. Savonarola might disregard a Papal excommunication and proclaim the foulness of the Papal court with impunity, but when he crazily sought to league together the sovereigns of Christendom against Rome, his doom was sealed. The extraordinary spectacle of a teacher of youth in the renowned University of Bologna thus openly indulging in blasphemies is, therefore, only a sign of the times; and the contrast between this and the severities exercised against the upholders of the Copernican theory marks the changed attitude of the Church wrought by the dangers of the Reformation, when it had learned by experience that thoughts were as formidable as armies.

AN HISTORICAL DETECTIVE.*

MR. CHARLES WENTWORTH DILKE was not a critic. His papers treat of Pope, Junius, and Burke, but they contain not a line which analyses the style or illustrates the thought of these three masters of the English language. He deals with historical personages, but he has no claim to the title of an historian. He does not narrate the events of as much as one year; he does not depict a single character; he does not propound any historical view or theory, and he exhibits an absolute incapacity for appreciating the character either of men or of ages. Nor, again, can Mr. Dilke be justly termed an antiquarian. He probably possessed a minute knowledge of certain periods, or at any rate of certain topics, but he was, to judge from his works, deficient in the capacity for profound or extended research. Mr. Dilke, nevertheless, was a genuine historical student, who did good service within a narrow field. He possessed faculties not of a high but certainly of a rare description. He worked, in short, at the kind of enquiries which excited his interest, much after the manner of an acute attorney who grudges no labor in getting up his case, and brought to the study of history the tastes, the faculties, and the method of one of those ingenious and successful detectives who are rarely to be found in a police station (for your ordinary policeman is a dull fellow who does not know his own business), but who abound in the pages of Dickens. Mr. Dilke could "mole" in his search for curious facts with the industry and success of Mr. Pancks. He noted down stray bits of information and pieced them together with the astuteness of Mr. Nadgett, and kept his eye upon "parties" who aroused his suspicion with the unwearying vigilance and sublime self-confidence of Inspector Bucket.

It was characteristic of his genius that he should choose as the main field of his labors the Junius controversy. It is still more characteristic that in dealing with this topic Mr. Dilke should have taken up an almost entirely negative position. He ventures indeed on a conjecture of his own as to the identity of the great unknown with Mason, the friend of Walpole. But Mr. Dilke himself attaches no importance to his own hypothesis, and devotes to it not a tithe of the 227 pages in which he sifts the claims put forward in favor of various pretenders by different theorists. It is in exposing the errors of others that all Mr. Dilke's really considerable power is displayed. It is scarcely an exaggeration to say that he looked upon every man who wrote upon Junius as an arrant humbug, who was certainly a fool and probably a knave. Mr. Dilke's eye was in a moment fixed on the offender; and Mr. Dilke's knowledge, industry, and acuteness were all brought into play to show that the man who was daring enough to think that he had solved the unsolvable literary enigma had proved nothing but his own incompetence and ignorance. Mr. Dilke, it must be admitted, did the work of exposure thoroughly well. He knew the details of his subject with the thoroughness of a skilful counsel who has studied all the ins and outs of a difficult brief. He had, further, thoroughly mastered the principle which many writers of greater pretensions have failed fully to appreciate, that no one should ever be content with second-hand evidence when original evidence is obtainable. Thus he shattered at one blow a whole mass of hypotheses by showing that the dates affixed to the private letters of Junius cannot be relied upon, since they depend in many cases merely on the conjecture of their first editor. So, again, he shows conclusively that a particular speech of Chatham's, which it has been assumed must have been heard by Junius, might have been known to him through a report which certainly appeared in some of the London papers. Some writer again asserts that the sale of the *Public Advertiser* rose immediately on the appearance of the celebrated letters. This assertion, which is credible enough in itself, seems to have passed entirely unquestioned till for some reason it roused the suspicion of Mr. Dilke, and he took the obvious but neglected precaution of examining the day-book of the newspaper. The result is rather curious. "Neither the first, nor the first dozen, nor the first two dozen letters had any effect whatever on the sale of the paper. Then, indeed, on the 19th December, 1769, came forth the letter to the king. This created an effect and an extraordinary demand. Dr. Good, who cannot be right even by accident, states that 500 copies of the *Advertiser* were printed in addition to the usual number, whereas the evidence before him—this day-book to which he might have referred—would have proved that 1,750 additional copies were printed." It may be said that these and like facts are not worth the labor with which they are ascertained. But Mr. Dilke clearly held that if men wrote about Junius at all they ought to write accurately, and the tenacity with which he clung to this belief is characteristic of the best side of his intellect and of his work. The characteristic expression, "who cannot be right even by accident," betrays an acerbity which rendered him not only a bitter but also a narrow-minded controversialist. As regards Junius and some other kindred topics, he was, no doubt, while he lived, "the scourge of impostors and terror of quacks." He has left no one, we fear, behind him who can deal with anything like the same thoroughness or severity with ignorant rogues who venture to think that the letters signed "C." are the work of the man who held up George III. and his ministers to immortal obloquy.

Mr. Dilke delighted in the detective's work of exposing imposture, and unfortunately his delight in this pursuit led him to confine his labors to topics in which the talents of a detective have full play. He writes about great men, but he never interests himself in the great side either of their work or of their character. Thus he devoted a great deal of attention and labor to the subject of Burke's biography. What is noteworthy is that the statesmanship, the oratory, and the political speculations of Edmund Burke possessed no interest for the mind of Mr. Dilke. He looked upon all the "Burkes" with intense suspicion. He noticed with truth that there is something mysterious, or at any rate not fully explained, about the early life and career of the man who rose from being the son of an unknown Irish attorney to a place in the foremost rank of English orators and politicians. Mr. Dilke seems to have been really harassed by the fact that it is not very easy to account for the steps by which Burke made his fortune. Here was an enigma worthy of his talents. What was Burke's parentage? What did his fortune amount to, and how did he get it? What was his religion? Was there any truth in the tale that he was once in America, or in the still more mysterious report that his brother was head of a Roman Catholic monastery? These and other enquiries like them, which amused the scandal-mongers of the last century, are the questions which occupied Mr. Dilke's really vigorous mind, and which he labored with indefatigable energy to answer. The results in this case scarcely repaid his labor. It would, however, be unfair to deny that he has contributed several facts to our knowledge of the early

* "The Papers of a Critic. Selected from the writings of the late Charles Wentworth Dilke. With a biographical sketch by his grandson, Sir Charles Wentworth Dilke, Bart., M.P." London: John Murray.

career of Burke, and has suggested trains of enquiry which any future biographer will be bound to follow up. It is impossible after reading Mr. Dilke's pages not to suspect that the earlier years of the great statesman's career were probably not a period to which he himself looked back with satisfaction. The strange rumors as to the mode by which the estate which Edmund Burke inherited from his brother came into Garrett Burke's hands; the curious lawsuit of which Mr. Dilke ferreted out the authentic details; the fact, which he seems to have established, that Burke's connections suffered severely from losses in India stock, are, each and all, matters of which satisfactory explanations enough could perhaps be given if it were possible to recover the whole details of Burke's life; but they certainly give countenance to the idea that Burke, like other great men who have risen from obscurity, may have suffered more from pecuniary and other difficulties than those who knew only his later years may have conjectured. Mr. Dilke, however, considerably weakens the effect produced on his readers by his careful research through the display of an inordinate and almost insane tendency to suspicion. The suggestion that Burke may have been induced to write his diatribes against the French Revolution, in part at least, by the wish for a pension, is just one of those suggestions which would never have been made by a man of Mr. Dilke's ability unless he had become for the moment a dupe to his own passion for detection. He exerted so much vigor in hunting up the secret history of the "Burkes" that at last he came to look upon them in the same way that a policeman regards a gang whom he knows to be rogues and has not yet been able to bring to conviction.

The inherent defects of the detective's view of history become apparent enough to any one who reads carefully the 'Papers of a Critic.' The subjects investigated are in themselves not worth investigation. The question, for example, who wrote the letters of Junius is one of no more essential importance than the enquiry who was the man in the iron mask. It is scarcely conceivable that, could the author of the letters be ascertained, the knowledge of his name would throw any real light either on the history of the last century or on the character of any man of first-rate celebrity. The letters themselves will always have a certain importance, since they give expression to the fierce indignation aroused among the English people by the incompetence and corruption of statesmen who in a critical period were leading the nation to ruin; while to know the name of the writer who gave expression to this indignation would gratify a natural curiosity, it would add next to nothing to our knowledge of the last century. The private character of Burke is a matter of more consequence, yet even here it is easy to overrate the importance of knowing all the details of a great man's life. Could it even be proved that Burke was influenced in his view of the French Revolution by considerations of private interest, the merits and demerits of the "Letter to a Noble Lord" or "The Regicide Peace" would be neither lessened nor increased. What men like Mr. Dilke never can understand is that a great man lives in his works. Were every slander which malignity has suggested and credulity has swallowed established as truth, the thoughts of Burke would not lose their weight, nor his language be deprived of its eloquence. Another defect of Mr. Dilke's method of enquiry is that it is, to speak plainly, ignoble. Great men have their weaknesses and their vices, and it is well that their weaknesses and vices should be known; but the man who occupies his mind mainly in exploring the weak sides of heroic characters directs attention to exactly that portion of biography which is unworthy the permanent contemplation of liberalminds.

The defects of Mr. Dilke's treatment of history are patent. It is of some consequence that its less obvious but real worth should not be overlooked. Patient enquirers who search diligently for facts deserve some praise even though the facts for which they search may be of slight importance, and their mode of investigation may argue a certain defect in taste. Every period of history is apt to become gradually misunderstood through the growth of a mass of errors and misrepresentations. Every now and then a man of genius cuts down at one blow the crop of confusion which hides the character of an age or of a man from the eyes of later generations. But more generally errors are removed one by one through the careful research of men who combine insatiable curiosity with a delight in exposing mistakes. Their labors are not always dignified, but they are always useful. The detectives of history, like the detectives of the police office, hardly deserve or look for admiration, but they serve, though in a humble sphere, the cause of truth.

TWO MILITARY WORKS.*

GENERAL GORDON'S "Third Paper" is a handsome volume of 230 pages. The first and second papers were pamphlets, of like print and size of page, and told the story of the regiment, from its organization in the spring of 1861 to February, 1863. The present continues the story through Banks's retreat from the Valley of the Shenandoah and his defeat at Cedar Mountain.

It would be well if the history of every regiment that saw actual service in our war could be written, but there were very few that deserved a permanent record so well as, and it is doubtful if there was one that deserved it better than the Second Massachusetts Infantry. Governor Andrew was at first extremely stiff in his recognition of the right of enlisted men to elect their officers, and was always extremely tenacious of his constitutional right of commissioning; but at the outbreak of the war such exceptional and powerful influences were brought to bear upon him that he yielded to the gentlemen who projected the formation of his second regiment the rare privilege of officering it as they saw fit. It was arranged that the colonelcy should be given to Gordon, the lieutenant-colonelcy to George L. Andrews, the majority to Wilder Dwight. Gordon was a graduate of West Point, and had seen service in the Mexican War, and had afterwards become a member of the Boston bar. He was a man of vigor and determination, a stern disciplinarian, self-confident, and unyielding, especially to his superiors; upon the whole, unusually well adapted to the task of turning into soldiers a mass of men drawn from a community accustomed for nearly half a century to the profoundest peace. Andrews had been the first soldier in his class at West Point, and had seen peaceful service in the Engineers. He was a man of the highest integrity, but a precisian, and trammelled by the qualities of his mind and of his training. Dwight, the prime mover in the formation of the regiment, was a young lawyer, of excellent standing and of brilliant promise. Well born, well educated, full of ardor, intelligence, and activity, he was rapidly making a name for himself, and was already honored with the friendship of such men as Judge Hoar and the present Chief-Justice Gray. The very best of the young men of Boston and its neighborhood sought eagerly for commissions in the regiment, and from them the whole list of officers was selected with great care. Men offered themselves with like alacrity, and the companies were rapidly filled with the cream of the real volunteers of Massachusetts. A fund of some thirty thousand dollars was raised by subscription for the uses of the regiment.

It would be a pleasant task to describe in detail the formation and career of this almost peerless organization, but the purpose of the present notice is less extensive. We must content ourselves with telling the reader what he may find in General Gordon's book. Those who know anything of the Second Massachusetts will turn to it with lively interest, and will not lay it down till they have read to the end; but they seem to us doomed to a good deal of disappointment. It is far too much a history of what General Gordon thought, said, and did. It contains a good deal of valuable information, but an excess of husk in proportion to the corn. It tells us altogether too little of the daily inner life of the regiment, of the processes by which its thousand men were changed from citizens into thoroughly-disciplined soldiers; of the constant application of intelligent force by which its high character was sustained amid all the trials of active service, and in spite of the dangerous influence of inferior discipline all around it. One looks in vain in it for such glowing tribute to the soldierly carriage of its men in action as Napier pays to the fusileers at Albuera, and which is fairly expected of officers writing of their own soldiers, no matter how far inferior in literary ability and accomplishment they may be to the consummate historian of the Peninsular War. Especially is it strangely silent as to the merits of its gallant officers who lost their lives. Savage, Goodwin, Cary, Abbott, and Perkins fall almost unnoticed in the disastrous day of Cedar Mountain—a list of names whose death in one field will long make that day sadly memorable in the annals of Massachusetts. The book comes too near to being an autobiographical sketch. If it were only a private, regimental affair, its character would be a matter between the regiment and its author; but it is sold in the bookstores, and so it comes within the reach of general criticism. It is fair to add here that the fact that the book was prepared to be read by the author to his old comrades goes far to prove that its egotism must be unconscious.

Of the value of the book as bricks for the builder, it is not easy to speak without a really close study of it, because it leaves a confused impression upon the mind when it undertakes to describe the retreat of Banks from the Valley and the battle of Cedar Mountain, the only two affairs of importance in which the regiment was engaged before the battle of Antietam. The author tells us a great deal of what he did and said and saw and heard upon both of these occasions, but he so tells his story that we feel when we finish

*'History of the Second Massachusetts Regiment of Infantry. Third Paper. Delivered by George H. Gordon, Major-General of Volunteers and Colonel Second Massachusetts Regiment of Infantry in the late War, at the Annual Meeting of the Second Massachusetts Infantry Association, on May 11, 1875.' Boston. 1875.

'Reminiscences of Forts Sumter and Moultrie in 1860-61. By Abner Doubleday, Brevet Major-General United States Army.' New York: Harper & Bros. 1876.

it as if we had a less clear idea of the operations than we had when we began. It is probable that, if he had been able to forget himself a little, he would have made his account more comprehensible ; but as it is he leads us about with him, forward and back and right and left, until we feel ourselves compelled to stop for a moment and bring our minds to the fact that there must have been somewhere, in the Valley and at the base of Cedar Mountain, a Southern and a Northern line of battle, a right, a centre, and a left, a line of advance and a line of retreat. It is easy to find fault, and the mood of mind induced by disappointment may tend to turn the pen of the reviewer unduly in that direction. To guard against that possible error we will abandon adverse criticism, and seek in what more we have to say to do justice to the real merits of the book. And it may be declared with emphasis that it is really interesting and very entertaining. It is not only the work of a man of sense and intelligence and knowledge of his business, but of a man who was largely instrumental in forming the regiment of which he writes, and who was actually present with it in all the scenes which he describes. His command was never, during the period embraced in this volume, larger than a brigade, of which the Second Massachusetts formed a part, and so he was not far from his own men at any time. Whatever facts he states as of his own knowledge we accept as authentic. We give him not only the credit of meaning always to tell the truth, but of being very free from that tendency to brag which disgraces so many of the books on military affairs, and makes them so untrustworthy.

One thing of especial value in his book is the fearlessness and fulness with which he contributes material for the military history of General Banks. The Valley should have taught Banks that he was unfit to exercise military command, and Cedar Mountain should have enforced and completed the lesson, but unblushingly and callously he proceeded to the crowning disaster of Red River. If there was a man in our war around whose head the "ghosts of those who in battle were slain" should assemble, that man was General Banks. To his leaving undone those things which he ought to have done, and to his doing those things which he ought not to have done, in the Valley and at Cedar Mountain, General Gordon bears full and fitting testimony.

Our war was fought by volunteers, and it was the common lot of all the regiments to be short-lived. The Second Massachusetts' term of service was a little over four years. There is something deeply pathetic in the thought of a noble regiment ceasing to exist. In other lands, officers and men lay down their lives and their places are filled by promotion or enlistment, but still the regiment lives, and its traditions go on collecting perhaps from century to century. But to our volunteer regiments the day came soon when the last roll was called and the colors were wrapped around the staffs never again to be unfurled in battle, or surrounded by loving and loyal hearts. The place of the Second Massachusetts regiment is secure in the affectionate and proud admiration of all who knew it, and we are grateful for every printed word that shall make its high desert known to the reader in distant places and in coming days.

Gen. Doubleday was, in 1861, the captain of one of the two companies of artillery which were besieged in Fort Sumter ; and in the little book named above he has undertaken to give his reminiscences of the daily events of the garrison life from the time Major Anderson came to take command at Fort Moultrie in November, 1860, to the evacuation of Fort Sumter on the 14th of April, 1861. Reminiscences of those exciting times are always interesting, and his are well told ; but they would seem to bring forth two classes of important facts which it is safe to say were hitherto almost unknown: first, that Doubleday was a noted Abolitionist, and that the mob of Charleston was howling for his head ; that the transfer from Moultrie to Sumter, and in fact every other successful move, was made upon his advice ; and that the lost opportunities of asserting the Federal supremacy were the result of discarding that advice ; secondly, that Major Anderson was at that time very wavering in his devotion to the Union. This last allegation Gen. Doubleday supports by certain remarks of Anderson—as, that he thanked God when told that no one in the rebel forts had been hurt during the bombardment, and afterward wrote that "his heart was never in this war"—and by the inaction which he maintained until actually fired upon. From the tone in which his accuser writes, one would suppose that Anderson's duty was as plain as the routine of a parade ; and yet, by his own showing, four members of the Cabinet were in sympathy with the South, Horace Greeley had proclaimed the right of secession, Gen. Scott was in favor of "letting the wayward sisters go in peace," and Yancey was delivering secession speeches at the North without molestation. In such troublous times as these the duty of a simple major in the army in command of a fort near the hot-bed of secession was by no means clearly defined, and yet upon his action the gravest results depended. His position became still more difficult when, on reporting the facts to Washington and asking for orders, he received nothing but indefinite replies. What, then, was he to do when he saw the preparations being made on all sides to reduce his fort ? Was he to remain passive or to open fire on the new batteries ?

The latter seems to have been Captain Doubleday's advice ; but it was extremely fortunate for the country that it was not accepted, for it must be remembered that what fired the Northern heart was not altogether the question of secession or slavery, but the fact that a deliberate act of hostility had been committed in opening fire upon the United States flag ; it might have been far different had Anderson fired the first shot and thrown the initiative on the North. And how could a major in the artillery take the responsibility of opening the war, when so many people clung to the idea that the whole matter might yet be settled amicably ? Gen. Doubleday might have thought more carefully on these difficulties before he cast reflections on his commanding officer after his death. And not only are these reflections ungracious at this late day, but many of them are contradicted by the book itself. On p. 75 we learn that when Anderson found that Georgia would secede, "he seemed to lose all interest in the Union, and merely desired to become a spectator of the contest and not an actor. His efforts thenceforth were simply confined to making his fort secure against an assault. Hardly any amount of provocation could induce him to become the assailant." How could he become the assailant when, as we are told on p. 50, "Major Buell bore written orders, which were delivered on the 11th Dec., directing Major Anderson not to provoke hostilities, but in case of immediate danger to defend himself to the last extremity, and take any steps that might be necessary for that purpose" ? These instructions were doubtless in Anderson's mind when, on the 9th of January, the *Star of the West* appeared and was turned back by the fire from Fort Moultrie. Doubleday had his men at the guns, "but Anderson would not allow us to return this fire" ; and he was quite right, for he was in no immediate danger, and his instructions forbade him firing until he was. But that there might be no mistake in another case, an officer of the garrison was immediately sent to Washington with a report of the affair, and a request for specific instructions. He returned in ten days with the reply that the Administration "had the utmost confidence in Major Anderson, and left everything to his judgment."

It is difficult to see how in such a trying case, without precedent or instructions, an officer could have pursued a different course from that adopted by Major Anderson, namely, to remain passive until his fort was attacked, and then to defend himself as well as his small force and scanty supplies would allow; meanwhile, to leave politics to the Administration at Washington. Few officers have departed from this safe rule without coming to grief. As for Anderson's personal feelings, they have nothing to do with the matter, except so far as they influenced his conduct. He must be judged solely by his actions, and any reference to his private opinions—or, more properly, what Doubleday supposed to be his private opinions—is out of place. It is a pity that these ill-timed reflections occur so often as seriously to injure an otherwise very readable and interesting book.

THE WIFE OF JOHN ADAMS.*

WE welcome this volume as called for by the needs and the spirit of the times : on the one hand, by its faithful portrayal of a New England wife ; on the other, by its illustration of the part which such a wife plays in the life of her husband. Abigail Smith was born in 1744 and died in 1818. Of these seventy-four years, fifty-five were passed in wedded life. She married a man who was fast rising into distinction in law, his profession, and who was to be still more distinguished in statesmanship, the profession of all true men of those days. Her education was such as home could give her ; she never went to school. With such means, and none other, she was to pass through life with John Adams, partly leaning, partly leaned upon ; softening the asperities of his temper by her gentle words, ἀγανοῖς ἐπέεσσιν, and strengthening his higher aspirations by her intelligent sympathy.

"You have this day," she wrote, when he had reached the summit of an American statesman's legitimate ambition, "to declare yourself head of a nation. And now, O Lord, my God, Thou hast made Thy servant ruler over the people. Give unto him an understanding heart, that he may know how to go out and come in before this great people ; that he may discern between good and bad. 'For who is able to judge this Thy so great a people ?' were the words of a royal sovereign, and not less applicable to him who is invested with the chief magistracy of a nation, though he wear not a crown nor the robes of royalty.

* 'Familiar Letters of John Adams and his Wife, Abigail Adams, during the Revolution. With a Memoir of Mrs. Adams. By Charles Francis Adams.' New York : Hurd & Houghton. 1876. 1 vol 12mo.

"My thoughts and my meditations are with you, though personally absent; and my petitions to heaven are that 'the things which make for peace may not be hidden from your eyes.' My feelings are not those of pride or ostentation upon the occasion. They are solemnized by a sense of the obligations, the important trusts, and numerous duties connected with it. That you may be enabled to discharge them with honor to yourself, with justice and impartiality to your country, and with satisfaction to this great people, shall be the daily prayer of your A. A."

These are the words which make men ardent and resolute in duty, and firm and confident in trial. She had cheering words, also, when the occasion called for them. "I am a mortal enemy," she writes her husband, apparently in an anxious moment, "to anything but a cheerful countenance and a merry heart, which Solomon tells us does good like a medicine." What a glimpse of herself she gives us in these lines: "I have taken a very great fondness for reading Rollin's 'Ancient History' since you left me. I am determined to go through with it, if possible, in these my days of solitude. I find great pleasure and entertainment from it, and I have persuaded Johnny to read me a page or two every day, and hope he will, from his desire to oblige me, entertain a fondness for it." That Johnny, conning history at his mother's knee, was the John Quincy Adams of after fame.

She applies her history, and quotes Polybius to enforce a practical lesson:

"Did ever kingdom or state regain its liberty when once it was invaded without bloodshed? I cannot think of it without horror. Yet we are told that all the misfortunes of Sparta were occasioned by their too great solicitude for present tranquillity, and from an excessive love of peace they neglected the means of making it sure and lasting. 'They ought to have reflected,' says Polybius, 'that as there is nothing more desirable or advantageous than peace, when founded in justice and honor, so there is nothing more shameful and, at the same time, more pernicious when attained by bad measures and purchased at the price of liberty.'"

John Adams is surprised by his wife's statesmanship: "Pray where do you get your maxims of state? They are very apropos." We might fill pages with passages like these, and see her still growing wiser and stronger under the discipline of events, while John Adams also unveils himself in this commerce of the heart. It is not probable that she ever expected to see her letters in print. But he had been too long before the public to be troubled by the thought of publicity; had taken too large a part in great affairs not to know that history is never more truthful than when made up of materials like these. "I write you this tittle-tattle, my dear," he writes her from York, July 2, 1774, "in confidence. You must keep these letters to yourself, and communicate them with great caution and reserve. I should advise you to put them up safe and preserve them. They may exhibit to our posterity a kind of picture of the manners, opinions, and principles of these times of perplexity, danger, and distress."

Here is one such picture:

"I believe I forgot to tell you one anecdote. When I first came to this house it was late in the afternoon, and I had ridden thirty-five miles at least. 'Madam,' said I to Mrs. Huston, 'is it lawful for a weary traveller to refresh himself with a dish of tea, provided it has been honorably smuggled, or paid no duties?' 'No, sir,' said she, 'we have renounced all tea in this place; but I'll make you coffee.' Accordingly, I have drunk coffee every afternoon since, and have borne it very well. Tea must be universally renounced, and I must be weaned, and the sooner the better."

Compare this as an expression of public opinion with the following, written the very next day:

"A notion prevails among all parties that it is politest and genteelest to be on the side of administration; that the better sort, the wiser few, are on one side, and that the multitude, the vulgar, the herd, the rabble, the mob only, are on the other. So difficult is it for the frail, feeble mind of man to shake itself loose from all prejudice and habits."

Of Mrs Adams's letters, that of November, 1775, is certainly one of the most remarkable:

". . . Colonel Warren returned last week to Plymouth, so that I shall not hear anything from you until he goes back again, which will not be till the last of this month. He damped my spirits greatly by telling me that the Court had prolonged your stay another month. I was pleasing myself with the thought that you would soon be upon your return. It is in vain to repine. I hope the public will reap what I sacrifice.

"I wish I knew what mighty things were fabricating. If a form of government is to be established here, what one will be assumed? Will it be left to our assemblies to choose one? And will not many men have many minds? And shall we not run into dissensions among ourselves? I am more and more convinced that man is a dangerous creature, and that power, whether vested in many or a few, is ever grasping, and, like the grave, cries 'Give! give!' The great fish swallow up the small, and he who is most strenuous for the rights of the people, when vested with power is as eager after the prerogatives of government. You tell me of degrees of perfection to which human nature is capable of arriving, and I believe it, but at the same time lament that our admiration should arise from the scarcity of the instances.

"The building up of a great empire, which was only hinted at by my correspondent, may now, I suppose, be realized even by the unbelievers. Yet will not ten thousand difficulties arise in the formation of it? The reins of government have been so long slackened that I fear the people will not quietly submit to those restraints which are necessary for the peace and security of the community. If we separate from Britain, what code of laws will be established? How shall we be governed so as to retain our liberties? Can any government be free which is not administered by general stated laws? Who shall frame these laws? Who will give them force and energy? It is true your resolutions, as a body, have hitherto had the force of laws; but will they continue to have it?

"When I consider these things, and the prejudices of the people in favor of ancient customs and regulations, I feel anxious for the fate of our monarchy, or democracy, or whatever is to take place. I soon get lost in a labyrinth of perplexities; but, whatever occurs, may justice and righteousness be the stability of our times, and order arise out of confusion! Great difficulties may be surmounted by patience and perseverance.

"I believe I have tired you with politics. As to news, we have not any at all. I shudder at the approach of winter when I think I am to remain desolate. I must bid you good-night; 'tis late for me, who am much of an invalid. I was disappointed last week in receiving a packet by post and, upon unsealing it, finding only four newspapers. I think you are more cautious than you need be. All letters, I believe, have come safe to hand. I have sixteen from you, and wish I had as many more.

"Adieu. Yours."

We would call particular attention, also, to the descriptions, so full of life and of graphic power, of the closing days of the siege of Boston, and the unconsciousness with which both husband and wife paint themselves for posterity. This volume takes its place by the side of the most valuable documents of our Revolutionary history.

THE JEWS IN ENGLAND.*

THE author of the book before us has undertaken to narrate the history of the Jews in England from their return to the British Isles in 1656 down to the present time. The history of the English Jews previous to their banishment in 1290 is but shortly treated in an introductory chapter. It is interesting to follow Mr. Picciotto in his records, and to be informed by him of the endeavors of Menasseh ben Israel for the revocation of the decree of banishment; of the establishment and growth of congregations and synagogues; of the rise of charitable and religious institutions; of the genealogy of many families now or formerly Jewish; of the achievements of eminent Israelites in mercantile, political, literary, and other fields; of the beginning of the reform movement among the English Jews, and so forth. It must also be admitted that the author has gleaned some new material, hitherto not generally known, from the archives of certain London congregations, so that these sketches somewhat enlarge our knowledge of this segment of history. But it is greatly to be regretted that he in no instance refers to his sources. The value of his statements would be very much enhanced, and the statements themselves would carry greater conviction, if they were sustained by references to documentary evidence, and if the reader were enabled to corroborate and verify, as far as possible, the authenticity of the facts narrated. No historian has a right to demand that his narrative be accepted *prima facie* as entitled to full credence, and particularly not an historian like Mr. Picciotto, who, with almost childlike credulity, and without the least attempt to make a critical sifting of his materials, records as true even the supposed miracles of a Falk Baal Shem, believed in by superstitious people in their time. In short, his sketches leave the impression of being an uncritical compilation of anecdotes and stories, accidentally found here and there, and loosely strung together. Moreover, a great many of the facts stated by him are very irrelevant, and of no sort of consequence. A narrative which thus lacks the unifying spirit of organism cannot be honored with the name of history.

One branch of Anglo-Jewish history Mr. Picciotto has almost totally neglected, or at least has treated in an unsatisfactory manner: we mean the legal status of the Jews in England at different periods. A most interesting chapter might have been written on the development and application of the laws concerning them. Can Jews be competent witnesses? Can they make bequests to synagogues and Jewish charities? How about their marriages and divorces? In all these aspects the English Law Reports are rich mines of information. The author, however, seems to have had but a dim idea of the valuable historical materials to be found in them if properly worked. Otherwise he would not have failed to set forth that, according to Lord Coke, Jews must be ex-

* 'Sketches of Anglo-Jewish History. By James Picciotto.' London: Trübner & Co. 1875. Pp. xii., 420.

cluded as witnesses altogether, but that Lord Hale's views were a little milder, for he thought that a Jew might be admitted as a competent witness to prove a murder, etc. Even in comparatively recent times, as we learn from the Law Reports, there was a prevalence of narrow legal views in regard to the Jews; and it has happened in the present century that a court of chancery arbitrarily transferred a sum of money which had been bequeathed to found a synagogue to a foundling hospital, because, in the eye of the law, a Jewish synagogue was considered an institution to foster superstition! As a curious point in English law, which had no parallel in the German or other Continental *Judenrecht*, it deserves to be mentioned that some privileges and rights from which the Jews were debarred for ages could not be purchased even by apostasy. Not till 1828 were baptized Jews received as freemen of the city of London. What changes in less than half a century! Since then two Jews have dispensed justice as Lord Mayors of London. On the other hand, it would have been not more than proper if the author had shown how far the science of Judaism was fostered by non-Jews in England. Hebrew, rabbinical, and kindred studies had been favorite ones for a long time, and as early as the seventeenth century we meet with the eminent Hebraists Selden, Lightfoot, Pococke, Hyde, etc. A grateful Israelite should not have failed to render acknowledgment and praise to these great scholars.

Regarding Jews in Dublin, Mr. Picciotto is unable, he says, to ascertain positively whether any Jew dwelt in Dublin in the middle of the last century. Here he might easily have been led astray by so great an authority as Leopold Löw, who, in his 'Graphische Alterthümer der Juden' (I., p. 34) twice alludes to the Rabbi Zebi Hirsh ben Ezriel as of Dublin, by a singular and not immediately obvious typographical error for Lublin. We should be glad if we could regard the many misspellings of names to which Mr. Picciotto treats us—*e.g.*, *Netto* for Nieto, *Ziwy* for Zebi, *Phaibul* for Phoibos, or Phoebush—also as printer's mistakes; but they are repeated too often to admit of such a supposition and such an excuse. To another point we may be allowed to call attention before we conclude. It used to be thought that the designation "Star Chamber," given to a certain court of law, was derived from the name of the apartment where the *Shtars* (the Hebrew documents of the Jews) were deposited for safe keeping. Our author adopts this etymology, but the erroneous character of it can hardly be questioned when we consider that, as we learn from Gregorovius's 'Geschichte der Stadt Rom,' there was also a *camera stellata* in the Vatican While acknowledging the diligence and the good intentions of Mr. Picciotto, we must nevertheless assert that the historian of English Jews and English Judaism has not yet made his appearance.

A Course of Practical Instruction in Elementary Biology. By T. H. Huxley, LL.D., Sec.R.S., assisted by H. N. Martin, B.A., M.B., D.Sc. (New York: Macmillan & Co. 1875.)—The lack of a suitable series of elementary text-books on zoölogy, designed to lead the student step by step from the study of the simpler forms of animal life to the more complex, and calculated at the same time not merely to furnish what may be vaguely termed a descriptive survey of the animal kingdom, but to impart a clear and specific knowledge of the structure, physiology, and affinities of the various objects brought under observation, has been long felt by the scientific public. Professor Huxley's treatise is of an essentially practical but at the same time decidedly popular nature. Written in that familiar and vigorous style so characteristic of most of the author's writings, concise in statement and accurate in definition, it leaves little in the scope of the work to be desired. Though not sufficiently elementary in certain portions, and perhaps a little too abstruse in others, it is, on the whole, clear enough to be handled by any one pretending to but a slight knowledge of the first principles of the science. Taking the common yeast-plant (*torula*) and *protococcus*, as forms exemplifying the simplest stage of vegetable existence, and *amœba* as equally illustrative of the lowest type of animal organism, we follow the professor in a minute examination of the microscopic cell and cell-contents, observe their mode of growth, reproduction, and decay, and note the interesting changes which they undergo under the direct influence of heat and light, or through the action of chemical agents. From the investigation of these primitive particles of organized matter—matter which may be almost said to be leading a passive or rather mechanical existence—we proceed to the consideration of the more highly constituted moulds (*penicillium* and *mucor*), plants consisting of an aggregation of homogeneous cells, and which, though showing a true differentiation into organs, still bear a strong affinity to *torula*. *Chara* and the bracken fern (*pteris aquilina*) illustrate a bi-sexual mode of reproduction among the thallogens and acrogens respectively, while the bean affords a familiar example of an exogenous phænogam. Appended to the brief but well-sifted descriptive text which forms the reading matter of the work is a course of instructions intended to carry the student through a series of microscopical researches into the anatomy and physiology of each subject, and which will, in the words of Professor Huxley, enable him "to know of his own knowledge the chief facts mentioned in the account of the animal or plant." The section devoted to zoölogy is treated in pretty much the same manner as that on botany. A number of well-known objects, easily obtainable in most localities (such as the fresh-water polyp, mussel, and frog), serve to typify some of the leading modifications of animal structure, and to represent at the same time the several principal classes into which the animal kingdom has been divided. Great space is allotted to the description of the frog, the details about that worthy subject occupying no less than one-third of the entire volume, or more than 100 pages.

What is especially noticeable in the character of the present work is the complete absence of anything approaching a tendency to speculative theorizing, a remarkable circumstance in view of the number of important questions with which the author's name has been prominently connected. In one instance only do we find an allusion that may be regarded as having any bearing on one or other of the great biological problems of the day—namely, under *bacteria*, where a direct refutation is given to the experiments frequently brought forward in support of the theory of spontaneous generation. Objection might be made to the summary and positive manner in which this interesting question is disposed of, but the author had already fully stated his views on that point in his presidential address before the British Association in 1870. In the chapter on the bean, we are surprised to find no mention of that fact of primary signification in vegetable morphology, the correlation of the different organs of the plant—in other words, the intimate relation which the various parts constituting the flower and fruit bear to the leaf.

It is unnecessary to add anything further in praise of this treatise. The want of illustrations only is to be regretted, as their presence, we are convinced, would add materially to the value of the work.

History of the Modern High German Language. [Geschichte der Neuhochdeutschen Schriftsprache. Von Heinrich Rückert.] Vol. I. (Leipzig: Weigel. 1875.)—This work, like so much that is good in German, will remain, we fear, a torso. The author, professor at Breslau, was overtaken by death just before the opening of the present semester. Unless he has left his manuscript in a state that permits of posthumous editing, we shall have to content ourselves with volume one, which treats of the period prior to Luther. A second volume, according to the author's intent, was to treat of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries; a third, of the eighteenth and present centuries. Should this first volume be indeed all that we are to receive, we have reason to regret exceedingly the author's sudden death, for a history of the Lutheran and of the Lessing-Goethean periods, as Rückert had conceived and elaborated them in his mind, would probably have started a new era in our study of the influences under which modern German came into being. The present volume indicates clearly the author's method of treatment. It was not his object to write a methodical grammar, nor even to sketch the mutations of German phonetics and inflection in their main features, as Schleicher has done in his 'Deutsche Sprache.' Rückert has rather undertaken to point out the politico-historical, literary, and ethnographical influences that have helped to make the language. He takes up, we may say, what Schleicher has passed by. His work is a history of German culture in its relations to linguistics. Although written by a professed philologist and based upon a thorough knowledge of the principles and results of philological investigation, it is not a technical treatise, but a popular essay—popular in the legitimate sense—and may and should be read by every student of German. It is interesting; but for a certain slipperiness and complication of style, we might almost call it more than interesting. Without attempting to go into a detailed statement of its contents, we may say that we have never met with a juster appreciation of the literary significance of Charlemagne and Otfrid of Weissenburg, or a clearer statement of the character and functions of mediæval classic German (*Mittelhochdeutsch*). The chapters upon the fortunes of the language in the Merovingian period, and upon the great eastward reflux that re-Germanized Lusatia, Prussia, and Silesia under and after the Hohenstaufens, are also masterly. Part second, which treats of phonetics, vocabulary, and syntax at the dissolution of the mediæval system, will probably be less interesting to the general reader, and also more difficult, inasmuch as it presupposes some practical familiarity with mediæval grammar. Taken altogether, we commend Rückert's work as the companion-piece and complement to Schleicher's.

American Engravers and their Works. By W. S. Baker. (Philadelphia: Gebbie & Barrie. 1875. Pp. 184.)—The purpose of the compiler of this little volume has been to put into a convenient form such facts as he has been able to collect concerning American engravers and their works. His list contains the names of eighty-nine persons who have practised the art of engraving in this country in the course of the last and the present century. Most of them are known even by name only to such indefatigable collectors as Mr. Baker, and it cannot be said of any one of them that he has made a place for himself in the first ranks of the art. Mr. Baker admits in his preface that we can lay no claim to a national school of engraving, though "we can point with reasonable pride" to some plates that have been produced here. He attributes the lack of importance of American engraving to the fact that the artistic talent, which might have been directed to the higher ends of the art, has been, since the first quarter of this century, "completely engrossed in bank-note work." This is, however, but a partial explanation of the deficiency of first-rate work in engraving in this country. The conditions of American society and the temper and aims of our civilization have not been favorable to the arts, and are not likely speedily to become so. Mr. Baker's "reasonable pride" in American work leads him in his notices of special engravers to an estimate of their merits which does not err on the side of critical severity, or display a delicate critical discrimination. Thus, out of his list of eighty-nine, we find ten spoken of as "admirable," and a still larger number qualified as "excellent," which would indicate so remarkable a percentage of excellence that we might well wonder at the paucity of good works. Indeed, the truth is that not a single plate has been engraved in America that can stand comparison with contemporaneous work in Europe, and very few which deserve to be prized for the sake of their artistic worth.

Mr. Baker has done his work with care and with general accuracy, and has rendered a service to all those interested in the history of the arts.

The Early Coins of America, and the Laws governing their issue, comprising also Descriptions of the Washington Pieces, the Anglo-American Tokens, many pieces of unknown origin of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, and the first Patterns of the United States Mint. Profusely illustrated. By Sylvester S. Crosby. (Boston: Published by the author. 1875, 4to, pp. 381.)—With the publication of Parts 11 and 12 Mr. Crosby has completed his elaborate and thorough work on early American coins. The book gives proof of long and careful research, of unwearied pains, and of great accuracy. For the collector it must be an indispensable manual, while to the general student of American history it affords many curious illustrations of the economical conditions of the colonies, as shown in prevalent theories of currency, in varying standards of value, and in numerous practices of trade. The general absence of artistic beauty in American productions is exhibited in the common ugliness of the coins. No one of them will be prized two thousand years hence for beauty such as makes the coins of Greece and her colonies still precious to the lovers of art. No woman will ever wear one set like a gem for her adornment. The plates in Mr. Crosby's book are suggestive, not so much of the superiority of modern culture as of its inferiority to that of the ancient world. The lack of beauty in common things is an absolute loss. Mr. Crosby's volume is very handsomely printed and amply illustrated. Its author seems to have relied mainly upon its merits to make it known, and we are glad to have the opportunity to bring it to the knowledge of our readers, and to commend it to all who desire information on the subjects which it treats.

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BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*
Adams (C. F.), Memoirs of John Quincy Adams. Vol. IX.	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Aitken (Cora K.), Sonnets, Songs, and Stories	(Hodder & Stoughton)
Benjamin Franklin: Sein Leben, swd.	(A. B. Auerbach)
Coasts of the Mediterranean Sea. Part I.	(Washington)
Church Quarterly Review, October	(Pott, Young & Co.) $1 50
Charles (Emily T.), Hawthorn Blossoms: Poetry	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Dix (W. G.), American State and American Statesmen	(Estes & Lauriat) 1 50
Finney (Rev. C. G.), Memoirs of	(A. S. Barnes & Co.) 2 00
Financial Review, 1876	(Wm. B. Dana & Co.)
Frothingham (O. B.), Beliefs of the Unbelievers	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 1 00
Hawthorne (J.), Saxon Studies	(Jas. R. Osgood & Co.) 2 00
Harper's Monthly Magazine, 2 vols., 50, 51	(Harper & Brothers)
" Bazar, Vol. VIII., 1875	" "
" Weekly, Vol. XIX., 1875	" "
Mind. Quarterly Review of Psychology and Philosophy. Jan.	(D. Appleton & Co.)
Morley (Susan), Throstlethwaite: a Novel	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.) 1 50
Packard (A. S.), Life Histories of Animals, including Man	(Henry Holt & Co.) 2 50
Patterson (Minnie Ward), Febbies from Old Pathways: Poetry	(Chicago)
Pomeroy (J. N.), Remedies and Remedial Rights	(Little, Brown & Co.)
Sotheran (C.), Shelley as a Philosopher and Reformer	(Charles P. Somerby) 1 25
Spencer (C. E.), Rue, Thyme, and Myrtle: Poems and Songs	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Siegel (G. W. E.), A Hundred Years Ago and Other Poems	(Lancaster)
The Workshop, January, 1876, swd.	(E. Steiger) 0 50
"The G. C." Round the Table. Notes on Cookery	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Yonge (Charlotte M.), My Young Alcides	(Macmillan & Co.) 1 75

Messrs. Henry Holt & Co. have nearly ready the History of the United States, in Freeman's Historical Course, with maps by Gen. Francis A. Walker; Dr. Brinton's new work on 'The Religious Sentiment'; a revised edition of his 'Myths of the New World' and 'Jonathan'; a new novel by C. C. Fraser-Tytler, author of 'Mistress Judith'; Taine's 'Ancien Régime'; 'Ersilia,' by the author of 'My Little Lady'; and General Walker's exhaustive work on 'The Wages Question' will soon follow.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 17, 1876.

The Week.

THE evidence which the prosecution has thus far introduced in the trial of General Babcock proves the existence of the Whiskey Ring, while as to the connection of the defendant with it they have proved, by Major Grimes, a quartermaster stationed at St. Louis, that last autumn, after the indictment of MacDonald, he was employed by Babcock to carry on clandestine communications with the indicted man. Besides this, the Government has offered, and the court has admitted, after a long argument, a number of telegrams between Babcock and the Ring going to show that he had been actively at work in their interest at Washington; and a distiller, Bevis, has testified that Joyce persuaded him to resume making "crooked whiskey," by showing him a telegram from Babcock giving assurance that the revenue agents had been kept back. Everest, the Ring paymaster, has sworn that he saw $500 put into an envelope for Babcock by Joyce. On cross-examination, however, he did not appear to be positive as to this fact.

The Senate has passed the Centennial Appropriation Bill by a vote of 41 to 15, and a bill extending the time for completing the Northern Pacific Road until 1885 by a vote of 35 to 18, and also a bill to prohibit the transportation of cattle by rail without a proper amount of food, water, and rest. The machinery provided for the enforcement of this bill is somewhat peculiar, inasmuch as it authorizes United States marshals all over the country to appoint deputies at the request of any corporation for the prevention of cruelty to animals, with power to make arrests. The Democrats generally voted against it, and in the House will no doubt defeat the bill. On Tuesday the Senate passed the Pension Bill, and a bill relating to the disposition of public lands at the South. The principal event of the week in the House has been the passage of the Diplomatic and Consular Appropriation Bill by a vote of 191 to 2. The appropriations are fixed at $914,000, or $470,000 less than last year, a result obtained in a great measure at the expense of missions and consulships. It would be hardly worth while as yet to discuss the items of the bill, as it will have to pass the ordeal of the Senate. A still greater and almost ludicrous reduction of the estimates was made on the passage of the Fortifications Bill, by which $315,000 was conceded in place of the $3,500,000 asked for by the Department. Besides listening to Mr. Blaine's financial speech, the House has accomplished little with regard to the finances. Mr. Hale, however, has succeeded in forcing the Democrats to a vote on his hard-money resolutions, declaring it to be the sense of the House that early steps should be taken to bring about resumption. The resolution received 86 votes, while 137 were cast against it. The hard-money Democratic explanation of a vote like this always is that it indicates nothing, except that the Democrats do not wish to commit themselves in advance of the settlement of the party policy on the currency by their caucus. The caucus is meanwhile, we presume, doing a good deal of hard reading in the works of Henry C. Carey and other leading economists.

Mr. Blaine has made a speech on the currency question in which he goes over a good deal of well-trodden ground, though in a masterly way. He confessed that there was no warrant for the issue of paper-money in the letter of the Constitution, and that the legal-tenders were put out, to use the words of Senator Fessenden, on "the ground of absolute, overwhelming necessity," or under the law of self-preservation; and castigated the Democratic party for not only failing at the close of the war to urge upon the Government the restoration of a sound currency, but for conceiving a violent love for the paper-money and demanding that sixteen hundred millions of bonds should be paid off in it—though we are sorry to remind Mr. Blaine that, in this matter, that great Republican, Senator Morton, was as bad as Mr. Horatio Seymour, and so was that other great Republican, Mr. B. F. Butler, for whom Senator Dawes stumped in 1875, and that neither of them lost their standing in the party; and that that other great Republican, Mr. Boutwell, on whom the responsibility really rested, never once during his four years' administration of the Treasury called the attention of Congress or the country to the necessity of any action about the currency. Chastise the Democrats, by all means, but let us have "equal and exact justice." Mr. Blaine showed once more that the depression of trade is in large part due to the uncertainty as to the value of the currency; that inflation would not cure it; that the substitution of more Treasury notes for the national-bank circulation would not cure it either; that the national banking system is the best one ever devised, and is the best and only necessary source of all the paper-money we need; that the true course is not to increase the power of the Government over the currency, but to put an end to it completely; that a worse body than Congress to "adapt the volume of the currency to the demands of trade" could hardly be contrived; that coin is the only true standard of value; that all attempts to substitute any other have failed and must always fail; that a return to specie payments is all that we need to revive our industries; that Democrats are bad fellows, and need watching; that the true policy of the Republican party is to get back to specie payments, by a "firm, considerate, and conclusive policy," as fast as the Democrats will let them; that with an annual income of $6,000,000,000 we shall have no difficulty in maintaining specie payments after we have resumed; that one of the great obstacles to this return is the general and growing disposition of the people to regard the legal-tender note of the Government not as a debt but "as something never to be paid," which he ascribed in part to the repeal of the provision making the notes convertible into bonds. He opposed the repeal of the legal-tender clause, on the ground that it would force the banks into severe contraction, and "thus disturb credits, embarrass payments, derange business, and create widespread distress among the people."

As we read Mr. Blaine's speech, we looked with much interest in every paragraph for his plan of returning to specie payments, and expected without doubt to find it at the close, where he admits that additional legislation is needed to give the act of last year, providing for resumption in 1879, any value, and says "it is the paramount duty of Congress to provide a process." But we have been disappointed. This is as near as Mr. Blaine comes to telling us how to resume:

"And in all legislation looking to that end, it must be borne in mind that unless we move in harmony with the great business interests of the country, we shall assuredly fail. Specie payment can only be brought about by wise and well-considered legislation, based on the experience of other nations, embodying the matured wisdom of the country, healthfully promoting all legitimate business, and carefully avoiding everything that may tend to create fear and distrust among the people. In other words, what we most need as the outgrowth of legislation is confidence, public and private, general and individual. To-day we are suffering from the timidity of capital, and, so long as the era of doubt and uncertainty prevails, that timidity will continue and increase. Steps toward inflation will make it chronic; unwise steps toward resumption will not remove it. We will have discharged our full duty in Congress if we can mature a measure which will steadily advance our currency to the specie standard, and at the same time work in harmony with the reviving industries and great commercial wants of the country."

Now, this tells us absolutely nothing, and suggests nothing. It is about as useful to us as what one hears from old gentlemen of "approved" sagacity in hotel-parlors and street-cars. There is nothing magical about Congress. Congress is a collection of gentlemen, most of whom are far inferior in ability and attainments to Mr. Blaine, and a considerable number of whom know little more about the laws of currency than about the calculations of the *Nauti-*

cal Almanac. To say that Congress ought to provide a bill, therefore, if it means anything, means that Mr. Blaine ought to provide a bill. He and men like him ought to understand that the time has come for them to tell us in black and white, and in detail, how to resume. We have heard enough about the necessity of "wise and well-considered legislation"; we now want to see it in sections and clauses. Does Mr. Blaine, for instance, recommend an accumulation of gold sufficient to redeem our present volume of legal-tenders? If so, how much does he think would be sufficient? If not, is he prepared to contract? If so, to what extent? Does he not think that a contraction of greenbacks until they were brought down to par would be the best preparation for resumption? Does he think that a contraction of $90,000,000 would destroy the discount? and if so, what objection does he see to it? Now let us by all means have a bill, and bill on bill, until we get the great measure which is to lead us back to coin, "in harmony with the reviving industries and great commercial wants of the country." In saying this, we fully admit—to save time—the badness of the Democrats, and their general hostility to the Beautiful and the Good. One has to say to Republican politicians about the Democrats as Sydney Smith said to Lord Melbourne, who was a great swearer: "Let us assume everybody and everything to be damned, and then go to business."

The Democrats, as might have been expected, have found in the archives of the State Department a perfect arsenal of weapons for their attack on the Republican estimates for the ensuing year. A very slight examination of the correspondence carried on with the State Department by our ministers abroad has shown that they have been drawing their salaries in nine cases out of ten for doing nothing, while, in order to keep up appearances, they have been at the pains to convict themselves of their idleness by writing long letters to Mr. Fish giving an account of the way in which they spend their time. Mr. J. Meredith Read, for instance, who has been representing us at the court of Greece at a salary of $7,500, writes home long despatches about the "imposing ceremonies at the cathedral" on Easter eve, the "state carriage" in which the king and queen arrived, the uniform of the king, the "white satin" robes of the queen (which, he says, "seemed to steal the color from her cheek"), the "magnificent embroidered garments" of the church dignitaries, and a great deal more of the same kind of stuff, the style and matter being that of a flunkeyish reporter of the doings of "society" in town for a country newspaper. The despatches prove conclusively, 1st, that Mr. Read would be better employed elsewhere; 2d, that there is nothing to be done at his post; and, 3d, that the Government, in paying $7,500 a year for it, is paying so much money for the pleasure of preserving an empty form. In the same way, the Hon. John A. Bingham, whose salary as Japanese Minister is $12,000 a year, writes to Mr. Fish the cheering news that the Emperor, in his annual message, referred to friendly "Presidents" as well as "sovereigns"; while Mr. C. A. Logan has been getting $10,000 a year in Chili for writing home that General Grant's message meets with warm approval in that country, particularly the financial policy, which in his own judgment, he slyly adds, is "the only correct one." The question of consulates is of course distinct from that of embassies. As to the latter, we doubt if the Democrats could possibly abolish or consolidate too many.

The excitement caused by the forced resignation of the Clerk of the Ways and Means Committee affords a new illustration of the tendency of politics towards sensationalism. The striking feature of the case, to our minds, is not that a rascal like Hambleton, after a career of blackmailing and perjury, should have taken a fancy to name his child after Wilkes Booth, nor that after the fact was proved Mr. Morrison should have removed him, but that the "Hambleton incident," as they would call it in France, should have been possible at all. A very slight examination into Hambleton's past career would have sufficed to show that he was a person utterly unfit for the clerkship of any committtee, and had such an examination been made there would have been no need of the intervention of the press to prove that he had named his child after an assassin. But no such examination was made. Hambleton got the place in the usual way, through representations of "leading Democrats" that his appointment was necessary to the good of the party, and the chairman who nominally appointed him took him as part of the regular slate, and as if he was himself not a free agent in the matter at all. In fact, he was appointed exactly as postmasters, collectors, and assessors are appointed, and all enquiry into his fitness seems to have been thought in his case quite as irregular and preposterous as it usually is in theirs.

The death of Reverdy Johnson can hardly be said to be a loss to public life, as that career had been practically closed to him since his want of success in the *Alabama* Claims negotiation, but the bar loses in him one of its oldest and most respected members. He belonged to a past generation of lawyers, who made their entrance into life when the practice of the law was a better school for sound thinking, good breeding, and good morals than it is now, and he used his opportunities to such good advantage that he rose to a prominent position, which he held easily to the day of his death. Even his *Alabama* negotiations, now that the passions of the time are no longer active, must be acknowledged to have been creditable to him; and it requires a good deal of discrimination now to make out wherein the settlement obtained by him fell short of what was afterwards obtained by General Grant. The real objection to his treaty was that it was negotiated by a Johnsonian Democrat, who was too polite to the British aristocracy at a time when we hated the British aristocracy.

Mr. Henry C. Bowen has had some further correspondence with the Examining Committee of Plymouth Church, in which he partially rectifies what was faulty in the position taken in his first letter in reply to Mr. S. V. White's "grievances." Mr. Bowen's announcement that he would not reveal the names of the persons whose homes he alleged Mr. Beecher had betrayed, of course deprived any testimony he might offer in support of such charges of all value. But he now proposes to submit his charges and specifications and the evidence in support of them, including the names of Mr. Beecher's alleged victims, to a committee of three selected from such leading men of the Congregational Church as President Woolsey, President Asa D. Smith, President Fairchild, Alpheus Hardy, Judge Lafayette S. Foster, and Julius H. Seelye, under pledge of secrecy as to evidence. This offer the Examining Committee decline, on the ground that they are themselves the proper tribunal for the examination of such charges, and that if he refuses to submit these to them after ten days for preparation, it will only remain for them to discipline him. Mr. Beecher has also, in denouncing Mr. Bowen at the church meeting on Friday evening, said that even if he were disposed to go before such a tribunal on other grounds, he would not submit to any secrecy in the trial. On this point, therefore, this plan of investigation is likely to miscarry. But we must say that the Bowen charges are eminently ones for private examination as long as the tribunal examining them is one to command public confidence. The important point is not with whom did Mr. Beecher commit certain offences, but did he commit them? and if the latter can be settled without dragging in the names of other people, he ought to be the first to rejoice over it. The committee Bowen proposes would undoubtedly have the confidence of the public, and its discretion as to the revelation of names would be respected.

The scene in Plymouth Church on Friday evening, when Mr. Beecher, in a fit of terrible excitement, denounced Bowen as "a slanderer and a liar," amidst the tumultuous applause of the congregation, was a shocking one, and the whole Congregational body is undoubtedly deeply interested in finding some speedy means either of putting an end to these scandals or of putting Plymouth Church in a position in which it will have to bear the whole burden of its own shame. We are glad to see, therefore, that a movement

for a General Council has been initiated by the Andover Church, which, for various reasons, occupies a position of denominational pre-eminence, with a view to getting at the "bottom facts" of Mr. Beecher's case. We trust there will be no delay in acting on the suggestion. The Advisory Council which is now in session on the call of Plymouth Church can settle nothing of the least importance, and is already denounced as "packed." We believe there is little doubt that those who question Mr. Beecher's innocence will not be at all, or only feebly, represented in it, and the questions submitted to it will be mere points of procedure. As regards the interests of religion, the whole clergy of the denomination could hardly do better than suspend their preaching and praying for one month, jerk Brother Shearman and "the Examining Committee" aside, get Mr. Beecher and *all* the witnesses, without rules of exclusion, before some respectable tribunal, and have the whole thing out once for all.

There have been several failures of importance in the anthracite-coal trade, and these have certainly done nothing to strengthen the combination which controls the mining and transportation as well as the market price of coal. The principal members of this combination deny that there is a prospect of its disruption, and say that the trouble, which is confined to middlemen, and is only of indirect and slight importance to the combination, does not and will not weaken the latter. There have also been an unusual number of mercantile failures in Boston, traceable remotely to the losses by the great fire and to the panic. These failures, accompanied by the Winslow-forgery disclosures, have created in Boston a degree of distrust which, for the time being, seriously affects business there. Outside of New England there is what the market reports call "an improved feeling," this being most apparent in the Western cities. The foreign commerce, however, of New York and of the other Northern Atlantic ports during the expired part of the present year, shows an important gain over last year; the imports at New York alone having been about $5,000,000 more in January than in the corresponding month a year ago, and the exports, exclusive of specie, about $2,500,000 more. At the Stock Exchange there has been a further advance in securities which are bought for investment, as well as a considerable rise in shares which are chiefly, if not entirely, dealt in by speculators. The action of the Wisconsin Legislature (one branch of which has passed the bill repealing or modifying the Potter Act) has given a strong support to the upward movement. The gold price of $100 greenbacks ranged during the week between $88 20 and $88 69.

On Tuesday the interest on $17,785,350 5-20 bonds ceased, as that amount had been called in November 15. Of this total, $12,785,350 were called at the request of the Rothschild syndicate, which subscribed for an equal amount of United States five per cent. bonds. These five per cent. bonds the syndicate paid for in called 5-20s (six per cents), matured coupons, and gold. The payments for more than $8,000,000 were made before Tuesday, and of the $4,000,000 paid for on that day the greater part was paid also in called 5-20s and coupons, so that less than $2,000,000 gold had to be transferred from the market to the Treasury. This is a larger amount than came out of the Treasury, although much less than will come out as the called 5-20s which the syndicate were not able to obtain are presented to the Treasury for redemption. There are, of course, no bonds to be issued in the place of the $5,000,000 5-20s called for the sinking fund. It is not known what part of this $5,000,000 the syndicate succeeded in getting and in using in payment for new fives taken by them, but for the remainder the Treasury will be obliged to pay gold as they are presented. It is probable that the presentation of these bonds by holders will extend over several weeks, possibly months. With the closing of accounts between the syndicate and the Treasury, it deserves to be said that Mr. Bristow, if compelled to pursue the policy he has, has managed far better for the Government than his predecessors. His refunding has cost the Government less, and the work has been accomplished by the Rothschild syndicate with as little disturbance as possible to the various markets.

In England, the Burials question and the Suez Canal purchase occupy the public mind to the exclusion of nearly everything else. The Burials Bill now before Parliament provides for the performance of a burial service in the churchyards which are the national burying-grounds, over every person by the minister of his choice or denomination, and is vehemently resisted by a portion of the clergy of the Established Church as an invasion of their rights, one of which, it appears, in their eyes consists in prohibiting the performance of all services if the friends of the deceased person do not choose to have theirs. Some of the bishops, headed by the Archbishop of Canterbury, counsel submission and conciliation, and others deal in vague generalities, while some of the ministers are very bitter; but the feelings of the Dissenters have been so roused by hindrances at moments when people are unusually susceptible, that there is little doubt the proposed legislation will be carried. The spirit shown by the Vicar of Owston Ferry in the Keet case is unhappily very rife, and it does more to cloud the future of the Anglican Church than any hostility which exists to it on the outside. One minister writes to the *Spectator* that if the graveyards are to be invaded in this way by Dissenting ministers, "parents of means and position" will not bring their sons up for the Anglican ministry, and thus the clerical profession will decline in respectability, and this branch of the "national service" lose its dignity and value. The irritability is increased just now by the almost contemptuous way in which Lord Cairns, in delivering the judgment of the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council, disposed of the Keet case, which he evidently considered a trumpery affair, in that the minister would not even show the bereaved father the courtesy of stating his reasons for refusing to allow him to put his own inscription on his daughter's tombstone, but refused to hold intercourse with him except through the stone-cutter. The Rector of Little Petherick, in Cornwall, now announces that he will receive no letters with "Rev." on them.

Mr. Bright has made a speech which is attracting a good deal of attention as a possible programme of the Liberal party, who have been for some time sadly puzzled to know what they had better do or try to do next. Mr. Bright proposes that they should now occupy themselves with the extension of the franchise to the country residents, on the same qualification on which the townspeople now hold it. Nobody votes in the country who does not pay £15 a year rent or is not rated for the poor at £12 a year, and the townships or villages have no corporate existence nor have the counties, the most important part of their affairs, including taxation, being attended to by nominees of the crown—a departure of the widest kind, but one now of long standing, from the early English usage. He proposes to abolish primogeniture, which, however, only operates in case of intestacy, assimilate real to personal property in its legal incidents, give the counties and villages municipal governments, and redistribute the representation so as to make it accord more closely with the distribution of population. As this would deprive the landed gentry of powers of which they have now been in solid possession for over three hundred years, it would amount to a far greater revolution than has been achieved by the extension of the suffrage in the boroughs, so that the programme has at least the merit of promising a good long and tough job, which is perhaps what the Liberal party most needs. But then, as the *Economist* points out, Mr. Bright's notion, which is shared by many people in this country, that land in England is tied up and kept in particular families by primogeniture and entail, is fallacious. It is, in reality, transmitted in the main by "family settlements," which multiply greatly the number of people having an interest in it, and there is hardly any entailing or settling of land which does not have a parallel in the disposition, by bequest or settlement, of consols. In fact, the idea of effecting any considerable change in the structure of English society by any redistribution of the soil which does not interfere with testamentary freedom, is a chimera. Englishmen who wish passionately to own land, and have no money, will always emigrate.

THE THIRD-TERM BUGBEAR.

THE amendment to the Constitution restricting the Presidency to one term, and lengthening the term to six years, has been lost in the House, and will probably not be heard of again. This is the less to be regretted because it was really an attempt to escape the direct and thorough treatment of evils of which everybody acknowledges the existence, by a process which at best could only prove a palliative. The reason why it was proposed to confine every President to one term is to be found, as everybody knows, in the danger which people see, or think they see, in the present use of the civil service for electioneering purposes; and the peculiar circumstances of the country make the danger seem more than usually formidable just at present. General Grant has served for two terms. The great majority of the people think this enough, but he declines to say whether he thinks so too; and as long as he is silent the majority are in doubt whether he cannot, by the vigorous use of his administrative machinery, procure his nomination by the Republican Convention, and should he be nominated by the Republican Convention, whether he would not have to be elected in order to save the country from the Democrats. In short, one of those crises has arisen in which it is apparently possible for a man already in office and fond of power to keep himself in office, whether the voters want him or not. In casting about for a remedy, constitutional ineligibility for more than one term is the first thing that comes to hand, and it accordingly appears in Congress.

We are glad it has been rejected because, like the handing over of the Indian service to the missionaries, it seems a confession of helplessness for which there is no good reason. We can prevent any one man's serving in the Presidential office for more than one term by a constitutional amendment, but we cannot by this alone get rid of the evils which we fear from his serving two or three terms. A President in our day, and with our system, is not really one man, but a set of men. There has been no individual President since Jackson except Lincoln, and we doubt if we ought to make an exception even of him. Nominally, the President represents the party which elected him, and, constitutionally, he represents the whole people, but he is never very long in the chair without being merged in a group of managers, some in the Senate and some out of it, whom he consults and confides in, who keep him informed of the drift of opinion and advise him as to everything but the routine business of his office, who really control him in his official conduct, and who, in fact, form a real cabinet, as distinguished from the sham Cabinet composed of the Secretaries. They give the tone to the Administration—that is, decide to what influences it shall be most sensitive, and what classes of objects it shall seek most strenuously to promote; and to them is committed the management of the civil service. They determine in a general way what offences shall be punished with decapitation, what services in money or activity shall be exacted of office-holders, and what disposition shall be made of the most valuable places in the public service. It is especially their duty to have the civil service well in hand before the election of all important conventions, so as to be able to control them whenever it seems necessary or desirable they should be controlled. Now, as long as this state of things lasts the evils of a third term or a tenth term are not got rid of by providing that no man shall be eligible to the Presidency more than once. As long as we leave it in the power of the actual incumbent of the office and of his immediate adherents to exert a strong influence on the choice of his successor, we gain little or nothing by ousting him, because the régime of which he was the head would remain, and another man, of like temper and aims and ideals of government, would take his place.

Nor is there any argument worth examination against a third term in the example of Washington. When Washington refused to serve a third term the world was haunted by the fear of absolute power, and politicians in this country were still tormented by the dread of a monarchy. A president for a short term was still an unknown officer; the possibility of compelling the chief executive officer to lay down his office regularly and submit himself to the popular judgment at stated intervals was something over which many wise men, with the experience of many ages and nations before them, shook their heads as a dream, just as they would have shaken their heads over the notion that forty millions of people could be governed without the aid of a large standing army. These fears have been dissipated by actual experience. If there be any lesson in politics which the last hundred years have taught thoroughly, it is that the majority in this country is irresistible, and that when roused it is sure to have its way; and that the notion that any man can, by long continuance in the Presidential or any other office, make himself irremovable, or effect any change in the popular conception of the government, is a chimera. To listen to much of the talk about the danger of a third term, one might imagine that there were signs in popular opinion of a fondness for arbitrary power, though where they are to be found it would puzzle anybody to say. The fact is that what is most needed in the attitude of the people towards the Government is a deeper sense of the value and, indeed, of the necessity of greater stability in the administrative machinery; and if the increase of this stability would promote the frequent re-election of Presidents who had distinguished themselves by honesty and ability, so much the better. The very essence of civil-service reform is to be found in the doctrine that public servants should hold their offices during good behavior. We shall never have a good civil service worthy of a great civilized nation until this doctrine is converted into a rule. It is, within certain limits prescribed by considerations which we need not discuss here, as applicable to the Presidency as to collectorships and postmasterships. One of these considerations is the obvious one, that it is of the utmost importance to the political education of the voters and the real efficiency of the Government that no person who fills the highest place in the administration, whose discretion is wide and whose accountability is therefore necessarily vague and ill-defined, should acquire a feeling of certainty about his continuance in office; and continued re-election might, and doubtless would, produce this feeling. But, as a rule, the weightiest interests of the country require that if the people find a man whom they can trust they should, if they please, be able to keep him in his place as long as they find him useful; and the reform which most of all is needed in American politics is the creation of a disposition to apply this to all offices from the Presidency down, and the extirpation of the notion that in a highly organized society like ours anything is gained by change for the sake of change. In short, our whole civil service, from top to bottom, should be organized and administered on those principles which the experience of the human race has shown are best adapted to get from human nature the display of its highest qualities.

The only thing that needs to be done about third terms or sixth terms is to protect the people thoroughly against having their liberty of choice interfered with every four years by the Executive, and the proposal to confine each President to one term would, if accepted, simply entrap the public into a surrender of all hope of a reform in the lower branches of the civil service, and leave politicians to pursue the wretched arts by which such "statesmen" as Conkling and Morton make their reputation. If the arbitrary power of the President over the administrative officers of the Government were restrained within proper limits, and they were forbidden to "work" in politics, and the nominating conventions were therefore elected without official manipulation, no restriction whatever on the choice of the people would be necessary. Indeed, there is in any attempt to restrict this choice something like an admission of the very worst things that have ever been said against constitutional government; for if the people be not competent to select a candidate for an office so conspicuous as the Presidency, and if after he has served for four or eight or twelve years they are not competent to decide whether it is wise or safe to try him again, on what point of policy or legislation can the popular judgment be trusted?

THE BAR AND THE LAW SCHOOLS.

THE proposals of the Bar Association Committee on the subject of admission to the Bar have brought out a lecture from Professor Dwight, of Columbia, in defence of the present privilege of the Law School which he represents. Anything that comes from such a source is entitled to respectful consideration; at the same time, the turn which Mr. Dwight has endeavored to give the discussion strikes us as very unfortunate. The present state of the case is this. Four collegiate institutions, Hamilton College, the Albany Law School, Columbia, and the University of New York, have in this State the right to admit to the Bar without other examination than they see fit to require. Hamilton College is entitled to admit students to the Bar on their passing an examination by a committee appointed by the Supreme Court. At Albany the students must have studied three terms of twelve weeks each. At the University in this city the time is fixed at three terms of twelve weeks each, or two terms of twelve weeks each with one year elsewhere. In Columbia College eighteen months is required. In the case of Hamilton College, no fixed period of study is required. It appears from these details that there is in this State at present, with regard to admission to the Bar from the Schools, no system whatever. The acts entitling these colleges to admit were passed without reference to any common standard of reputation as regards the faculty, the time of study, or the nature of the curriculum. They were, of course, got through the Legislature by the exertions of the friends of the several institutions, without any consideration of the relation which ought to exist between the different parts of the system. In the case of any applicant who is not a graduate of one of these Schools, he must by the present rules of court pass three years in study and in an office, and then pass an examination under the direction of the courts.

The committee of the Bar Association propose that these special privileges of the Colleges be changed so as to prohibit the granting of diplomas except after a two-years' attendance, and that no graduate of the Schools shall be admitted except after a year in an office in addition to these two years. The chief practical effect of this would be to diminish considerably the attractiveness of the Columbia School, which can now secure for a student the right to practise after a period of study lasting two years; if the reform were adopted, the School would not offer applicants any extrinsic advantage. Under these circumstances, it is very natural that Professor Dwight should come to the defence of his School, and should endeavor to show that the privilege it possesses works no injury to the profession; but when he discusses the subject as if the question at issue was the relative advantages of legal education in Law Schools compared with that obtained in offices, he makes what seems to us a capital mistake. If there is anything settled with regard to legal education, it is that no such education is complete without both kinds of study. Practice may make up for the want of a thorough education, and no education, however thorough, will make up for the want of practice, but we take it that every intelligent man admits nowadays that no professional training is complete without both. Indeed, in all other professions this is not a matter which any one would think of discussing. No one, for instance, is allowed to become an army or navy officer without both kinds of preparation, and any one who attempts to practise medicine with a merely practical training usually passes for a charlatan. That it should still be considered by anybody an open question with regard to the law—so that a professor of Mr. Dwight's standing can even imagine himself under the necessity of gravely proving the value of theoretical legal training—can only be considered one more mortifying proof of the degrading effect which a system of wholesale admission to the Bar and the election of judges have had upon general professional opinion.

In considering the question what would be a proper test of fitness for admission to the Bar, we may set it down as certain that no man or institution should be allowed to prescribe it who has a personal or pecuniary interest in allowing candidates to pass. This is so plain a principle that what surprises us is not that the Law Schools should have obtained their present privileges, but that, when attention is directed to the matter, there should be any discussion whatever over the propriety of their retaining them. Their possessing the power of deciding whether the young men they have themselves prepared are really qualified is nothing less than an abuse, which may, in some cases, like that of Columbia College, be mitigated by the exceptional excellence of one or two professors. But this excellence is only a passing incident at best. It may exist to-day, and to-morrow cease to exist. The only terms on which the Law Schools should be allowed to grant admission to practise would be the concession to the Courts or the Bar of the appointment and dismissal of the professors, and the payment of the latter in the main by fixed salaries. Failing this, the proper function of the Schools, and the only ones which can be safely entrusted to them, is the preparation of students for an examination prescribed either by the Bar itself or by the Bar under the direction of the Courts; and the value of the instruction given at the Schools, and the honesty and efficiency of the professors, should be ascertained in this way and no other. The Courts might very properly prescribe a certain period of study at a School in lieu of a certain period in an office; but if the examinations were thorough and searching, in principles as well as in practice, it would hardly be necessary to exact attendance at the Schools. Young men would go to them of their own accord. The universities do not require that a boy shall, before admission, spend a certain length of time at a preparatory school. They simply require that he shall have a certain amount of knowledge, and as a matter of course he goes where he will get it. The examinations might, however, as we suggested last week, be made to give a most useful stimulus to good legal education, and to exalt good Law Schools in public estimation, by publishing the rank of candidates at the examination for admission, or awarding honors to special degrees of merit. A more valuable or honorable kind of éclat than this would give to a young man just entering on professional life, or one better calculated to bring into prominence the merits of particular Schools or tutors, it would be difficult to imagine.

At the same time, we acknowledge freely that owing to the present condition of the legal profession, both at the Bar and on the Bench, the difficulties of restoring or maintaining a high standard of admission are considerable. The mode in which the judges themselves are selected is not one calculated to give the Courts a very high sense of responsibility, without regard to the tone or efficiency of the Bar. There are only two good modes of choosing judges possible with the present constitution of the human mind—one the French or Continental system, in which judging is treated as a profession in itself, and a man is appointed to a low grade of the office at the outset of his career, and left to find his way up to the higher courts as he grows older, by a display of talent and integrity. The other is the English system, which may be said to be the only one adapted to our system of jurisprudence, in which judges are appointed by the government, but the appointing power is restricted rigidly, by a custom which has the force of law, to the candidates who have reached the front rank at the Bar by a long course of practice. Our plan of indiscriminate selection from lawyers of any age or standing by a political caucus, is too barbarous and absurd to admit of classification or characterization. It sometimes picks out good men, but always by accident. We believe one gentleman reached the Bench in this city at the last election who attracted attention as a candidate simply by his skill as a marksman with the rifle. The effect of this state of things on the Bar is known to all lawyers. The tone of the profession has been seriously lowered by it, and it constitutes one of the difficulties of reform in the matter of legal education. But then we have to reform with such materials as we have, and not with what we dream of, and we must take it for granted that the Courts will, if appealed to, do whatever is necessary to keep the profession tolerably clear, at least in its lower stages, of sharpers and ignoramuses. But the initiative must come from the Bar, and

the application of any tests that are devised must after all be committed to members of the Bar, and the Bar is really more directly interested than any other class in the community in keeping unworthy persons out of the profession. If the Bar of the State had any organization, we should urge the committal of the whole matter to their hands, without interference from the Courts, and organization enough for this purpose they certainly ought to have. The American Bar is, we believe, the only one in the world which does not concern itself about the qualifications of candidates for admission to its ranks and their manners and morals after they are admitted; and the resulting damage to the administration of justice and to that source of public morality which lies in general confidence in the administration of justice, is very great. The English Bar, which most resembles ours both in the nature of its duties and in its relations to the Courts, has always had charge of the qualifications and admission of its members; and, although it abandoned for two centuries all pretence of imposing any test of knowledge, the mere discipline proved sufficient in the worst times to maintain a high standard of honor, while the usage which governed the selection of judges and the tenure during good behavior kept up the character of the Bench. That the absence of any test of knowledge at the admission of candidates did not work mischief in England, was due to circumstances which have no parallel here. In England the profession of attorney is and always has been closed to all who have not passed a long apprenticeship in practice, and the clients always approach the barrister through the attorney, and the attorney performs a process of selection on the Bar, which prevents ignoramuses from getting any important business. The public was, therefore, constantly protected against the incompetency of untrained counsel by the watchfulness of trained attorneys. The system was clumsy, but on the whole it worked tolerably well, and was that which prevailed during the most brilliant periods of English legal history. The only one suited to our institutions and manners is a rigid examination by the Bar of all comers, combined with the exaction of a term of service in an office, and possibly of attendance at a Law School; but this last requirement may mean nothing. Whether it would prove a sham or a real qualification would depend mainly on the thoroughness of the examination. The whole subject is a more serious one than appears on the surface. One of the great dangers and difficulties of our time is that the public is too busy or too careless to notice any but the palpable and direct causes of social demoralization; but, as every thoughtful man knows, the dangers which most threaten the body politic are, in their origin, apt to be remote, obscure, and indirect. We hear a good deal about paper-money and speculation and the war as the causes or promoters of the scandals which now fill the papers and plunge patriotic people in dismal foreboding. But those who remember that law is in reality the embodiment of the morality of the community, the form in which it soberly and deliberately presents its notions of right and wrong, cannot but regard the committal of that application of morality to the common concerns of life which we call the administration of justice, to a Bench and Bar constituted as ours now is and has been for thirty years, as one of the most deadly and insidious attacks ever made both on the public and private conscience.

THE STATE OF CUBA.

HAVANA, February 1, 1876.

IT seems to be admitted on all hands that the insurrection here has greatly changed in character of late years. At first it was a political movement in a true sense; but now that can scarcely be said of it without explanations and reserves. At the outset there was an attempt, more or less successful, to organize a government and an army; but now, after so many years of conflict and with the disturbances actually covering more territory to-day than they have done at any previous time, there is apparently no political and scarcely even any military organization among the insurrectionists. As is well known, they have secured control of no port, and it is further true that they occupy no town in all the island. The disturbed districts consisted originally of a region mainly mountainous and wooded, and to this they were confined (with some exceptions) until about a year ago Since that time they have made their way into the rich sugar-producing country of the "Cinco Villas," where their bands seem to wander at will, burning the fields of sugar-cane, which, at this season of the year, and particularly with the prevailing drought of this year, catch fire like tinder. The bands of insurgents engaged in this work consist chiefly of negroes and Chinese. They cross the country (which is very thinly populated) by wood-paths and by-ways, and, on arriving at a plantation, they generally begin operations by stealing all the portable property which they can secure, taking watches, clothing, etc., from the superintendent and his subordinates, and even carrying off the clothes of the negroes and Chinamen who are on the plantation. Then they burn the cane-fields. This burning, however, in many cases does not effect as much injury as it seems to do; for the burnt cane, if ground within a fortnight, will yield sugar almost as well as if it had not been burnt. It is therefore customary for neighboring plantations to devote their mills for the time to grinding the cane of the burnt plantation. Thus, in some cases the whole crop, and always more or less, is saved. In one or two districts the cane-fields are not burnt, the planters preferring to pay blackmail to the insurgents, but generally they take their chances; and the whole number of estates burnt is so small that (considering the impunity which the insurgents enjoy) the inference is unavoidable that they are very few in number.

The Spaniards complain that they cannot find the insurgents, but, after making all allowances for the real difficulties of the case, there is no denying that such incompetency and such corrupt mismanagement as have prevailed here among the civil and military officials of the Spanish Government have seldom been seen anywhere. The truth is that the officers like "the war," as it involves no fighting, and they get active-service pay; while the commissariat and civil officers have ample scope for peculation and fraud, and they have improved the opportunity to the utmost.

Since the world began there never was a "war" in which so many men were engaged with so little bloodshed. There is scarcely ever even a skirmish. The soldiers who have been sent here in such numbers die not of wounds but of dysentery and of yellow fever. They are miserably fed and wretchedly sheltered, being defrauded of their supplies by their officers, to whom (as a class) this is a great carnival. All talk of "sanguinary warfare" and lamentations over the "bloodshed at which humanity stands aghast" are pure nonsense. There were at one time plenty of "outrages" here, of the sort which we in the United States know are to be expected in disturbed conditions of society and in a partially civilized population, and these outrages when they occurred were often barbarous enough; but that was mostly in the hot blood of the commencement of the struggle, and such occurrences are seldom heard of now, though doubtless they occasionally happen. In the cities and towns all is as quiet and peaceable as in New York. The volunteers are the local uniformed militia, and almost every other man in the streets wears the little cockade which shows that he is a volunteer. All guard duty is now done by them in Havana and most other places, and the regiments are sent in turn to the front for duty at the "seat of war." The volunteers wear a neat uniform, and are well drilled, soldierly, and good-mannered. All this cannot be denied. They are drawn chiefly from the ranks of the shop-boys and laborers, and, at the outset of the rebellion, there was a very bitter feeling between them and the upper classes of creoles in the cities, which led to many "outrages," such as the firing of the Tacon Theatre. But foreigners here say that in many of these cases the attack came from the creoles, and that, if the Spanish authorities had published to the world a true narrative of the number of volunteers assassinated, the sympathy of the world would not have been turned so strongly against the "volunteers." However that may be, it is certain that all this is far away in the past.

I have previously said that the insurgents seem to have no civil and scarcely even any military organization. It would be difficult or impossible to fix upon any visible head or controlling power among them with whom any negotiations could be consummated. At the moment, it is supposed that the chief leaders are two negroes or mulattoes from Santo Domingo, by name Maximo Gomez and Diaz. These men took sides with the Spaniards when the latter sought to conquer Santo Domingo, and, of course, they are now excluded from their native country. Besides these two, the other chief leaders are supposed to be an individual who was a dentist, and who is called "the Inglesito" (or "little Englishman"), and another known as "the Polaco" ("the Pole"). What military organization (if any) there may be, and how many men there are under arms, and what proportion of native whites are included in the forces, no one knows. The strong probabilities are that there are comparatively few whites of pure blood in the insurgent ranks, and that their forces have but little discipline

or coherence, while it is quite certain that in numbers they are immeasurably inferior to the Spaniards.

A leading fact of the situation here is, that the Spaniards form about one-sixth of the total population of the island. The remaining inhabitants consist in nearly equal numbers of native creoles (more or less of pure white blood) and of negroes and Chinese, the slaves being about equal in numbers to the free negroes and Chinese. Of course you are aware that gradual emancipation has been in progress since 1868. Now, the Spaniards seldom bring their women out here. They come as youngsters, and return to Spain before their old age begins. Hence, the Spanish population is composed almost entirely of able-bodied men, and they are nearly as numerous as all the able-bodied men of all other races in the island. They are, as a rule, active, hardy, industrious, and sober. You will thus see that the moral and physical ascendancy which they maintain is by no means wholly a matter of colonial authority.

The "Casino Español" is a sort of "Union League Club," with adaptations to local circumstances. It has large rooms where meetings are held, and public balls are given under its auspices. The Spaniards of wealth and position are generally inclined now to have little to do with it, as it is thought by them to be too democratic in a social (not in a political) sense. At times the managers of the Casino have exercised great political influence, but that time is past, partly owing to changes in the character of the men who have control, and partly to a modification in the views of the members of the Casino generally. This change is illustrated by the fact that, within a few days, the whole of its Board of Directors have resigned, in consequence of their failure to induce the members to bring the influence of the Casino to bear to secure the appointment of Intendente for one of their number. This attempted pressure was discountenanced by the members of the Casino, and the board has been led to resign.

The Spanish Government here certainly has been wretchedly bad—not so bad, perhaps, as was the government of the Tweed Ring in New York, but that was more tolerable to New Yorkers because, at least, it professed to be elected by them, and was not imposed upon them by external force. Spain is almost (perhaps quite) the only country of Europe in which the so-called "democratic doctrine" of *rotation in office* prevails as the rule. In Spain, every change of Ministry (and much more every revolution) implies a change of all the subordinates in office. Thus, with offices bestowed as the reward of political services, without security of tenure, and with very low salaries, the whole Spanish civil service is demoralized, inefficient, and corrupt. This applies both to the Peninsula and to the island of Cuba, but particularly to the latter, since, owing to its unhealthiness in summer, only the worst of the office-seeking class of Spain are willing to accept service in any of the subordinate places here.

Jovellar is trying to bring some order into the chaos here. Already he has dismissed several prominent officials, and has sent two new commanders to take control of active operations in the field. As to the probabilities of his success in bringing about any great increase of vigor and good management, opinions differ very much; but generally it may be said that even ardent Spaniards have only limited hopes. It is admitted, however, that Señor Rubi has accomplished wonders in the custom-house, where there was the greatest corruption and fraud.

The best parts of the local government here are the "ayuntamientos" or town-councils. They are chosen by the vote of the "mayores contribuyentes" or larger taxpayers. If the legislation and taxing power of the island were put into the hands of a body chosen by this constituency, I do not doubt that it would prove a most valuable reform, and I should hesitate long before proceeding to any more radical reforms at present. With such a heterogeneous population as exists here, a republic with universal suffrage would involve continued disorder *infinitely* greater than it ever was at the worst in any of our Southern States; it would even be far worse than it was for so long a period in Hayti and Santo Domingo; for here the population is far less homogeneous and far less manageable than was the population of that island. Even in Italy there never would have been the course of wise and gradual reform which the world has witnessed with admiration if the suffrage had not been limited by a high property qualification.

I see that the American press has exposed the untruth of the assertion that trade between the United States and this island has been diminished in consequence of the disturbances here. While it is true that in the districts harassed by the insurgents there has been a great diminution of production, especially of sugar, it is also true that this decrease is much more than offset by the augmented production of the greater part of the island. The drouth this year will cause probably a smaller yield compared with the best crop, but this reduction will be compensated, in part, by the increased area that has been planted.

THE GERMAN PRESS.

GERMANY, January 24, 1876.

"WE ought no longer to cherish the illusion that, in the whole field of intellectual, scientific life, with us everything is excellent, incomparable. For some time enemies, whom we may no longer leave unnoticed, have been gnawing at the very foundations of our national erudition (*Nationalbildung*)." Thus one of our most renowned historians writes in a recent very instructive treatise entitled 'Archives and Libraries in France and Germany.' If these sentences had been written at the time, I would have quoted them in my letter introductory to a discussion of the university question in Germany. I am enabled to say from personal knowledge that the author would not have thought them misapplied there, as he would willingly authorize their being used with regard to another question of hardly less importance—our daily press.

Some weeks ago Bismarck indulged in some remarks on "the fifth great power"—as Napoleon I. was wont to call the daily press—which have attracted considerable but hardly sufficient attention. He is reported to have complained in a conversation with certain members of the Reichstag that our press is haunted by an inordinate desire for important news, especially with regard to foreign affairs, and that it is prone to submit the concerns of other states to microscopical examination, while, in the huge complexity of our own problems, it sadly fails to come up to the mark either as a collector of facts or trustworthy teacher of the masses. Several leading papers have taken issue with the Prince upon these accusations, though they have been careful not to deny their truth *in toto*. The public, as it seems to me, does not wholly agree with the opinions of either, and it would indeed be strange if the views of either should be quite correct, both being parties in the case at issue. To judge fairly, one must not only speak of the actual condition of the German press, but also enquire how it got to be what it is. Our press is of much more recent origin than probably anybody not well versed in our history would suppose. Our neighbors on the left bank of the Rhine had furnished us ample materials for reasoning very wisely and with German thoroughness on every question connected with the press long before we ourselves got anything deserving this name. One of the best fruits of the national uprising against Napoleon was the first feeble attempts to create this organ of public opinion. And feeble enough they were. Two facts will suffice to show what the condition of the press was at that time. Its headquarters were neither in Vienna nor in Berlin, but in little Jena, for the simple reason that the friend of Goethe was by far the most liberal-minded and enlightened political thinker of all the German princes. Taking the spirit and the needs of the times into consideration, all the conditions necessary for the development of a high-toned and judicious press were given here. Only one little thing was lacking: there was no real political life, because all the good-will, patriotism, and judiciousness of the Grand-Duke could not make little Saxe-Weimar a real state. Treitschke, in one of his essays, ascribes the failure of "the most noble-minded and best-gifted" politicians of those days, the Gagerns, Wangenheims, etc., principally to the fact that "not one of them had gone through the severe schooling of the stern political life of a great state." And the very learned and very patriotic professors who were the editors of those renowned papers had not enjoyed the training of any political life whatever, and, in some cases, even their studies as professors had no connection whatever with politics. Perhaps the "best-hated" of all these well-hated liberal papers was Oken's *Isis*, which was properly not a political paper at all, but a scientific organ. There you have in one word what our press was at that time, and those were heydays. Then followed the days of Karlsbad (1819) with their gag-laws, and the days when Prince Metternich declared that "the liberty of the press" promised in the Bundes-Acte meant "uniform rules of censorship."

Twenty long years the silence of a death-like sleep reigned in Germany, only for a moment interrupted in 1830 by the effects of the French Revolution. The cradle in which our present press was rocked was the Revolution of 1848. I do not belong to the pretty numerous class of men who prove their own superior wisdom by belittling the men of 1848. The successes of 1866 and 1870 would not have been possible if they had not been preceded by the great *fiasco* of 1849. But though we have reaped a rich harvest from the seeds then sown, and therefore owe the highest gratitude to the men who shook Germany out of her fearful lethargy, yet they proved unequal to the task they had undertaken, and the immediate result

of their efforts was a pitiful failure after a first great success. It is characteristic that for a while the paper which did the best service was the *Deutsche Zeitung* of the arch-doctrinaire Gervinus. It is well-known how then, with leaden tread, reaction once more stalked over the country, and how, right before the "seven days' campaign" which changed the face not only of Germany but of all Europe, the Prussian Government could venture upon another attempt to rule and gag the press by "ordinances." If one keeps all this in mind, he will not feel inclined to throw stones at the press, but rather be astonished to find it what it is. But to maintain, therefore, as the Cologne *Gazette* does, that it does not compare unfavorably with the press of any other country, appears to me foolish. It will be a good while yet before it is equal to the press of either Great Britain or the United States, though it cannot be denied that, in some respects, it is even now superior to at least the latter.

I might mention, in parenthesis, that with regard to the press of the United States the kind arrogance of absolute ignorance reigns supreme. It is hardly an exaggeration to say that our gentlemen of the press know not a whit more about the press of the United States than they do about the press of the moon. The *New-Yorker Handelszeitung* is the only and infallible source for everything concerning the great Transatlantic Republic; only on special occasions, and these occur very seldom, the authority of the *Herald* also is consulted. As to correspondents, the *Augsburger Allgemeine Zeitung* is the only one that is generally pretty well served. The *National Zeitung* has lately received from time to time an article from a gentleman whom the Americans themselves have often acknowledged to be competent, but it seems not to have been able sufficiently to appreciate its good fortune. The Cologne *Gazette*, which for several years in succession has had very good correspondents, has learned so much by their reports that it is now ready to swallow anything one might send.

Our press is comparatively very free from what you term "journalism," though we have some very good representatives of what we call "the revolver press"; the *Eisenbahn Zeitung* (Berlin), for instance, could successfully compete in everything mean and dirty with the worst New York one-cent paper. Things and persons are talked about in a decent tone, but, as a rule, also in a pretty tedious manner. If the American journalist is often too racy, his German colleague is still oftener a "Philistine," who bores us with his long-winded, decorous sensibleness. There are some among them who might do better, but they write under a severe constraint, because we are so sensitive that what elsewhere would be considered a pin-prick is with us felt as a stab. Ministers and all the minor "public authorities" are severely blamed for making a great noise about the slightest attack, but the truth is that they are in this respect genuine Germans; we should do exactly the same thing if we were in their place. Twenty years more of the constant fighting that is consequent upon real political life will thicken our too tender skins. In the meantime we are very glad when our daily duty with regard to our own decent paper is done, and we may turn not only to *Kladderadatsch*, but also to the peppery paper of Mr. Sonnemann, the socialistic banker in Frankfort.

Another difficulty will perhaps be harder to overcome: the lack of competition. There are papers enough, but one could wish that there were and could be more papers on a sufficiently broad footing. What has so often been said with regard to books also applies to papers. We read much, but we buy little. Too often the "local cheese-paper" has to do for the family; the lord of creation finds the larger papers in the club. Under these circumstances, it is deserving of the highest praise that at least one paper, the Cologne *Gazette*, shows a spirit of enterprise which has something of American pluck and grandeur. Unfortunately, there seems to be no hope that in this it will soon find a single imitator, even on a smaller scale. It must be acknowledged that this spirit of enterprise in the Cologne *Gazette* is, in the main, directed to the internal affairs of Germany. Yet I think Bismarck is right in complaining that undue attention is paid by our press to other countries. It would, indeed, be strange if, in so short a time, we had quite overcome the evil consequences of our being only a parody on a state and a football for everybody who chose to give us a kick. It is, however, more the *what* than the *how much* that might be properly objected to. Everything relating to politics, in the narrowest sense of the word, is treated with great minuteness, while about all the rest we hear far less than would be desirable. Only England is, to some extent, an exception, partly because the tradition still prevails which makes us look upon her as the model constitutional state, partly and principally because she furnishes our journalists but seldom with such a fat morsel as the purchase of the Suez Canal stock, so that the correspondents have to talk about other things if they want to write about anything at all. And England, too, as I have said, is an exception only to a limited extent. Upon the whole, "international ignorance" is with us still very great—I am afraid much greater than foreigners generally give us credit for.

The most important question, however, evidently is whether Bismarck's complaints are well founded with regard to the manner in which the home policy—*i.e.*, all the infinite variety of subjects embraced in the life of a nation—is treated by our press. Just here the Cologne *Gazette* is forced to acknowledge that the criticism of the Chancellor is at least partly well founded, and I believe every impartial observer will have to admit that here the *quale* does not correspond with the *quantum*. There is yet much of the peculiar professor's tone in our press, though the professors have ceased to be the leading journalists. Their pedantry, doctrinairism, and the absolute turn of their minds have survived in a considerable degree, though the profoundness of their knowledge and their conscientiousness are gone, while, on the other hand, their successors frequently show a better capacity for observation, because they are not so entirely bound up in foregone conclusions. The Cologne *Gazette* is certainly right in saying that the genuine political animus of our press would be considerably improved if our statesmen would consent now and then to step down from their high pedestals to lend their pens to the papers, as their English colleagues do. And it is furthermore unquestionable that Bismarck could do much towards bringing this about, and, one might add, it would be much more worthy of him to exercise his influence in this manner than in the way in which he has thus far influenced the press. But it is still more certain that this alone could never suffice to mend the evils complained of. Time alone is the great physician by whom a cure can be effected. It is folly to demand a press of the first order from a nation which has not for several generations gone through the school of self-government and a vigorous political life; and though in the last ten years we have made headway with giant strides, it would be folly to claim for the Germans as a people the degree of political ripeness possessed by the nations which have enjoyed those blessings for a hundred years and more.

Correspondence.

GIRTON COLLEGE AND SMITH COLLEGE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The account of Girton College in the *Nation* of January 27 contains many facts of interest to all who are watching the various experiments in female education. One cannot but admire also the pluck and enthusiasm of our young countrywoman who is seeking there a higher intellectual culture. Permit me, however, to correct the impression of your correspondent that there is in this country no similar institution which can offer young women equal educational advantages. In doing this, I have certainly no intention of belittling the work which Girton College has already successfully accomplished. But having recently visited that institution, and carefully examined its building and methods, I am persuaded that the college lately founded in Northampton, Mass., offers, with ampler funds, better buildings, and a more effective organization, an education for women as truly liberal and complete as that which your correspondent has so justly praised. Situated, as the two colleges are, in different hemispheres, a comparison may, I trust, be drawn between them without the imputation of any design of exalting the one at the expense of the other.

In material advantages, the contrast is decidedly in favor of the American institution. The whole amount of the subscriptions of the long list of contributors to Girton College, if my memory does not play me false, did not exceed $100,000. Miss Sophia Smith, of Hatfield, Mass., alone has given over $500,000 to found the college which bears her name. This fund has been so carefully husbanded and expended that all the buildings have been erected out of the income without taking from the original endowment. The fund of Girton College, if I am rightly informed, was barely sufficient to pay for its site and the one building upon it. That building, as your correspondent states, is in the midst of a dreary plain, far from good walks and social privileges. The Smith College at Northampton has merely for academic purposes a larger building than that at Girton, and finished in a style that seems palatial compared with the English college. From its site it commands a view, almost unrivalled in beauty, of the Connecticut Valley and the surrounding mountains. It is in the midst of well-paved walks, delightful excursions, and a highly-cultured society. Grouped around this central academic building are smaller dwelling-houses, in which young ladies may find the social advantages and comforts of a home. In this respect the American college has a very great superiority over its English rival. In fact, there is nothing of home-life at Girton. The build-

ing is not arranged for it; the atmosphere of the institution is not favorable to it. In the cottages connected with Smith College, every young lady may have not only the privacy of her own study and bed-room, but also the enjoyment and culture of a family life, organized and inspired by refined and intelligent women.

These things, we are aware, do not constitute a college. Its real worth, after all, is to be determined not by the value of its funds, the grandeur of its buildings, or its social advantages, but by the mental strength and growth which it secures. How, then, do the two institutions compare in their distinctive intellectual work? Both mark essentially a new departure in female education in adopting the same standard of intellectual culture which prevails in the higher education of young men. They require, also, the same amount of preliminary culture. According to the report of our Centennial Commission of Education, Smith College is the only female college in this country which has as yet insisted upon those requirements for admission which are common in our higher male institutions of learning. It demands that girls shall be as well prepared in the classics and English studies as boys are when they enter college. It has no preparatory course to serve as a receptacle for the great mass of its students. The preparatory work it relegates to the schools where it properly belongs. Not being dependent upon the income of students for its support, it is not obliged to lower its standard of culture for the sake of increasing its numbers. At Girton, one need not pass an examination until the twelfth term of residence; at Smith College, one must pass the common tests in Greek, Latin, mathematics, and English previous to admission. Both institutions, however, agree in maintaining that it is useless to attempt to educate woman as highly as man, except by requiring of her a similar amount of preliminary work. Girls are not to be expected to do in four years the work which boys can only do in six.

In the courses and methods of study, Girton conforms to English and Smith College to American usages. Smith College aims to give woman that broad and liberal culture which has characterized the best American colleges. It has not eliminated from its curriculum those studies which are most intellectual, in accommodation to any imagined deficiencies of the female intellect. Not only is the standard of admission the same, but its course of study is as thorough and complete, as it is at Harvard, Yale, Amherst, or Williams. During the first year, the young ladies pursue the studies which young men ordinarily pursue in freshman year, and their work, as far as one is able to make a comparison, is not inferior in quality or quantity. After the first year there are three elective courses, called the classical, literary, and scientific. In the classical course, greater attention is given to Greek and Latin; in the literary, greater attention is given to the modern languages, and especially to the English; and in the scientific, greater attention to mathematics and the natural sciences. In all these courses enough of the ordinary collegiate studies are retained to ensure the liberal culture which the college was designed to give. No student can receive the college diploma who has not done satisfactory work and passed satisfactory examinations, both in the common studies of the college course and in all the studies of one of the three optional courses.

In Girton College, according to English custom, the greatest stress is laid upon special examinations. These become the goal of student life. In Smith College, the rank of a student is determined far more by the regular daily work. Spasmodic cramming for special examinations is discouraged. The main effort is by daily instruction and examination, under competent teachers, to secure a healthy mental growth. It is not my purpose to discuss the comparative value of these different methods. Girton College, whatever it may be in the future, is not yet an appendage of Cambridge. It has neither teachers nor funds to carry on any extensive collegiate work according to English methods. Its teachers are mostly volunteers, who come out from Cambridge as long as it suits their convenience. Valuable as their instruction may be, their main work and interest must be in the college or university to which they belong; they cannot give to the students at Girton as great an inspiration and aid as they give to those associated with them in the same institution. Smith College has a faculty of its own selected for its work. Through its proximity to the colleges at Amherst, it can also readily employ their lecturers and enjoy many of their advantages; it is not, however, dependent upon them for instruction. It has an ample corps of teachers of both sexes, who are making it their chief employment to realize our highest ideal of an American college. It is duly incorporated and chartered by the State of Massachusetts, with full powers to confer such degrees and diplomas as are granted in any of our colleges and universities. With the same standard of admission and a course of study as thorough and complete as that in male colleges, may not its diploma be of equal value as an indication of scholarship?

Your correspondent describes very pleasantly the young ladies at Girton. It may be of interest to know the character of those who are seeking a liberal culture in the American college. To secure a more effective organization, Smith College opened last September with only one class, proposing to add each year a new class and the requisite teachers until the four classes and faculty should be complete. The members of its first class are generally daughters of liberally-educated parents who appreciate the worth of such an education and are anxious to secure it for their children. They represent the most refined and intelligent portion of our society. None of them seem to have entered the college as a stepping-stone to a profession or a "sphere." They are seeking simply a higher intellectual culture for its own sake, believing that intelligence is worth as much to a woman as it is to a man, and that a well-disciplined mind will be a joy and aid to her in any position in which she may be placed. N. N.

THE DISCOUNT ON SILVER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: If any argument could convince our legislators that money and its equivalents must, like merchandise, follow the inexorable laws of supply and demand, and that the only hope of bringing our paper currency to a par with gold is in reducing its volume, then the following facts from California may be a gleam of light to those wavering ones who may read your paper.

We are on this coast now laboring under an infliction of a superabundance of inconvertible currency—viz., silver half-dollars—and although we have not reached the extent of debasement current on your side of the country, yet the market value of silver coin being now at 4 to 4½ per cent. discount, the depreciation is serious enough to cause much loss and inconvenience. The cause of this is simply its superabundance. For some years, owing to the low price of bar-silver in the world's markets, it has been found profitable to turn silver bullion into coin, and our supply of this currency has therefore become excessive. A few years ago there was found no difficulty in passing from hand to hand at par rolls of silver halves containing twenty dollars each; but although our community is an easy one and indifferent to small matters, yet, as the years have passed, the accumulation in the safes of most traders and merchants became serious, necessitating sales in the open market.

The present rate of discount hardly represents the true value of silver, as there is scarcely a merchant on this coast but in whose bank balance will be found a sum of silver on deposit ranging from $100 to $5,000. We have the satisfaction of knowing that a depreciation of a few more "points" will permit the exportation of our surplus to South and Central America, when we may expect a return to a value more nearly on a par with gold.

Unfortunately for your paper-money, there is no point at which exportation will commence, so that your sole remedy is the calling-in by the Government and the cancellation of your surplus.

In further proof of the foregoing remarks, silver half-dimes, being quite scarce with us, bear a premium over gold of from one-half to one per cent., our people refusing the nickel substitute as having only a fictitious value.

I remain, yours truly,

Edward L. G. Steele.

San Francisco, Feb. 1, 1876.

A LETTER FROM GENERAL GORDON.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your glowing tribute to the character and achievements of the Second Massachusetts Regiment, in the last copy of the *Nation*, fills my heart with such tenderness that I lay down your paper without an emotion of ill-feeling for the somewhat, as I think, unjust criticism towards myself. Unjust, because the first and second papers—which were in pamphlet form, and privately distributed to those who bore the expense of publication—were filled with a minute description "of the processes by which its thousand men were changed from citizens into thoroughly-disciplined soldiers." To have repeated the story of "the constant application of intelligent force by which its high character was sustained amid all the trials of active service, and in spite of the dangerous influence of inferior discipline all around it," would have been to weary the reader with an o'er-told tale, and lay the author open to the charge of inexcusable egotism, if not bad taste. The want you have found is not in the publication but in the place you searched for it.

Will you read again to whom credit is given for the salvation of Banks's command at Winchester on that Sunday morning of the 25th of May when

our diminutive force held back for three hours the overwhelming army of Jackson? to whom credit is given for the unyielding and heroic resistance to the enemy's march on the 24th? and then will you insist "that one looks in vain for the glowing tribute to the soldierly carriage of its men in action"?

Of Goodwin, Abbott, Cary, Williams, Savage, and Perkins, as well as of others who fell in action, I have spoken in my first paper, p. 23, in praise so ardent, with affection so warm, that repetition seemed to me unnecessary. I could not seem even to keep silence about these heroic men. They are recorded in that paper as among those "who remind us of a sacred companionship, born of patriotic devotion, nurtured in the fire of battle, and strengthened by a common sacrifice—a tender, a sweet companionship that admonishes us, as we bear the burdens of our daily cares, to be true, to be honest, to be brave, so that when

> 'At times unbidden notes shall rise,
> Confusedly bound in memory's ties,
> Entangling as they rush along
> The war march with the funeral song,'

we shall appreciate more and more, as time covers with its mosses the stones that mark the resting-places of our heroic comrades, that the proud record of our regiment would be a barren story without the history of all those noble souls—officers and privates—who gave up their lives for their country."

I have yet one more paper to contribute. The four parts then bound together, making about four hundred pages, will be illuminated by a map. Then, I may predict, it will not be found that the text "leaves a confused impression upon the mind, etc." I hope it will also be accompanied with sketches of battle-fields and positions, through which operations will be seen clearly. Is it not fair to ask if your criticism upon the inability of the reader to follow in the movements of both sides prior to and during an engagement may not be applied to every movement of hostile forces from the earliest history of wars? Besides, it should be remembered that this paper was read to those who had done the deeds whereof they heard; and this brings me to a last point—why this paper, turned into a book, was sold through the book-stores. It was simply to defray the cost of the making up of the book. Only two hundred copies were published. The types were then distributed. There now remain but about eighty copies; the remainder have been mainly distributed among the friends and members of the Association. If contributions and sales pay the bill to the publisher, it is all that has been required, all that is expected.

Perhaps you will think it just to publish this reply to your criticisms. If you have never seen the first and second parts, I could send them to you, if you would return them. Please give my letter as much prominence as your criticism. During many years a subscriber to the *Nation*, I have noticed its eagerness to be fair.—Yours very truly,

GEORGE H. GORDON.

BOSTON, MASS., 37 and 38 Sears Building, Feb. 11, 1876.

[We expressly acquitted General Gordon of any conscious egotism, and consequently of any conscious neglect of his comrades in arms. Before preparing our review we read his three papers in connection if not consecutively, and still received the impression which we frankly stated. On this subject, as in regard to the confusedness of his battle descriptions, we spoke deliberately and, as it seems to us on reflection, with substantial accuracy.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

IT is proposed to publish a life of the late Dr. S. G. Howe in raised letters for the use of the blind—certainly a most fitting monument. The same biography will be printed in the usual manner in a memorial volume, together with the late memorial addresses at the Boston Music Hall. Subscriptions to the fund for defraying the expenses of these publications may be sent to the Hon. James Sturgis, Treasurer, Boston. Those to the amount of five dollars will entitle the donor to a copy of the memorial volume.——Lieut. Geo. M. Wheeler's annual report of his survey during 1875 has lately been issued from the Government printing-office. Without being popular reading, or meant for such, it contains many chapters of general interest. Prof. E. D. Cope's report on the geology and palæontology of N. W. New Mexico are illustrated by his sketches of the geological features of the region above-mentioned—features not so extraordinary as those of the Colorado country, but still curious. Commenting on the genera of Camelidæ peculiar to this continent, Prof. Cope remarks that until some of these forms are discovered in the Palæarctic region, "there will be much ground for supposing that the camels of the Old World were derived from American ancestors; while the presence of the llamas in the existing South American fauna indicates the absence there of the conditions which caused their extermination from North America."——The latest publication of the Hydrographic Office, No. 37, is Part I. of sailing directions for the coasts of the Mediterranean Sea, translated and compiled by Lieut.-Commander Henry H. Gorringe, U.S.N. It embraces the S. and S. E. coasts of Spain, from Mala Bahia to Cape Creux, Balearic Islands, and the N. coast of Africa from Ceuta to La Cala. The articles on the chief ports furnish a good deal of information for which not only mariners but merchants will be thankful. The coast-line is fully delineated in numerous profiles.——Harper & Bros. send us bound volumes of their *Weekly* for 1875 (xix.), *Bazar* (viii.), and *Magazine* (l. and li.), and request us to speak of them as their merits deserve. None of our periodical publications, however, stand in less need of being described or estimated. That each is first in its own field must, we think, be conceded, and all that it occurs to us to say about the bound volumes, rather than about the separate parts, is that they impress us more forcibly with the really vast amount of useful and accurate information which they all contain, and are designed to contain, over and above the mere amusement of illustrations and light literature. In regard to the *Weekly*, we share the general feeling that the duality which marks the political conduct of the paper is inconsistent with ideal journalism, and is not calculated to promote a sound political morality.——A summer school of zoölogy will open at Cornell University on Friday, July 7, and close on Thursday, August 17. The programme includes thirty-six day lectures and laboratory exercises, with nine evening lectures, the instructors being Profs. W. S. Barnard and B. G. Wilder, Mr. J. H. Comstock, and Dr. Elliott Coues. Prof. Wilder is to be the director, and will furnish all necessary information as to terms and requirements. The number of students is limited to fifty. Another offshoot of Penikese is the Summer School of Science and Physical Culture (not for youngsters, like Dr. Rothrock's), which will leave Indianapolis, July 11, on a six weeks' trip to Mammoth Cave and Lookout Mountain. The instructors in this case are Profs. D. S. Jordan (*Birds*, *Reptiles*, and *Fishes*), H. E. Copeland (*Botany*), and Mr. Ernest Copeland (*Insects* and *Taxidermy*). Prof. Copeland will be manager; he may be addressed at 320 Ash Street, Indianapolis. But twenty students can be admitted.

—Messrs. James R. Osgood & Co. have done a good service in reproducing, by the heliotype process, the complete works of Hogarth at a price that brings them within the reach of many who could not afford to buy a set of the original engravings. The plates are accompanied by letterpress descriptions taken from the London edition of 1820–22, and Thackeray's and Lamb's essays on Hogarth form the introduction to the volume. Hogarth's vigorous manner of engraving lends itself to reproduction by the heliotype, and the plates are, in general, rendered with satisfactory effect. Even a heliotype rendering is seldom a perfect fac-simile; but in these reproductions the essential spirit of Hogarth's compositions is well preserved. Hogarth's claims as moralist, satirist, humorist, and artist are so great, in spite of the exaggeration of them by some of his admirers, that his works deserve wide diffusion. The coarseness of too many of them prevents them from having a place on the drawing-room table. The refined modern woman is justly out of sympathy with them, and would not desire that her son, any more than her daughter, should be familiar with them. But the indifferent student of character, the lover of humor, the reader of Fielding and Smollett, will turn to them constantly, not only as the best graphic illustrations of the London of George II. and George III., but as among the best English delineations of human nature in its prosaic and often ugly aspects. Lichtenberg found all England and English character in Hogarth.

—*Lippincott's* for February has two excellent descriptive articles, one by Lady Barker, who tells of what she saw in three days at Cape Town, and tells it with all her usual grace and vivacity; and the other by Mr. Robert Wilson. This writer continues and, we regret to say, concludes his theme, "At the Old Plantation," and confirms our good opinion of him derived from reading his previous paper on the same subject. The present deals wholly with the huntsman's sport at the South, and in felicity of expression and artistic restraint, as well as in its intimate sympathy with nature, seems to us to take a very high rank in its kind of literature. Mr. Wilson's reminiscences are of twenty years ago. The second Centennial paper is better than the first, as we expected it to be, and the writer does not lack

for information, but his style is frequently open to criticism. Thus in his second paragraph he speaks of the "concentric mass" of influences "which combined to bring the colonies up to the precise ripening-point of their independence"; and of "the completed and symmetrical edifice of *separation* ready for its capstone," etc. The illustrations are effectively arranged in couples, to contrast the old buildings, machinery, vessels, etc., with the new. Mr. James Morgan Hart contributes a sensible and useful essay on "Professor and Teacher," in which he shows the fetters imposed on our professors (such of them as are genuine specialists), and holds up the German example as the true ideal. In proposing a remedy for their condition, he finds some encouragement in Michigan's University, or at least in the mode in which it was called into being and its effect on the higher education in the public schools of the State. One would rather have looked for some reference to the scheme of the Johns Hopkins University. Dr. R. A. F. Penrose comes to the rescue of the self-made man in replying to Dr. Wood's recent strictures on medical education in this country, but the editor is quite right in thinking that his arguments are not worthy of serious refutation.

—Female writers equally divide with male the current number of *Harper's Magazine*, and even preponderate if George Eliot be counted with her American sisters. The opening paper on "Lyme" (Conn.), by Mrs. Lamb, is interesting, but, for a so-called "chapter of American genealogy," is deficient in clearness. The writer was evidently embarrassed by the wealth of her material and by the necessity of maintaining her thesis that "Lyme has produced more lawyers than any other town of its size on this continent, or any other continent," besides "eminent judges, senators, and governors; its latest and grandest achievement being a Chief-Justice of the United States." She gives a long list of public or quasi-public characters who trace their origin to Lyme, and by a rather prodigal use of the adjectives "celebrated," "famous," and the like, she manages to keep up the level of excellence to a remarkable degree. Miss Anna Brackett's account of Vassar College we can commend to our readers, especially such as did not overlook our recent correspondence concerning Girton College. They will find her views feminine but independent, and devoid of fulsome praise of an institution which can be and doubtless will be bettered. Mrs. Mary Treat furnishes a brief and neatly-illustrated paper discussing the mode in which the utricularia captures its prey. The sixteenth of the series of essays on the First Century of the Republic is a first paper on American Literature, by Mr. Edwin P. Whipple. We should call his by far the most difficult task of the lot. He has chosen the chronological order instead of a division according to the various branches of literature; and as his survey ends here with 1840, and it does not appear how many papers he means to make of it, it is not easy to say just how well he has succeeded. In the main he deals with the theological writing of the period indicated, and by the biographical rather than the bibliographical method. Mr. Whipple could hardly help writing from the Boston and Unitarian standpoint. For all lovers of fiction, the most important feature of the February *Harper* is the first instalment of "Daniel Deronda." Its approaches are marked, or shall we say barred, by the ponderous scaffolding of suggestive mottoes and scientific whimsies to which the readers of 'Middlemarch' became accustomed, and which, however characteristic of the author, are certainly not the immortal portions of her work. The Gwendolen who is introduced to us abruptly, and who may or may not turn out to be the heroine, reminds us (of course with many differences) of the not over-agreeable Rosamond in 'Middlemarch.'

—The great question, "Who are you, where did you come from, and whither are you bound?" if not even in this age of the world in a fair way of solution, at least receives as much attention as it ever did. Mr. John Fiske has begun a series of papers in the *Atlantic*, under the title of the "Unseen World," discussing some of the answers to it. It is impossible in any short compass to discuss the article properly, but when it is said that it deals with the now popularized topic of the refrigeration of the earth, and the ultimate destiny of the universe of matter, it is unnecessary to add that it is interesting. Whether the fate of the moon, hung dead and cold in the sky, without living inhabitants or an atmosphere to support life, is to overtake the earth, and after the earth our whole solar system, and afterwards the other systems scattered through space, is a speculation which may be of no concern to such religious sects as have the satisfaction of knowing in advance the particular week and the particular year in which the last day will come, but to the rest of mankind it is one which arouses almost as much as it baffles curiosity. At the present time, there is a prevailing impression among the unscientific public that the fate of the moon solves the whole problem; but those who read Mr. Fiske's article will find that it is only the beginning, and that so far from death in the case of worlds putting an end to any discussion of what we may call cosmic immortality, it really makes the future teem with speculation. What with the luminiferous ether pervading space, yet unlike any form of matter which we can weigh or measure, both hard and elastic to an inconceivable degree, occupying the whole of space and yet occupying no space at all, and the vortex-atoms of Helmholtz and Thomson with their eternity of duration and rotation, we reach subjects of contemplation, as Mr. Fisk says, the most stupendous that can be presented to the mind of man. We must refer the reader to the articles themselves, however, for the conclusions to which their speculations point.

—It occurs to us to say, with reference to the Harvard College statistics published last week, that perhaps they are not so satisfactory as they might be, from the fact that the tables in the reports take no account of the possible case of the same student electing two or three courses in the same study. One student, for instance, might elect two or three courses in Greek, another in Latin, or in history or music, etc., and so the percentages would not show fairly the distribution of the different studies among the students. There may be a number of instances in which the time required to be given by the student to electives is thus concentrated in favorite studies, and such a concentration is rather to be expected under a system allowing to students freedom of choice. We should think the tables would be more complete if this attendance of one student in different courses in the same branch were indicated. Another point of interest is to know who the students are who take this and that elective—where are found the scholars of highest rank? As prophetic of the resources to be drawn hereafter by the country in different pursuits from the graduates of Cambridge, it is interesting to note where ability places itself during the college course. The reports give this information to a certain extent in pointing out the departments in which students win "honors" and "highest honors"; but in what departments have others, or the others, gained their laurels who have public parts assigned them at Commencement?

—There is an old statute of this State—dating back, we believe, to the last century, when our higher educational establishments possessed a character quite different from their present one—which forbids the election of any professor or teacher in a college or academy to the board of trustees of such college or academy. For the following reasons this enactment seems to be injurious, and its repeal, so far at least as colleges are concerned, to be desirable in the interest of the colleges themselves. It subjects to a humiliating disability one of the most enlightened, incorruptible, and unselfish classes of the State's citizens. It excludes from the supreme governing body of a college the very persons most familiar with the management, needs, and condition of the college—the very persons most deeply interested in the institution's welfare. It presupposes that the best educated persons of the community—men usually of unblemished integrity—cannot be trusted with the administration of funds a portion of which is to be devoted to the payment of their salaries; while, on the other hand, the law permits the officers or directors of many other corporations to vote upon questions directly affecting their own compensation. It has led to many unfortunate disagreements and disputes between the trustees and faculties of colleges, greatly to the detriment of those institutions. It is in direct opposition to the system which prevails in all other civilized countries. Everywhere in Europe the control of the funds of universities is entrusted almost exclusively to the professors, between whom and the State there is no intermediate body like our boards of trustees. This is one of the chief causes of the unequalled position held by the universities of Germany. Its expediency is disproved by a notable instance in our own country. The most successful and most promising educational institution of the highest grade which has recently been built up in the United States, is the Sheffield Scientific School of Yale College. The whole management of this School, pecuniary and otherwise, has been from the start in the hands of its professors, who have even increased and diminished their own salaries at will. To this fact every one familiar with the history of the school attributes its rapid growth and its high reputation. In several colleges of the State the alumni are now permitted to elect a certain number of the members of the corporation. This reform should be supplemented by the repeal of the obnoxious statute referred to, or of that portion which relates to the professors in colleges. If an alumnus happens to be a professor, he is thereby rendered ineligible to an office to which any of his associates may aspire. If the majority of the alumni consider a particular one of their body best fitted to assist in the management of the college, they are prevented by the statute from choosing him if he chance to be a professor. There is not the slightest danger

that the repeal of this statute will result in giving to the professors a preponderating power in the government of institutions to whose reputation and success they are the largest contributors. Each board of trustees will still possess the power to prevent such a consequence. Scarcely any step which the Legislature can take will, in the end, exercise so favorable an influence upon the growth and progress of advanced education as the removal of this disability; and it is an act of justice and expediency which will cost the State nothing.

—The activity and good sense which have characterized the management of the Bellevue Training School for Nurses have been rewarded by a continual increase in the work done by the School. It was opened in 1873, less than three years ago, with six pupils, in the face of a good deal of determined opposition in quarters where none ought to have existed, and though it has been entirely dependent on public charity for its support, it has now forty pupils, and the only barrier in the way of an almost indefinite increase is the want of funds. The importance to the city hospitals of having a school of this kind is obvious enough, but we doubt if the public at large appreciate sufficiently the advantage of its existence to them. The standard aimed at, according to the circular before us, and the statement may be relied upon as accurate, is "careful discipline and drill, order, cleanliness, method, trustworthiness, and an obedience so absolute and intelligent that a physician, though absent, can as fully depend upon his orders being obeyed by the nurse as if he were present"; and the difference between the system introduced by this School and the kind of nursing which the people unfortunate enough to need nursing were subjected to in this country before the year 1873, is the difference between the standard here set up and that in vogue among the American cousins of Sairey Gamp and Betsey Prigg. The School is now the headquarters in the United States of the modern and enlightened system of nursing, and not only trains nurses but acts as a normal school also, having, in less than three years, furnished the Roosevelt Hospital and the Brooklyn Maternity Hospital with matrons, the Boston Training School with a superintendent, and being now about to send persons qualified for positions like these to Georgia, Arkansas, and other Southern States. The School has now control of nine wards in Bellevue Hospital, containing 160 beds, and within the past year has supplied more than sixty private families. The finances of the institution are managed economically, the maintenance of the pupils costing only forty-seven cents per diem apiece. An annual increase in the income to the sum of $10,000 is needed, and the circular of the School asks for contributions. We know of no charity in the city which has stronger claims, none in which there is less waste, none in which there is more care and thoroughness, and none in which the benefactors may feel more confident that every dollar they give will be conscientiously applied to the best and most enlightened methods of relieving suffering among all classes.

—The short but important report of Professor Curtius of Berlin upon the recent discoveries at Olympia, which Dr. Robert P. Keep has just communicated to the *Evening Post* in an English translation, will rouse the enthusiasm of all lovers of art. The systematic labors of the German explorers, who began in October last the herculean work of removing the deposits with which the Alpheus has fortunately covered the ruins of Olympia, are now crowned with success; and this bulletin of Professor Curtius, with the telegraphic accounts which supplement it, seems to show that we are on the eve of archæological discoveries more important than any which have been made since Herculaneum and Pompeii rose from their ashes. The results already gained prove that there has been no such wholesale destruction of the works of art which adorned and surrounded the temple of Zeus at Olympia as many feared, and that Curtius was amply justified in directing the attention of the German Government to this famous spot. The mud of the Alpheus has been a far gentler protector of treasures of art than were either Turks or Venetians, and the British Museum is now likely to have a formidable rival in the new museum at Olympia. It is well known that the German Government has promised to leave every work of art which may be found, except, perhaps, duplicates, in the possession of the Greeks. Among the first relics found was a three-sided pedestal of a statue, with an inscription showing that both the pedestal and a statue of Victory which stood on it were erected by the Messenians of Naupactus, from "spoils of war," as a votive offering to Zeus, and that the sculptor was Paeonius of Mende in Thrace, who (the inscription adds) made also some of the pediment statues of the temple itself, having been victorious in a competitive contest for the honor of furnishing them. Paeonius was a contemporary of Phidias; and from being a mere name known only to archæologists, he must henceforth take rank among the first sculptors of the Periclean age. The next day was found the statue of Victory itself, which has excited great admiration even in its mutilated condition. Its head and arms were still wanting at the last accounts, but when every day is bringing heads and arms in abundance to light, there is little doubt that the goddess will soon be complete. The scholars who superintended the excavations at once recognized this statue as the identical one mentioned by Pausanias (v. 26), who states (probably on the authority of the inscription now discovered on the pedestal) that it was the work of Paeonius of Mende, and was erected by "the Dorian Messenians, who had received Naupactus from the Athenians." Pausanias relates that the Messenians themselves (*i.e.*, those of his time) believed that the "spoils of war" were taken at the time of "the affair of the island Sphacteria," when, according to Thucydides (iv. 41), a body of the Messenian exiles came to Pylus from Naupactus and invaded the old Messenian territory, much to the injury and the terror of the Spartans who then held it. The fear of the Spartans afterwards prevented them (it was said) from adding to the inscription the name of the enemy from whom the spoils were taken; this omission in the inscription seems to have been used by the later Messenians as an argument against the statement which Pausanias is inclined to accept, that the "enemy" was a less formidable one in the neighborhood of Naupactus. If the Messenians were right, we have a most interesting memorial in this statue: first, of the terrible revolt of the Spartan helots and the futile attempt made by Cimon to induce an army of democratic Athenians to help suppress it; of the new fright which the presence of such dangerous allies gave the Spartans, who feared that their "progressive" ideas might spread (Thuc. i. 102); the insulting dismissal of the Athenians, which caused the first open breach between Athens and Sparta; and the protection afforded by the Athenians to the vanquished helots or "Messenians," and their settlement of the exiles at Naupactus; again, of the defeat and capture of the Spartan army on Sphacteria by Cleon, and the fulfilment of his "mad promise" (Thuc. iv. 39) to bring home the Spartans as prisoners within twenty days (the one unfortunate precedent for the interference of politicians in military affairs); the eager seizure of the opportunity by the Messenians of Naupactus to avenge their own and their ancestors' wrongs upon their Spartan conquerors; and the pious gratitude with which these poor exiles dedicated a part of their booty, in the form of this beautiful statue of Victory, to the god whom their ancestors had worshipped at Ithome. Even if the promise of this statue is not entirely fulfilled, it will still remain a priceless specimen of the highest period of Greek art, in fact (with the exception of the marbles of the Parthenon, so far as they can be attributed to Phidias), "the first authenticated statue by a Greek sculptor of the fifth century before Christ." It will be interesting to see how far the inscriptions on its pedestal and on other bases which have been found near it confirm the Messenian opinion as to its origin. Whatever may have been the occasion of its erection, the inscription shows clearly that a work of art which is likely to be one of the great statues of the world was dedicated by a colony of fugitive slaves, whose ancestors had been in barbarous servitude two or three centuries, and who had themselves within thirty years been settled in a foreign country by foreign charity, after being expelled from their native land as the result of a long servile war.

—The very first discovery made was that of a "colossal male torso of marble," which "was at once seen to be a work of conspicuous value," being probably part of the statue of Zeus himself which formed the central figure of the eastern (or front) pediment group. As Curtius says that other statues have since come to light faster than they can be secured and raised, we can hardly doubt that we shall have at least the group of this pediment in a far more complete state than we now have either of the pediment groups of the Parthenon. Curtius reports the finding (Dec. 22) of a reclining figure of a river-god before the east front of the temple, which has since been completed by the discovery of its missing parts. Dr. Keep tells us further that a charioteer and a male torso have been reported by telegraph. Pausanias gives us (v. 10) a full description of the statues on both pediments, which will be of great aid in identifying and restoring the fragments which may be found. He says of the front or east pediment, that it represented the scene as the chariot-race between Pelops and Oenomaus (by which the former won Hippodameia) was about to begin. In the centre sat Zeus as judge; first on his right was Oenomaus with a helmet on his head, probably in the very armor in which "he slew Hippodameia's thirteen suitors, and so put off his daughter's marriage" (Pind. Olym. i. 128); by his side his queen, the Pleiad Sterope, daughter of Atlas; then Myrtilus, the treacherous and ill-fated charioteer of Oenomaus, "sitting before his horses" (of which there were four); behind Myrtilus were two grooms, who had

charge of the horses of Oenomaus; at the extreme end was the river-god Cladeus. On the left of Zeus were Pelops and Hippodameia, the charioteer and horses of Pelops, and two grooms in charge of the horses; in the extreme northern angle was the river-god Alpheus. The figures of the two rivers remind us of those of the Ilissus and the Cephissus on the pediment of the Parthenon. These statues of the front pediment, Pausanias says, are works of Paeonius of Mende, while those of the rear pediment are works of Alcamenes, "a contemporary of Phidias, and a man who bore away the second honors for skill in making statues." The inscription above-mentioned would seem to indicate that these "second honors" refer to a competitive contest with Paeonius; the passage of Pausanias, however, might mean that he was second to Phidias. He then describes the scene of this group, which contained the battle of the Centaurs and Lapithae at the marriage of Peirithous. We hope we may yet have to record the discovery of this group also, as "a female torso" is already reported as found at the southwest corner of the temple. And why may we not hope to see at least the basis of the great statue of Zeus, which bore the autograph of Phidias? (Paus. v. 10). Dr. Keep informs us that preparation has been made for taking plaster casts at once of the statues which may be found. Will not some museum of art in this country find the means to obtain copies of some of them while they are still in the hands of the German Commission?

STEDMAN'S VICTORIAN POETS.*

"THE main purpose of this book," says Mr. Stedman, "is to examine the lives and productions of such British poets as have gained reputation within the last forty years." It is "a book of literary and biographical criticism." Stress has often been laid on the difficulty and uncertainty of contemporary criticism. Jeffrey's estimate of Wordsworth, the *Quarterly Review's* judgment of Keats, are stock instances urged in support of the proposition. The consentient verdict of successive generations is, doubtless, an aid in estimating the qualities of a writer of former times, but a sensible man is likely to make as few mistakes in judging his contemporaries as in judging of men of other times, and a critic qualified to speak of the authors of a past century is qualified in like degree to speak of those of his own. To judge correctly the first works of young authors is, indeed, sometimes difficult, because promise is not always fulfilled by later production, and the dividing line between the capacity of sustained power and the display of transient and quickly exhausted force is not always clearly marked. But in judging the authors of a period of forty years, the sifting of good from bad is already in most cases effected, while the contemporary critic has the advantage, in forming his final estimate, of thorough acquaintance with the external conditions that have affected the lives and the productions of the subjects of his discourse. Mr. Stedman is in many respects fitted for the task he has undertaken. He has been a diligent reader of poetry, he has written verse, and some of it of much more than ordinary merit; he has wide sympathies with intellectual moods, a liberal taste, and the freedom of an educated man from extravagant prepossessions and unfounded prejudices. He has consequently reached that measure of success in his work which is to be found in a generally fair proportionate estimate of the chief poets of our time, in a series of intelligent studies of their works, and in marshalling in rational order a vast number of writers of more or less distinction who have formed the rank and file of the regiment of what he terms Victorian poets. As a handbook to the poetic literature of England during the last and present generations, Mr. Stedman's volume is commendable and serviceable.

But his work has also another aim. It is "an essay in philosophical criticism." Its intent is to set forth "correct ideas in respect to the aim and province of the art of poetry." In this portion of his subject, Mr. Stedman says modestly, "much originality is not claimed for either manner or thought. My effort simply has been to illustrate, through analysis of the career of various poets, what already is widely understood among philosophical critics." The want of originality in such work as this is not a fault, but the contrary. The most philosophical critic cannot invent new principles of judgment; he can do little more than set old truths in new lights, or present them with fresh illustrations. But it is essential that he should have a clear discrimination of the truth and the error in commonly received notions, that his own principles should be consistent and defined, and that he should have the ability to set them forth in logical sequence and according to their relative importance.

As a "philosophical critic," Mr. Stedman shows himself more receptive and impressible than discriminating; he exhibits facility rather than force of mind, and more fluency of expression than body of thought or keenness of discernment. He is better at the analysis of individual qualities than in broad generalizations. In his philosophical speculation his hold of ideas is loose, it lacks grip; his reasoning is not infrequently inconsecutive, and his conclusions are formal rather than necessary. These defects appear, for instance, in his attempt to define the characteristics of our age in their relations to prevailing forms of thought and expression. The age is, in his view, one of transition, complex, in which "the scientific movement assumes an importance equal to that of all other forces combined." But all ages seem to the men who live in them to be ages of transition and complex, so that to determine the effect of these aspects of the world upon thought and expression in any given period, would require a broad comparative historical survey. The force of the scientific movement in determining the mental dispositions of the present time is a simpler subject of enquiry. But in estimating its effect upon poetry, Mr. Stedman seems to have no clear and settled idea as to the relations between knowledge and imagination. He declares that "there is no inherent antagonism between science and poetry," but he discovers "that a temporary struggle is under way and has seriously embarrassed the poets of the era." He regards this as "an enforced transition to the method of the future," whatever that may be. "The transition period, doubtless," he asserts, "will be prolonged by the ceaseless progress of the scientific revolution occupying men's imaginations, and constantly readjusting the basis of language and illustration." But in these utterances Mr. Stedman seems to be without distinct perception of the nature of the poetic imagination. With science as mere science it has nothing to do. Its high prerogative is that of choice. Facts do not compel its acceptance of them. It apprehends "more than cool reason ever comprehends." Science and imagination cannot quarrel, there can be no struggle between them, because the imagination is supreme and absolute in its own domain. "If the time should ever come," says Wordsworth, in a passage cited by Mr. Stedman, but apparently not fully understood by him, "when what is now called science, familiarized to men, shall be ready to put on, as it were, a form of flesh and blood, the poet will lend his divine spirit to aid the transfiguration, and will welcome the Being thus produced, as a clear and genuine inmate of the household of man." The very form and figure of this sentence illustrate the point at issue. Here is a truth expressed by trope and metaphor, and fact is dressed in the garb of fancy. But Mr. Stedman seems to expect that science is to invade the realm of poesy, and that the poets are likely to follow the lead of such a writer as George Eliot, who often shows her deficiency of poetic imagination in making use of the raw material of science long before it has become familiar enough to put on a form of flesh and blood.* Let science make what progress and discovery she may, she will but open new regions over which the imagination will have sway, while she cannot take from poetry one foothold that the muse has ever called her own. Knowledge widens as the years advance, but the imagination is never troubled by the increase. One superstition after another drops away, the old forms of fancy give place to new, yet the poet, mourning that "glory and loveliness have passed away," still declares, "But there are left delights as high as these." To him "*Now* is a fairer season," and he is not troubled with the doubt—

> "that the high
> Imagination cannot freely fly
> As she was wont of old."

We do not question that Mr. Stedman is practically in accord with this doctrine. Many passages might be cited from his pages that by themselves sustain it, but he has no vigorous grasp of the principle of criticism involved in it, and his conclusions are vague and indefinite. After reading his disquisitions, we are left, like Omer Khayyám, who

> "heard great argument
> About it and about; but evermore
> Came out by the same door wherein he went."

The clearness of a writer's thought may often be illustrated by the character of his metaphors. If the nature of his mind is orderly and discriminating, he is not likely to mix his figures of speech. Now, Mr. Stedman speaks of poets who, "seizing upon the merest germs of scientific discovery, pursue them to their ultimate bounds." He talks of "classicism blossoming on the sprays of song," and of a method "maintaining an atmosphere." And this is his picture of Landor's station: "His station resembles that of a bulkhead defending the sea-wall of some lasting structure

* Victorian Poets. By Edmund Clarence Stedman. Boston: James R. Osgood & Co. 1876. 8vo, pp. xxiii.–441.

* This mannerism of George Eliot's is illustrated by the opening sentence of her new novel, 'Daniel Deronda': "Was she beautiful or not beautiful? and what was the secret of form or expression which gave the dynamic quality to her glance?" It will be long before poets or lovers talk, whether in verse or prose, of the "dynamic quality" of those "lights that do mislead the morn."

—a mole or pier built out from tuneful, grove-shaded Arcadian shores. He stretches far into the channel along which the tides of literary fashion have ebbed and flowed. Other poets, leading or following the changeful current, often appear to leave him behind, but ere long find him again abreast of them, unchanged and dauntless, wearing a lighted beacon at his head." Landor should have taught Mr. Stedman better than this.

Mr. Stedman's utterances are sometimes obscure. We do not understand him when he says, "There always are cases when poetry fairly rises above the idealism of its day," or when he tells us that "Tennyson is subjective, so far as a pervading sameness of style, a landscape seen through one shade of glass, can make him." Nor is he always consistent with himself in judgment, so that the reader is fairly at a loss what to think. Thus, in his notice of Clough we read, "It may be said of Clough as Carlyle said of Sterling, that he was 'a remarkable soul,' . . . who, more than others, sensible to its influences, took intensely into him such tint and shape of feature as the world had to offer there and then; fashioning himself eagerly by whatever of noble presented itself." This is clear, but we turn the page and are told, "His fine original nature took no tinge of the prevailing influences about him."

It is in no spirit of zeal to pick flaws that we point out such defects as these, but we notice them as affording illustration of mental traits which prevent Mr. Stedman's book from taking the place we should desire for it as a critical treatise. A sharp revision of the volume and the excision of much of the general criticism would give his work a chance of a permanent place in literature. If Mr. Stedman would attempt less, he would achieve more. If he would be content to be simple, and would give up philosophy, he might write pleasantly always as he now does sometimes; for he would write as a man of refined taste and of good natural perceptions improved by generous culture. The chapter in his present volume on Tennyson and Theocritus has an agreeable scholarly flavor, and some of his translations from the Greek poet are so felicitous that we could wish he would give us what we believe he has long promised—a complete version of the 'Idylls.'

THE NORTH AMERICAN REVIEW FOR JANUARY.

THE *North American Review* has published a "Centennial Number," which reviews the course of American thought in Religion, Politics, Abstract Science, Economic Science, Law, and Education. The writer of the paper on Religion, Professor Diman, has had a much more difficult task than any of his coadjutors, but has produced an article which has been rarely equalled in periodical literature, and indeed can hardly be charged with any defect except—though it fills forty-seven pages—its shortness. There is nothing in modern ecclesiastical history more interesting than, and nothing so complex as, the religious thought and feeling in America during the last two hundred years, because nowhere else has their expression been, on the whole, so free and so little trammelled either by tradition, custom, or legislation. Nobody who has not studied it can safely say that he knows the religious side of human nature, and yet to study it carefully is a task of no little difficulty, so manifold have been its variations and tendencies. Professor Diman has performed a literary feat of no small dexterity in giving us a bird's-eye view of the wide and shifting field of denominational life. The cases are very rare in which a religious man has shown himself so capable of taking an objective view of an interesting phase of church history without losing or concealing the sympathy with which he watches it. The first fact which comes out most prominently in his narrative, and leaves the deepest impression on one's mind as one lays down the article, is that the success of the denominations has been almost invariably in the ratio of the rigidity and completeness of their governmental organization. Discipline, obedience, fixed rules, and stern enforcement of them, in the church as in the world, carry the day. The second is that those denominations which have given the emotions the highest place in their scheme, or, in other words, have substituted the "theology of the feelings" for the "theology of the intellect," have been, other things being equal, those whose growth has been steadiest and greatest. Indeed, the people, as Professor Diman suggests, seem to seek in the strictness and completeness of church organization a refuge from the growing looseness and changeableness of that of the state. The article can hardly be overrated as an example of the treatment of a difficult subject in a short space by a master-hand.

Professor Sumner, in dealing with politics during the century, brings us down by a lucid sketch of party history to the close of the late war, illustrating copiously the gradual conversion of the republic into a democracy, and explaining the agencies which were most active in bringing it about. Contrasting the apathy or phlegm about political matters which characterizes the people of to-day as a whole, compared with that of the earlier part of the present century, he ascribes it to the greatly increased number and variety of social interests, and to the gradual recognition by the average voter of his own inability to deal with them satisfactorily, and of the necessity of committing their management more and more to trained hands, and confining himself to the selection of men rather than to the solution of questions. What the "ordinary voter wants now is good government and efficient administration, businesslike permanence and exactitude." In answer to the question why he finds it so hard to get them, Mr. Sumner says that the difficulty arises out of the strength and complexity of the party machinery which was created during earlier stages of public feeling, and which it will probably now take much time and long effort to overthrow; but in the dissatisfaction with it which prevails and in the widespread desire for something better he finds proof that while the party machinery has degenerated, the political will or "political morale" of the people—which, after all, supplies the motive power—has not done so, but, on the contrary, has improved and is improving. "That will," he says, "needs instruction and guidance. It is instructed only slowly and by great effort, especially through literary efforts, because it has learned distrust. It lacks organization, and its efforts are spasmodic and clumsy." In what way it can be made to assert itself and resume control of public affairs the professor does not show, and it is not his business to show, in the article before us; but we suspect the deliverance will only come, as he suggests, through bitter experience. This seems discouraging; but by what other process than self-conquest and suffering has man or nation ever come to anything?

President Gilman of the new Hopkins University discusses education in an article which contains a great deal of solid information. With regard to primary education, he tells the tale of its homogeneous diffusion from its New England birth-place throughout the country, including even, since the war, the old slave States, and sets down as its chief difficulty the peculiar condition of affairs at the South, as its chief defect a want of thoroughness, and as its chief danger the religious question. Secondary instruction—*i.e.*, that between the primary and the collegiate—is "commonly conceded" to be, Mr. Gilman says, the weakest part of the system. With regard to the universities, colleges, and other degree-giving institutions, the number of which had swollen from about twenty-six in 1800 to five hundred and forty-five in 1875, Mr. Gilman is not disposed to agree wholly with those who lament this astonishing growth, and thinks it has done a good deal to keep the lamp of knowledge burning in dark places, where the alternative was not better illumination but black night. The growth of State universities in the West, he thinks, has been a healthy reaction against the multiplicity of sectarian colleges. He refers to the statistics collected some years ago by President Barnard of Columbia College, showing a gradual lessening of the proportional number of students attending college throughout the country, or, in other words, a gradual loss of their hold upon the community by the colleges, but does not appear to think that this points to a necessarily permanent danger. With regard to the conflict between science and religion, he notices the fact that in this country it has never been rampant, any more than has the struggle between science and the classics. The figures quoted from the report of the Commissioner of Education as to the gifts of men of wealth to institutions of learning, will probably be a surprise even to those who have been in the habit of putting a very high estimate upon the national tendency to liberality in this direction; it seems that no less than $33,000,000 were given in the four years prior to 1875, a period which covers a whole year given up to business depression and positive panic. Summing up the causes for pride on the one side and dissatisfaction on the other, he thinks we may rejoice at being if not the most highly at least the "most generally" educated people in the world; at the stimulus we have given to popular education in England, in Japan, and in South America; at the constant improvement in our machinery of popular education; and at the growth of a few strong colleges, the commencement of numerous public libraries, schools, and galleries of the fine arts and of museums of natural history, and at the changes of some of the older colleges to true universities. On the other hand, there is reason for being dissatisfied with the inferiority of our systems of higher instruction to those of Europe; we must acknowledge that in intermediate instruction we are "far behind what we know to be requisite"; that in primary schools there is a great deal of waste of time and strength—or, in other words, of money; that the illiteracy of large numbers of the voting population, revealed by the last census, must cause us grave apprehension; and that the religious question (which Mr. Gilman would have settled by complete secularization) must still be considered a "rock ahead."

We regret to observe that in all or almost all the articles in this Cen-

tennial Number of the *Review*, the "practical man"—or, in other words, the Philistine—comes in for some pretty hard knocks, a fact which will probably prevent the number from having a large circulation among members of Congress or among aldermen and mayors of large cities. This is a pity, for what the Philistine principally needs to know is the depth of his own ignorance. At the same time, it cannot be helped, and, on the other hand, it is only fair that the unpractical man should have his revenge, at least once in a hundred years, for the numerous ward-meetings he has failed to influence and the caucuses and conventions he has failed to capture, and the insults and jeers and exhortations that have been heaped upon him in consequence, by explaining to his practical brother what a consummate mess the latter usually makes of all the more delicate parts of the social machine when he undertakes, not merely to plod along obediently and perform his allotted tasks, but, as he now actually has done, to govern the world. He has not made a great success of it in abstract science, according to Mr. Simon Newcomb, whose account of his subject might be briefly summed up by saying that there is not in America any abstract science. That there is not going to be, Mr. Newcomb does not say (and, indeed, if any one else had been writing the article, no doubt Mr. Newcomb's own name would have been brought forward in qualification of some of his statements); but he does say that abstract science has been hitherto in a far from flourishing condition. In other countries it has had the support of government or learned bodies. In this country it has had almost no support. The basis of any future advance must be a better knowledge of the wants of science among those who give money for its promotion. In this direction the "practical man" has only as yet reached the rather elementary stage at which he has been able to grasp the idea that astronomy cannot be successfully cultivated without telescopes nor chemistry without retorts. Big telescopes he has accordingly been putting up in all directions, and laboratories in every corner, until Mr. Newcomb declares that we want no more. What we do want is men to use them, and public recognition of the value of their labor.

The article on Law by Mr. G. T. Bispham is not so satisfactory as the others. It contains too much philosophy of a vague sort and too little law. The "great fact in the progress of American jurisprudence," Mr. Bispham says, is "its tendency towards organic statute law and towards the systematizing of law"; or, "in other words, towards written constitutions and codification." This may be true, but Mr. Bispham has wholly failed to point out the peculiarity of American constitutional law, which does not at all consist, though it is often loosely spoken of as if it did, in the fact that it is written. French constitutions are written, and yet they have no effective force like ours. The English constitution is unwritten, and yet the great body of our constitutional law, so far as it affects private right, closely resembles the English, and was taken in great measure from England. If the art of writing and printing were lost to-morrow, the constitutions of the States and the United States would not lose their vitality, though their interpretation would of course be more inconvenient than at present. The whole secret of American constitutional law lies in the fact that it puts the courts above all the rest of the government. Mr. Bispham also wholly omits to notice the revolution in the study of the law brought about by Austin's school in England—a revolution which now begins to be felt in this country pretty plainly; and he hardly touches upon the relation between the bench and bar and the public at all. He does not speak with favor of the new systems of pleading, and thinks the true principle of reform in this department would be to simplify the common-law system—the Massachusetts Practice Act is as good an example of this sort of reform as any one can ask for—and not to sweep away technical pleading nor abolish all the forms of action.

Professor Dunbar, who always writes so well that we wish he wrote oftener, in his review of Economic Science, comes to the conclusion, which must certainly be admitted as true, that "the United States have thus far done nothing towards developing the theory of political economy." There have been several able men, from Hamilton down, who have studied economic science and made successful applications of their knowledge in practical affairs, but they have not advanced the science itself. Mr. H. C. Carey is the only name that can be brought forward against this statement, and to say this is to make the case worse than before; for the history of Mr. Carey's mind, as revealed in his books, is the history of a mind hopelessly confused on the very subjects it professes to know and teach. His historical refutation of Ricardo will no doubt hereafter better serve the purpose of illustrating logical error than of advancing the fame of the "Pennsylvania school." As to the causes of our economic barrenness, Mr. Dunbar finds them the same as those which have kept us so backward in philosophy, in pure mathematics, in abstract science generally, in the more recondite historical investigations, and the higher generalizations in physics—the newness of the country, the hitherto practical character of American life, and the seeming immunity from the consequences of economic blunders caused by our wonderful natural resources.

Fine Arts.

NINTH EXHIBITION OF THE WATER-COLOR SOCIETY.

If a new painting vehicle could be discovered every five years, it is wonderful the development of strength that would be manifested in the national art. Nothing can equal the stimulus of an escape from old methods, a disfranchisement from routine, a competition of ancient comrades rallying in fresh societies. As each man turns a novel side of himself to the criticism of his competitors, he exercises on them the enlivening power of an innovator from some strange country; and in the clash of practice and experiment there arises that agitation of learned dust called respectfully in the profession atmosphere. It is for this reason, and not because water-color will ever express the best things of art, that the vigor of President Smillie's crusaders is so gratifying. The ninth year finds them assuming the stability of experience without losing the enthusiasm of the start, and the little indescribable signs of live earnestness cover the whole exhibition and give it a lustre. The special stimulus of the year has come in for an additional inducement to exertion, and several gentlemen have expressed their patriotism in the natural way of ordering a larger frame than they ever used before. The rooms of the Academy are accordingly filled to repletion, and there are six hundred pictures hung, while it is understood that an uncommonly large number were rejected. Three-fourths of the space are, however, occupied by the spandrels which surround the pictures; that tendency to segregation which induces the aquarellist to express the major part of his idea in blank card-board showing this year with especial distinction and exclusiveness. A little group of Spanish pictures are framed in velvet, by no wish of the Society, we are sure; they are contributed by a foreigner, and their arraying is admitted by courtesy. A colorless wall-paper has been stretched temporarily over the Academy's walls of maroon, forming a vacuum on which the delicate harmonies of each composition play with all the vigor they can. The visitor feels that the discipline is a little severe, but there is enough individual merit in the pictures to reward him for penetrating the bleakness of the galleries.

A spacious and important picture (41) forms the contribution of Mr. Tiffany. Although the intention is excellent and the execution thorough, this work betrays the amateur. Having found in Switzerland a weather-stained wooden niche employed as a boutique, the artist has eagerly seized this structure for the boundary-motive of his picture, allowing that frame within a frame whose effect is never good, and which is always shunned by a master of composition. In this receptacle is amassed a universe of tinware, to relieve the nacre-tints of which the whole picture is drowned out in a uniform contrasting shade, harmoniously treated but disagreeable. The patient pursuit of detail cannot be too highly commended; the glancing armor of the tins covers one part of the picture with subtle silvery spectrums, and there is a copper kettle which challenges the Dutch masters. Two figures, one with a wooden Punchinello profile and the other lifelike, give human interest to this careful piece of art-jewelry. "A Scrub-Race on the Western Plains" (161) is a scene sketched from nature among the manners and humors of the prairie caravan; a half-dozen of emigrants and half-breeds are exercising their clumsy horses on a fine evening after the wagons are drawn up in camp array. In this earnest picture Mr. J. D. Smillie has undertaken one of the hardest tasks ever assumed by an aquarellist, the study being most original and difficult, and the dimensions—some four feet diameter—adding unnecessarily to the awkwardness of the labor. The group of horses is certainly not a success; the drawing is heavy and anxious, and in the foreshortened cluster of racing brutes the artist has badly entangled himself in what would puzzle a Landseer—to show elegance of drawing in the treatment of the scurviest models. While the figures sink down in an anxious heaviness, the landscape, on the contrary, is diaphanous and delicate to a charm. There are, in fact, two pictures here, a group of dark and clumsy silhouettes glued to a landscape-motive as faint as a glass window, and only forced into unity by the exaggerated blackness of their shadows. Either the group or the setting would make a picture, but the two are treated under different conditions of force, finish, and light-and-shade, and the tender scenery breaks like gauze under the weight of the intruding figures. At the same time, the command of technic, especially in the broad sky and aerial distance, is remarkable. The

picture interests every artist, but it is a pedagogue's exercise, and does not get out of the school-room.

Mr. Homer sends in the usual budget. It is hard to say whether irritation or pleasure prevails in contemplating the present works of this artist, they go so nimbly up to a certain point and stop so definitively within the gaol. It may, perhaps, be acknowledged that his pictures are the only figure-pictures by an American exhibitor which are grasped with the real dramatic force Each one is perfect in telling its story: character of hero, pertinence of surroundings, degree of expression, type, age, atmosphere, time of day, strength or reticence of color—every study is a rounded sonnet sufficient to itself. But each is shouted out of breath so hastily and rawly that the prevailing impression perhaps is a sense that we are defrauded of a suggested delight. The delicacy of conception in the two negro Cupids, one of whom is catching a bee and the other is waiting, with the unutterable pregnant patience of his race, to confer a gigantic sunflower on his schoolmistress, is most enjoyable; no bronze from Herculaneum expresses more by simple posture. But the charm of competent finish is wanting. Would finish have spoiled the charm? If so, the shortcoming of Mr. Homer's art is confessed. In another picture, where a Zouave, armed with the fragrant canteen, is making friends with a little contraband, the soldier, relieved against black, is modelled with the skill of Vibert or Detaille; but the completion of this single figure seems a caprice or an accident. In a further example, some boys, bathing after sunset, are stilled in spirit by the creeping horror of the night, as they stand darkling out of the water with their spirit of larking quite beaten out of them; in another, the same boys, perhaps, are toasting in the sun after a noon bath on the sands, their dry, gritty sense of cleanness expressed in every curve of their bodies under their correct palm leaf hats. It is such a beautiful thing to tell these healthful stories with all the simplicity, all that confinement to the idea, which we find in Japanese artists, that we can only mourn the loss of the fine painter Mr. Homer would be if he could give us the developed painting instead of the sketchy impression. Mr. Eakins, whose studies of American sports seemed to complete what Mr. Homer aimed at, is regretfully missed this year. Mr. T. W. Wood contributes a study (13) of Band-master Grafulla, stark and stiff in his professional authority amid the burly splendors of his Seventh Regiment uniform, that shows an advance in the freedom and expressiveness of the countenance; this is but a fairy's gift, however, and fades away in the rapidly degenerating treatment of the rest of the painting, while his contributions 74 and 78 reveal his old elaborate poverty; in the last picture, however, there happens to be a detail, a lime-bucket treated in body-color, that is a perfect statuette or bas-relief of its original, consummate in mechanical perfection, and accurately expressive of the competence of its creator. Mr. Perry shows "Anne Hatheway's Kitchen" (79) and "A Month's Darning" (18), both in his most careful style. Mr. Edwin A. Abbey, a new contributor, sends a fine exhibition of youthful energy, a broad trowel-cast of rough distemper, the greater part of which accurately represents Shakspere's conception of "Wall," but the corners of whose spacious extent afford room for a couple of figures of true graphic merit (24): the Yankee squire of Van Buren's epoch meets the village belle in a rural coaching office; and, while modestly separating themselves to the extreme limits allowed by the composition, the personages think furtively of each other, and a sort of communication of impressions wittily fills up the blank which the artist has so considerately placed between them. Mr. Magrath's life-sized head (76) is evidently a mistake in scale, as his knowledge of the figure is not sufficient to carry him through such a task with the distinction we look for in him, even if aquerelle were ever very satisfactory in the dimensions of nature. This painter's other contributions are all beautiful, in the happy line of Irish pastoral he has struck upon. No. 47, "On the Hillside," is a peculiarly noble and serene composition, with a few well-contrasted forms of sheep relieved in shadow against a sunny distance, in an environment of foliage that just leaves a focus for the brilliant vista. The labor here, in old-fashioned legitimate water-color, is most rich and satisfying. Other pastorals, as the "Morning" (188), display the sense of open blowing weather, in the blue fleece-sprent sky and the rock transiently chilled in the shadow of a cloud, so common in English examples of cartoon art. In knack of composition, in the introduction of figures that carry on the sentiment of the scene, in trick of chiaroscuro, and in color, Mr. Magrath occupies with perfect acceptability the field of the old shepherdess-painters. He has even improved on the most of them. But he spoils, in every single instance, the sentiment of his compositions by a type of the human face which is neither rustic nor innocent, nor ignorant, but which belongs to the lower life of cities. A more fatal shipwreck in this kind, however, is made every year with unerring punctuality by Mr. Matt. Morgan. The beer-saloons undoubtedly have their artistic side, and when Mr. Morgan sketches the ruffians and men-about-town who were naturally intended for his prey, he is certain to be strong; but the waitress found in those haunts, who at present forms Mr. Morgan's sole type of feminine beauty, and whom he perseveringly introduces as a lady or an *ingénue* at every annual exhibition, is a less sincere creation. He presents her in a group of old-young, hardened-looking children, in a picture he has painted in collaboration with Mr. Bricher (14); and again as a Venetian soubrette (422). As for Mr. Bricher, his landscape is hardened up to a perfect sympathy with his colleague's figures; the woods in No. 14 are dashed in with dry, scene-painter's knack, without any love, or even detailed recollection, of the real forest; in 99, where he attempts a coast-scene, the regular line of foam seems to be imitated from Miss Bridges's thistle-seeds (150). A figure-painter of real merit is Mr. Wordsworth Thompson; but his effort this year—his first, as we believe, in water-color—is not commensurate with his powers; the "Park Shanties" are excellent material for an artist, but Mr. Thompson has applied to them only for an incident of desperate commonplace and inherent vulgarity.

Messrs. Henry Holt & Co. have nearly ready the History of the United States, in Freeman's Historical Course, with maps by Gen. Francis A. Walker; Dr. Brinton's new work on 'The Religious Sentiment'; a revised edition of his 'Myths of the New World' and 'Jonathan'; a new novel by C. C. Fraser-Tytler, author of 'Mistress Judith'; Taine's 'Ancien Régime'; 'Ersilia,' by the author of 'My Little Lady'; and General Walker's exhaustive work on 'The Wages Question' will soon follow.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 24, 1876.

The Week.

AMONG the occurrences of the week which have had a decidedly *bouffe* air, recalling the political and social life of the Grand-Duchy of Gerolstein, are the performances of General Babcock, a colonel in the regular army, and private secretary of the President of the United States, who on hearing that he was accused of complicity in frauds on the revenue, and that suspicious telegrams signed by him and addressed to him had been discovered, promised to explain everything, and then hired lawyers to use all their skill to prevent the submission of the telegrams to a jury. Another is the appearance, as the chief mouthpiece of a leading Christian church before an ecclesiastical council, of the confidential agent and attorney of James Fisk, jr., who figured so prominently in the judicial scandals of the New York Ring. Another is the request, on his arrest, of Winslow, a Methodist minister, who preached a sermon on the goodness of human nature the Sunday before he fled, after committing numerous forgeries, that "Massachusetts would remember his services in the army and navy." Another is the sworn testimony of the President of the United States that he knowingly appointed an "illiterate man," who could hardly write his name, to an office of trust and emolument, in spite of damaging charges against his character, on the ground that he had seen a "great deal of the world and people"—his experience of life having been really that of a gambler and sharper, or, in other words, the low life of a city as described in the amusing drama of "Tom and Jerry"; and that he (the President) picked him up off the sidewalk in Washington as an agreeable and suitable companion in a drive.

It is now set down as beyond doubt that the President is sufficiently displeased with Mr. Bristow on account of the prosecution of Babcock to make it tolerably certain that he will have to resign. But, as usual, it is not the President who is to blame at all; it is his "wicked partners" who have "imposed upon him," or "led him astray," or "poisoned his mind." The "wicked partners" are this time apparently persons connected with the whiskey frauds, or politicians who think these exposures are going too far for the good of the party. The President's position in all these matters seems, according to the account of some of his friends, to be that of a minor king, who is "got hold of" now by one set of evil companions and now by another, but who, if the bad men would leave him alone with clergymen and elderly persons of good repute, would really be an excellent young man. We prefer, for our part, the Oriental theory, namely, that he is in his attitude towards civil government a thorough Turk, and takes the Sultan's view of all these matters—that is, a strictly personal view. He is willing to govern well as long as his interests and caprices and friends are not interfered with. When he said, "Let no guilty man escape," he said it in the sense in which Bajazet would have said it, and intended numerous exceptions to be understood. Therefore, if any mistake has been made in pursuing Mustapha the favorite, off goes somebody's head—it may be the Chief Eunuch's or it may be that of the Minister of Finance or of the Commander-in-Chief of the army. When one sees how irresponsible and easily "poisoned" and "led astray" an elected President can be, according to General Grant's friends, one is tempted to ask what we gain by forbidding the hereditary transmission of the office. Would not a pure-minded youngster who had received it from his father and had been well-grounded in hard-money views by his mother serve our purpose as well as it is now served?

The Babcock case has reached the stage of speech-making, and Col Broadhead has begun the summing-up for the Government, followed by Messrs. Storrs and Porter for the accused. The case for the prosecution, which is admirably presented in the *Tribune* of the 23d, consists chiefly of proof that Babcock did what he could to further the interests of the whiskey-conspirators at Washington; but the strongest point in it may be said to be the total failure of the defence to furnish any explanation of the telegraphing between St. Louis and Washington consistent with the theory of innocence. Colonel Broadhead, in his speech, does not appear to have been much hampered by recollections of the fate of Mr. Henderson. He referred to the President as having "stepped down from his high position to interfere with the duties of one of the Department officers." This remark created a sensation in court, and was substantially what Henderson was removed for saying. The President's deposition in favor of Babcock consists mainly of an endorsement of his character, and throws some light besides on his own system of appointments.

Mr. Edwards Pierrepont, the Attorney-General, recently sent a circular to the District-Attorneys warning them in so many words that hereafter punishment would be meted out to all persons engaged in the whiskey frauds, informers included. As it is mainly through the informers that any convictions have been procured, the press not unnaturally treated the circular as an indication that the Government was growing tired of the prosecutions and wished to have an end of them, and the report was spread that the circular had been written by the President's direction, and that he had chidden the Attorney-General for not making it stronger. Mr. Pierrepont now writes to the *Herald*, not denying that the President directed the letter to be sent, but that he was dissatisfied because it was not stronger. It can hardly be said that this puts the matter in a much better light, and it is one of the little incidents which, though possibly harmless and capable of satisfactory explanation, help to deepen the popular impression that the Administration would like to let the "whiskey thieves" run, and thank God it was rid of such knaves. Mr. Charles Nordhoff, the Washington correspondent of that paper, writes to the *Herald*, under his own signature, a reply to the Attorney-General affirming positively that the latter, when spoken to about the letter by the "better class of lawyers," did say that it was written by the direction of the President, who wished it to be stronger; that the letter was first published by the Washington correspondent of the Chicago *Times*, and read in that city, where heavy whiskey cases are pending, like a warning to informers not to testify. Mr. Nordhoff adds that there is a profound belief in Washington among "people who love justice and hate mystery" that Congress ought to make a thorough examination of the proceedings against the whiskey frauds.

The Advisory Council has been sitting in Brooklyn during the week and getting the evidence relating to the points submitted to them by a sort of desultory examination of witnesses, including Mrs. Moulton's counsel, Mr. Van Cott, and Mr. Bowen, apparently in a spirit of great fairness. Mr. Bowen explained the contradiction between his opinion of Mr. Beecher now and that expressed in the Tripartite Agreement by saying that when he signed the agreement, although he knew of his wickedness, he thought he had "reformed," and therefore was not unworthy of "friendship, confidence, and Christian fellowship." Mr. Beecher has taken occasion twice during the proceedings to challenge the world to bring forward charges against him, and once, after appealing to any angels there might be of unusual "prescience and omniscience" to reveal the truth about him, called on God to do the same thing—a performance which brought down the tumultuous applause of the galleries, but, of course, could have no other results. The call for a

Council forwarded by the Andover church has been published, and is a sensible and well-drawn document, containing the reasons for further enquiry with which everybody is familiar, but it has apparently not been well received by Plymouth Church, the managers of which, by frequent protrusions of the "main question" into the proceedings of the Council now sitting, are apparently desirous of giving its finding the air of a judgment on the whole case. It looks more and more as if the ordeal of fire or of water would have finally to be resorted to. The importance the church appears to attach to Mr. Beecher's appeals to Almighty God to make known his innocence, looks as if they thought the divine interposition might be visibly secured by some simple process.

Both Houses of Congress have passed and the President has signed a joint resolution making the 22d of February of the present year a national holiday. Besides this the Senate has refused, by 33 to 30, to take up Pinchback's claim, a vote which will, it is supposed, postpone the consideration of his case for a good while, and has voted to concur in the District of Columbia 3.65 bond Conference Committee report. This is the second conference report made on the subject, the first having been recommitted, and the questions involved in the District of Columbia dispute are becoming somewhat "mixed." The principal trouble is with "Boss" Shepherd's Board of Audit, which furnishes the machinery for the manufacture of the bonds, and which we believe is hard at work auditing while the debate is going on. It is obvious that there can be no settlement of the matter till this process is stopped, and so the Boss and his friends have now introduced the "workingman" on the scene, and represent that unless a little more auditing is done, certain claims which the workingman has against the District cannot be paid. It seems from the debate that the workingman in the District is a peculiar character, and differs a good deal from workingmen elsewhere. Generally speaking, the workingman when he is not paid strikes work until he is paid; but in the District it seems he keeps patiently toiling away, and, feeling that he is worthy of his hire, prefers to fund it in "claims" that he may afterwards convert them into 3.65 bonds; and so if these claims cannot be audited he will be defrauded of his pay. The Senate has also passed the House bill extending the time for filing *Alabama* claims. The House, by a vote of 143 to 102, has passed the act to reorganize the judiciary substantially as it came from the hands of the Committee, debate being apparently left entirely to the Senate. Mr. Cox has been made speaker *pro tem.* in the absence, on account of bad health, of Mr. Kerr.

The printing of Congressional speeches—a subject to which we called attention in the *Nation* a fortnight ago—has been brought up by Senator Anthony. He thinks that the *Record*, instead of containing much that is never said in Congress, and omitting much that is said, ought to be an exact transcript of Congressional proceedings. As an illustration of the abuses of the present system, he told a story of a member of the House who some years ago informed that body that he had prepared a "few remarks" on the duty of recognizing Cuban belligerency, but as he did not wish to trouble the House with them, he asked for leave to print. This was given him, when it was discovered that the speech, instead of being about Cuba, was "a shameful attack on an honored member of the Senate" not long dead. The House ordered that it should be excluded from the official edition of the *Globe;* but the mischief was already accomplished through the regular daily edition. We heartily agree with what Mr. Anthony says. There are but two ways, however, to prevent such scandals—either by an elevation of the general tone of Congressional opinion, or by fine and imprisonment. Any wilful tampering with official Government records, no matter by whom done, is a crime against the public, and it is high time that members of Congress who do such things should meet the same punishment that is provided for any one who falsifies any of the Department records.

Mr. W. D. Kelley has replied to Mr. Blaine on behalf of the inflationists—who, he says, number one million of Republican voters—who were "wounded and grieved" by Mr. Blaine's speech. It is very difficult to make a précis of Mr. Kelley's speech, for reasons which it would not be polite to mention. The best we can do is to say that he rebukes Blaine for saying or insinuating that the issue of the legal-tenders was unconstitutional; maintains that the volume of the paper currency had no effect on the price of gold or other commodities; proposes that the Government should substitute its own notes for those of the national banks; acknowledges that the crisis of 1873 was caused by an undue expansion of credit, but alleges that this undue expansion was the result of previous undue contraction of the currency; thinks Blaine's citation of the case of California very unfortunate for him, as her prosperity is not due to her coin but to her great natural wealth, and denounces her as a poor place for men with small means; refers to the monetary condition of the country after the Revolution as a sad illustration of the consequences of the failure of the Government to issue paper-money; declares the maintenance of a monetary system of which gold shall be the basis impossible anywhere except in France, England, and Germany, which levy tribute on other nations in the shape of interest on bonds; and draws a dismal picture of the future unless we get out more paper-money. Of Mr. Blaine's speech he took a generally low view, declaring "his allegations loose and often unfounded, his deductions illogical and inconsequential, and his conclusions untenable." We notice that some hard-money papers have begun energetically to refute the judge, but they may save themselves the trouble. They might as well try to refute a prima-donna in an opera.

The annual report of the Massachusetts Railroad Commissioners contains a curious exposure of railroad "accounts." As the matter stands now, every company lays down its own rules as to what it shall charge to construction and what to current expenses, and these rules are not deduced from any general principle, but depend to a great extent on whether the company wishes to leave a large or a small balance in the way of net earnings. As an illustration of this, they refer to the substitution of steel for iron rails—a process now going on all over the country. If two corporations are doing this, one of which is embarrassed and desires to increase its apparent income, while the other is pursuing a conservative course and improving the value of its property, they will adopt rules for their accounts diametrically opposed to each other. The embarrassed company will so manage that the whole outlay is charged to construction, while the conservative company will meet the expense from net earnings, and the old iron will then be put down in the one case as so much material on hand required for use, in the other as so much money earned by the operation. So it is also with regard to rolling-stock; and on the books of the Massachusetts companies locomotives vary in cost from $2,507 to $12,565, passenger cars from $96 to $4,500, and freight cars from $57 to $868. It is from accounts kept in this way that stockholders and the public derive their only knowledge of the condition of the corporations, and one of the most urgent reforms now demanding attention is, as the Massachusetts Commissioners say, the introduction of a uniform system of accounts, the adoption of which shall be made compulsory upon all roads.

The past week witnessed the beginning of specie exports on a large scale, the steamers for Liverpool and the Continent having taken out $2,331,946 specie, of which about $2,000,000 was gold coin. Since the opening of the year specie shipments have several times seemed to be imminent, but when exchange advanced to the shipping point an unexpected supply each time appeared, and calculations that gold would go were proved to be erroneous. The explanation of this is that a large amount of the bills made against the heavy railroad-bond negotiations in London at the beginning of the year were bought on speculation by brokers, who held the bills until the market became strong and then sold them at high prices,

selling only such amounts as could be sold at about specie shipping rates. That this supply has been exhausted the course of the markets during the week has shown. When so large an amount as £250,000 demand bills was wanted by a prominent banking-house, it could not be got at rates below the point at which they could remit gold. Accordingly, $1,250,000 gold was sent by this house, which started the general movement. Subsequently exchange advanced, so that it became profitable for bankers to engage in shipping gold just as they would ship cotton, breadstuffs, or securities, and the week closed with the market in this condition. The foreign trade of New York continues in excess of last year, the imports, merchandise and dry goods, last week having amounted, at even the low prices ruling, to $9,018,213, against $7,974,697 last year. The exports for the week were $3,440,295, against $3,952,584 last year. The exports from New York and the whole country have been reduced in the past few weeks by the falling-off in cotton shipments, which has been due to the fact that cotton has ruled in our markets above the price in Liverpool.

The New York banks increased their loans during the week about $1,500,000, although losing $1,200,000 in surplus reserve; the latter, however, still amounts to $14,880,000, against about $8,000,000 last year. There is, therefore, a large margin for gold shipments without disturbance to the loan market. The most notable event in relation to Stock-Exchange affairs has been the passage by the Wisconsin Legislature of the Vance Bill, which materially modifies the notorious Potter Act. The enactment of the bill shows such a change in public sentiment in that State respecting railroads, that the bonds of these roads and their shares have been bought with more confidence, and there has been a large rise in the price of each. A feature of the week has been the advance in United States bonds, which, for several classes, have sold at the highest price on record. The gold price of $100 greenbacks has ranged during the week between $88 09 and $87 71.

The long-expected debate on the Suez Canal purchase opened in the English House of Commons on Monday, though nothing very positive in the way of comment can be based on the telegraphic report of the debate. The Opposition, which is led on this occasion by Gladstone, seems to rely on the commercial uselessness of the purchase, inasmuch as it only gives England ten votes, combined with the loss of the position of dignified neutrality which it entails and which England has so long held. But the summary of Disraeli's reply seems to indicate a serious difference of opinion in the Cabinet as to the end and aim of the purchase; for Lord Derby, in a recent speech on the subject at a public meeting, distinctly laid it down, and the diplomatic correspondence seemed to corroborate what he said, that the object of the purchase was the care and improvement of the Canal for the general benefit, while Mr. Disraeli, if the telegraphic summary of his speech is to be trusted, lauds it as a political measure calculated to strengthen the empire. There is little doubt that this is the view which makes the purchase most acceptable to the British public.

The result of the Senatorial elections in France seems to give great satisfaction to all moderate men, and to be likely to be regarded by the country at large as a guarantee of prolonged stability. M. Buffet, who might be called a Conservative Irreconcilable, has been defeated in eastern France and M. Thiers returned, and M. Louis Blanc, one of the most rabid of Republicans, has been defeated in Paris even, and M. Freycinet, Gambetta's Minister of War, been returned, which is regarded as a signal vindication of his new policy of moderation. He has for the last year or two been endeavoring to prove to the country, and especially the timid country people, that republicanism was not the enemy of order or property; but many doubted whether he would be able to carry the politicians of his own party with him in his new programme. He has apparently succeeded, and if he has, there is little chance that even in 1880 the present constitution will undergo any radical change. Victor Hugo has been elected in Paris with difficulty, which indicates a great change in popular sentiment in the direction of sober-mindedness.

The elections for the French Assembly appear to have resulted as fortunately for the new constitution and for the Conservative Republicans as those for the Senate, though the former are by direct universal suffrage. In the interval the Bonapartists have exposed themselves to some ridicule by denouncing election by two degrees, and glorifying universal suffrage pure and simple, because in the last election they seem to have been as signally worsted as in the first. The returns received of the Assembly vote appear to indicate that the combined Republicans, both Radical and Conservative, have a clear majority, while the pure Radicals, or Reds, are nowhere. The Bonapartists, all told, are reported as numbering only 59 out of 395 elected candidates. M. Buffet has been again defeated in the four districts in which he was put up, and has, as was quite proper, resigned. It is now to be hoped that Marshal MacMahon will form a new ministry before the new legislature meets, so as to prevent the carrying into it of the old conflicts and bitterness. The Bonapartists are trying to console themselves by the reflection that the election of so many Radicals will lead to excesses, and thus, as before, help the cause of the Empire. The whole result—which is due, first of all, to prolonged and peaceful discussion under the guarantees for public order which Marshal MacMahon has honestly and faithfully supplied; and, secondly, to the change of tactics on the part of Gambetta—ought to, and we hope will, put to the blush the Radical blatherskites both in this country and England who have for the last five years been abusing the late Assembly for not at once proclaiming the Republic with tumultuous applause. In other words, they were furious because the French did not commit the folly they have so often committed before. The present Republic actually owes its existence, in fact, to the steady, peaceful resistance of the ultra conservatives, because it forced Gambetta and his following into reflection, and led to their abandoning the policy of frantic hostility to all conservatism with which they began their political career after the war. As soon as he got into a rational frame of mind, and a constitution had been adopted, and all was ready for a sober-minded election, the Assembly dissolved.

The state of the Turkish question is now this: Turkey has accepted Count Andrássy's Note on all the Powers giving in their adhesion to it, though she probably would have refused had England held aloof. The Note, which has been published, asks for (1) full religious liberty, (2) the abolition of the system of farming the revenue, (3) the passage, or rather issue, of a law providing that the direct taxes levied in Bosnia and Herzegovina shall be applied to the uses of those provinces, and shall not be turned into the imperial treasury, and finally (4), the formation of a Commission composed of an equal number of Christians and Mussulmans, to see to the carrying out of the reforms. It also asks for, but does not make it a *sine quâ non*, some effort on the part of the Government to ameliorate the condition of the Christian population of these provinces by the offer of facilities for acquiring possession in fee of waste or crown lands, and urges the prompt fulfilment of the promises of the firmans of the 2d of October and 12th of December, providing for the independence of the judges, the establishment of provincial councils elected directly by the inhabitants, the reform of the police and of the system of forced labor on the public works, and the reduction of the tax levied in lieu of military service. The Note dwells strongly on the uselessness of further promises or "programmes," and of laying down any further general principles; this time there must be execution, for, as Count Andrássy points out, the insurgents pay no further attention to firmans. There is a report, though it is not well authenticated, that there exists a secret understanding, suggested by England, that in case there is any failure on the part of the Porte in carrying out these reforms, or on the part of the insurgents in accepting, the provinces shall be occupied by Austrian troops in the spring until order is fully restored.

MR. BRISTOW'S DUTY.

WE are unable to say how much truth there is in the reports of dissensions between the President and Mr. Bristow arising out of the whiskey prosecutions, but it is certain that they grow stronger every day and take more shape and consistency, and that they derive a certain corroborative force from such incidents as the Attorney-General's letter withdrawing the promise of impunity to informers which has really secured most of the recent convictions for frauds against the revenue. The report, for instance, that if Mustapha the Vizier is acquitted at St. Louis, the Sultan will cut off Mr. Bristow's head for pushing his friend so hard, is now scarcely denied, and finds a certain *à priori* support in the Sultan's character and official history. What we have to fear now is that Mr. Bristow may be sufficiently disgusted, or made sufficiently uncomfortable, to cause him to resign, and thus save the President the responsibility of dismissing him. We sincerely trust that he will not in any moment of weakness or irritation be betrayed into any such want of fidelity to the public interests as this would be. One of the misfortunes of General Grant's Administration has been the exceeding unwillingness of the better class of men whom he has from time to time put into office to find fault with him publicly, or confess publicly that they have had anything to complain of at his hands. This has been due in part to the halo with which his military career surrounded him, and in part to the horror which every man in political life entertains of being considered "a sorehead." When Mr. Cox and Mr. Curtis, for instance, had to resign in consequence of his breach of faith towards them, they both treated their retirement as if nothing had happened to diminish in the least their admiration of him, or their confidence in his administration. They passed before the Presidential chair carrying their own heads in the baskets and crying, "Mortui te salutamus!" The result was of course to retard or prevent the educating influence of experience on the President's mind. He came into office without any political training whatever, and apparently without much interest in civil affairs, and whatever he has learned has been through observation of the consequences of his own acts. But this natural and healthy process of enlightenment some of the very best men in the Republican party have done their utmost to hinder, by protesting steadily, year by year, that the hero of Appomattox Court House either never did anything wrong or did no wrong of any consequence. When he turned a good man out of office the good man said he was sorry, but perhaps on the whole it was all for the best. When he put a bad man into office, the good men said they were sorry again, but did not see how, under all the circumstances, the President could have done anything else. When he abandoned a reform, he was assured that he had done his mortal best; that "the politicians" were too strong for him; and that the People must rise against the Politicians, and then the President would reform with all the efficiency and dexterity of a steam-engine. This went on so long that General Grant very naturally fell into the way of thinking—to which we are all so prone, and against which religion and law have had so long and hard a fight—that whatever he chose to do was pretty sure to be "about right." All his bad tendencies were stimulated by flattery and apology, all his good ones repressed by the entire absence of any spirit of exaction or criticism on the part of the only portion of the public about whose opinion he cared anything. Finally, he fell into open, defiant support of corruption, as in Shepherd's and Delano's cases, when he met the moral indignation of the country with endorsements worthy in their sullen contempt of public opinion, of the Czar Nicholas or the Sultan. It is rumored, and it is easy to believe, that he does not see to this hour what there is wrong in Schenck's case, and wonders what the infernal newspapers are making such a fuss about.

The reason why characters like his succeed in military life and fail in civil life is easy to see. In the field there is no way of covering up mistakes—the dullest man is taught that the subtle adulation of friends or followers will avail him nothing. The enemy is an awful angel with a flaming sword, who stands guard over him night and day, and makes swift destruction the penalty of a bad appointment or a careless move or a foolish delay. This tremendous discipline rouses the most sluggish natures into watchfulness and activity, sharpens their insight into character, and deepens their sense of responsibility. In political life there is no such swift test of temper and capacity, and the penalty of a thousand faults and follies may be indefinitely postponed. The greatest need of the present Administration is for somebody who has earned the attention of the country to say boldly, "This is wrong and that is dangerous, and I cannot approve of it, but I will not resign." Some such person was needed in the Treasury when the Puritan Boutwell acknowledged to the Missouri delegation that MacDonald was probably the shiftless gambler and blackleg that they said he was, but that, nevertheless, he would have to appoint him. Some such person is needed now to give the vast amount of aimless and unorganized reprobation there is in the air something on which to solidify and make itself felt. None of the men whom General Grant has by accident or design put in high places has yet displayed so much fitness to be the embodiment of this floating protest against evil as Mr. Bristow has. He has shown himself thus far more nearly the minister of a constitutional state than any one else with whom the President has had to deal. His course has appealed in a most striking way to the better sense of the country, and has given strong expression to the widespread and deep popular desire for a government by law and not by men, for the application to public affairs of rational methods. The growth of his popularity, therefore, considering that he was comparatively little known when he took office, that he seldom or never makes a speech, and that he has no fame or standing in the fields of political intrigue, is perhaps one of the most hopeful signs of the present day. The duty of the country towards such a man is first of all to make him understand that it appreciates such services as his, and that, in or out of office, he will not lose his hold on its remembrance. His duty towards the country, on the other hand, is to stay in whatever post he is able to render most service until he is thrust out of it, and when he leaves it to give a frank and candid account of his removal without whitewashing or fear of "hurting the party." The party is too far gone to be saved or helped by any concealment, or evasion, or bearing of other people's burdens. The time has come for the President to face openly the responsibility of his own acts, without any distribution of the blame among his "wicked partners." The interests of public morality require that things should be at last set squarely before the public eye without varnish or drapery.

THE BANKRUPTCY SEE-SAW.

THE repeal of the Bankrupt Act in the House by a large majority, practically without any debate, brings us once more face to face with the old question, Is it possible to have any uniform and settled law of insolvency in this country? It cannot be denied that the subject is an important one—more important perhaps in a new, flourishing, enterprising, and speculating country than in any other. When fortunes are made and lost with the rapidity that marks our trade, it would seem as if one of the first things to be guarded against was any fluctuation in the guarantees to creditors against repudiation of obligations. So we should say that in such a country, one of the first things to be guarded against would be any fluctuation in the measure of value. Yet we know by experience that both with regard to the currency and the laws affecting insolvency, there has been no pretence of stability since the foundation of the government. The power to coin money given to Congress has not preserved us from issues of every species of currency known to man, and the power to frame a uniform law on the subject of bankruptcy has not preserved us from every fluctuation in the relation between creditor and debtor that the ingenuity of either could devise. Congress has three times, in 1800, 1841, and 1867, exercised its power, and twice, after a very short experiment, abandoned the attempt.

The third time the effort has lasted longer, and the law has remained unrepealed, though it has been amended, till the present time. In the intervals during the absence of a bankrupt law, there have been as many different laws governing insolvency as there are States; and when we say that in several of them the law permits preferences, or in other words permits debtors to determine what debts they will pay in full, and what they will not pay at all, it will be seen that in the absence of a national bankrupt law the condition of affairs has been little better than chaos.

As the House of Representatives has declined to discuss the subject, we are thrown back for a determination of the reasons advanced for the repeal of the act upon the memorial of the petitioners for it. It appears from this document that the objections to the act are that in practice "it does not prevent fraudulent preferences," but, from offering the temptation of a possible discharge without payment in full, induces dishonest persons "to contract large debts," and then seek a discharge on a compromise—a process which the petitioners say they "regret to represent" is "often facilitated by the collusion of creditors and dishonest attorneys." Second, although the act was intended to effect a cheap and speedy distribution of the bankrupt's effects, in practice, dividends to creditors are "exceedingly small" and the payment long delayed, "careful estimates" revealing the fact that the average percentage before the passage of this act was about thirty-five per cent., while since its passage this average has been reduced to ten or twelve. The third reason is that

"The practical effect of the bankrupt law has been to destroy confidence on the part of capitalists and damage the credit system. As a natural consequence, capital accumulates in the money centres, it stagnates there, causing paralysis in nearly all the great productive industries of the country. We regard the operations of this law as one of the leading causes of the prostration and embarrassment that now depress trade, and it is susceptible of demonstration that this depression and embarrassment commenced with the passage of the Bankrupt Act in 1867."

These, after nearly ten years' experience of the working of the act, are the only reasons that the opponents of the law have been able to bring forward, with the exception of a passage contained in the President's message of two years ago, in which he attacked the provisions then in force as to involuntary bankruptcy, on the ground that they worked injustice to many debtors who, otherwise able and willing to meet their obligations, found themselves forced into bankruptcy by "obdurate creditors," on account of a merely temporary inability to liquidate, which he declared was owing generally to the "extraordinary scarcity of money."

Now, all these arguments may be divided into two classes: they either amount to saying that the bankrupt law should be repealed because "obdurate creditors" are disagreeable people to have about one, or that there is some defect in the working of the act. The suggestion of the petitioners that the panic of 1873 and the consequent depression from which we are still suffering were caused by the Bankrupt Act we do not propose to discuss, because it does not seem to be worth discussing; the delays complained of, the "dishonest attorneys," the "fraudulent preferences," the small dividends, are all defects in the working details of the law, and not arguments for its total repeal. The process of winding up an estate is exposed to all these evils, whether it is done by State or United States machinery. The process consists of the appointment of a receiver or assignee, and the collection by him of all the assets, and the distribution of the proceeds among the creditors under the supervision of a court of law. Under either system there will be "dishonest attorneys," attempts at fraudulent preferences, and, if the system is badly administered, delays and small dividends. The remedy for these evils is not oscillating backwards and forwards from one system to another, but the improvement of the machinery for the administration of the act. No one will say that, taking the whole of the country together, the State machinery for the settlement of estates is better or more honestly managed than the judicial resources of the General Government, and the conclusive argument is that under the latter there is a uniform system, while under the former there is no system whatever.

It ought not to be forgotten, too, that as a general rule the smallness of dividends from insolvent estates depends far more upon the value of the assets than it does upon the machinery for winding up. The smallness of dividends by which most creditors are now struck, is the result generally of insufficient enquiry into the basis of credit on which they have advanced money. The mania for railroad speculation which led to the panic of 1873 took possession of all classes of the community, and the result was that vast amounts of capital were locked up in enterprises which can make no returns for years, which in many cases will never make any returns at all. The men who obtained all this money had for the real basis of their credit nothing but the prospects of these enterprises, and, that gone, there are naturally but small dividends among the creditors. The remedy for this is of course circumspection and prudence, and a stern resolve to lend money to "none but good men," not the repeal of the Bankrupt Act. This we certainly hope will not be done without a careful examination by the Senate into the facts connected with the administration of the act. After succeeding for the first time in the history of the country in keeping a bankrupt act on the statute-book for a number of years, it would seem very much like a return to barbarism to confess by repealing it that the Government cannot administer it. We do not by any means intend to say that the act is now satisfactory. Amendments have been engrafted upon the original act which have changed its character. But all this is a question of detail. The main thing is that by a bankrupt act everything can be done that can be accomplished by any other means; and that while a national bankrupt act properly administered is uniform and just, all others are local, and therefore necessarily unjust.

Looking back at the legislation on this subject (as on many others in which the general public is not deeply interested—the tariff, for instance), one can trace in the action of Congress the alternate triumphs and defeats of particular classes of the community as they gain or decline in strength. After a commercial crisis a large body of persons is apt to be left burdened with heavy debts which they see no chance of clearing off, and they accordingly bring a powerful pressure to bear on Congress to procure the passage of a bankrupt act, and succeed. The act then works vigorously for a few years, until "the debtor class" is gradually weakened by the release of all the big debtors. This fact "the creditor class" speedily perceives, and it concentrates its forces on the laggards and weak men who have not already got through, and are still only threatened with insolvency, routs them in Washington, and gets the act repealed. On the subject of the controversy Congress itself has no policy or principles, and the general public, which neither owes much nor has much due to it, pays little heed to it. The only persons, in fact, who give the matter any careful attention are the lawyers in the Senate, and we trust they will not now be found wanting.

THE OPENING OF PARLIAMENT.

London, February 1, 1876.

THIS day week Parliament is to be opened with unusual pomp. The Queen is to be present in person—the first time for many years. The Princess of Wales, who has been spending a happy six weeks amid the simple pleasures of her old Danish home, has been summoned in hot haste from Copenhagen to attend her mother-in-law. How she must hate Mr. Disraeli for having curtailed her pleasant holiday by persuading her Majesty to take part in the ceremonial. The royal robes are, it is confidently stated by several of those Jenkinses of the press (I do not mean the author of 'Ginx's Baby') who know or profess to know all the backstairs secrets of the Court, to be placed theatrically on the throne; and the whole operation of opening Parliament is to be performed in the best possible style, under the management of the First Lord of the Treasury and the Lord High Chamberlain, who will do the parts of masters of the ceremonies with their accustomed grace. The House of Lords will, it is said, be crowded. The Peeresses' Gallery will be thronged by all the beauty and millinery of the land. The Lord Chamberlain's Office is already besieged

by applicants for tickets of admission, and the eight cream-colored horses who draw the royal carriage from Buckingham Palace to Westminster are being duly prepared—so far as carrots and hot stables can prepare them—to show the sleekest and shiniest coats next Tuesday that ever have been seen. These dazzling arrangements are to be the prelude of a brilliant season; and, so far as we can see at present, there is nothing to mar the effect. Mercantile people are perhaps not quite so rich as they were two or three years ago, but the fluctuations of trade do not, to any great extent, disturb the gaieties of the season when the landed aristocracy and their ladies set themselves to do it well. The season is not dependent on the commercial classes. They, for the most part, live their own lives apart from the lives of what fashionable novelists call "real people." A few City people hang on to the skirts of the "real people," and struggle and jostle to be presented, and to be asked to Court balls and royal garden-parties at Chiswick. But these individuals are not numerous, neither are they respected. Some of them who cut a dash two years ago may fail to put in an appearance this year, being under the necessity of economizing elsewhere; but the great flood of this year's season will rise and fall all the same without them, until it spends itself on the lee-shore of boredom about the dog-days in the middle of July.

If the prospects of the social season are thus bright and hopeful, what, you may ask, are the prospects of the Parliamentary season? And, however willing I might be to indulge in sinister auguries, I cannot, if I am to speak the truth, gratify my natural predilections. The Government have made many blunders, some trivial, some serious, some grave, but nevertheless they are, as things be, impregnable. The main points in the Queen's Speech will probably be the state of Turkey; our transactions with Egypt; the condition of the army; and the visit of the Prince of Wales to India. A fancy fly of insignificant size will likely be thrown over Ireland in a half-hearted manner, and Scotland will be propitiated in her weak place, education, by the promise of a University Commission, though, if the leading Scotch papers are to be trusted—and they are generally well informed—the said commission is already constituted or packed with a lot of obsolete Tories who have pulled the Tory wires in Edinburgh for upwards of a quarter of a century. And what will the Opposition have to say to these impressive subjects? Lord Granville and Lord Hartington have issued circulars to their followers—even, I am credibly informed, to the Home-Rulers, or at least to the less obnoxious of that party—and have invited them to be in their places when the address is moved. There is no significance in this. The recognized leaders of the Opposition in both Houses issue their circulars as a formal matter every year. When real fighting is meant, the custom is to move an amendment on the address and notify that in the circulars of the leaders. There is no mention of any proposal of this kind, and, so far as I have heard, there has been no special circular sent out by the Opposition "whip"—a process always followed when a critical division is anticipated. We may, therefore, take it for granted that the Opposition intend to acquiesce in the general character of the Government transactions and proposals, and go on, as they did last year, riding a waiting race. They will demand information as to the decision of the Cabinet on the Andrássy note—perhaps the most momentous step taken by a British Cabinet since the declaration of war against Russia two-and-twenty years ago. Very likely the Cabinet have done wisely in backing up the Austrian note, but, so far as the ignorant outside public can judge, it would appear that we have gratuitously impaled ourselves upon one of the horns of a dilemma. If this note means disintegration of Turkey, we reverse our traditional policy, and lend our influence and support to further the Russian traditional policy against which we have protested and fought. If the note means, as it professes to mean, the maintenance of the *status quo*, why do we join in maintaining it in Turkey and proceed to destroy it in Egypt? Because, if the purchase of the Suez Canal means anything beyond a dramatic freak played off to gratify Baron Rothschild and dazzle the Philistines, it means that we are ready to let Turkey take her chance provided we keep our hold on Egypt; and what is that except encouraging the piecemeal disintegration of the Turkish Empire?

I am far from saying that the latter policy is an unwise policy. But let us be consistent if we adopt it. The fact is, this Egyptian business must be sifted to the bottom. The Government has seen fit to mix this nation up in what at best promises to be a dirty financial mess, and the Opposition must take care that England's good name is not sullied. Whether the stock-jobbing operation has been prudent or the reverse, it has tended to produce a low tone both in the press and on the Stock Exchange, and, if report be true, among people who ought not to combine knowledge of state secrets with dealings in Egyptian securities. The wild gambling in these stocks and the dishonest propagation of false rumors which have discredited the commercial morality of the country during the last six weeks, are in themselves a condemnation of the Government, unless they can show that real and tangible good will come out of all this dirty scramble. The dramatic incidents of the purchase, and the subsequent despatch of a member of the Government to see if it was sound—a curious proceeding at best, giving a heavy cheque to a dealer for a doubtful horse, and then sending a veterinary surgeon to examine him—captivated the imagination of the writers of leading articles for the London papers, and had, I am given to understand, a favorable effect upon Continental politicians. So far, so good. But what we wish to get at is how much of the success of this incident is due to imagination and how much to reality. "The divine principle of Fluke, which directs a good half of mundane affairs," may have operated favorably towards the Government in directing them to make a *coup d'état* when they merely meant a costly *coup de théâtre*, and every one in England will be pleased if it should turn out to be so. But the Government will have to satisfy the House of Commons that the nation gets something tangible for its four millions; that Mr. Cave's report upon the finances of Egypt shows that we have some prospect of receiving the annual income of our money; and that the road to India is made more secure than it was before we parted with our money, and allowed the Queen's name to be dragged up and down every stock exchange in Europe.

I see one obvious advantage to the world in the purchase of these shares by a wealthy country, and that is that the Canal is more likely than it was to be improved and kept in order, and so made more available for traffic, than heretofore. But this reasoning would lead to the necessity of taking the Canal out of the hands of private trading companies and putting it under an international commission, like the mouth of the Danube. If this is the policy of the Government, I can understand how the purchase has had a favorable effect upon Continental politicians. But this policy implies neutralization in time of war. I can hardly believe that the representatives of the British nation, or their constituencies, are so enlightened and cosmopolitan as to hail with delight the expenditure of many millions of money in bringing about an agency, the *raison d'être* of which is to prohibit the transmission of British arms and troops and contraband-of-war through the Suez Canal, if this nation should unhappily be at war with (say) Russia on the Indian frontier. If this should be brought about by a Tory Government—which has always gloried in its national as distinguished from its cosmopolitan conduct of affairs—I, as a man of peace and a staunch supporter of the *Alabama* arbitration and every transaction of the kind, shall rejoice. But I shall begin to think that Dr. Cumming is right after all when he prophesies that the lion and the lamb are about to lie down together for eternity, and that the thousand years of peace are now commencing, at the very moment when there are seven million armed men in Europe, and that eminent Churchman, our Secretary of State for War, is preparing to come to Parliament with gigantic army estimates, in order to bribe the British vagrant to enlist in the British army and remain there when he has enlisted.

The other matters in the Queen's Speech will be passed over lightly. The Opposition will criticise with some severity the publication of the now notorious slave circulars, and the maladministration at the Admiralty, and they will condemn any serious increase of public expenditure, but it is unlikely that any hostile divisions will take place on this head before the introduction of the budget. Finance and jobbery always wreck Tory Administrations in this country, and the present Administration do not promise to be exceptions to the rule. Their recent appointments have not been guided by a single eye to the public service, and it is not improbable that something may be heard of more than one of these when the salaries of the office come to be voted. They have already in two short years squandered the surplus millions which Mr. Gladstone's Government left in the Exchequer, and are, it is said, going to ask for more. Some additional estimates for the Prince of Wales's expedition to India may be required, and it is unlikely that the organized portion of the Opposition will demur. But there will be some nasty things said about the elephants and buffaloes at whose destruction the Prince assisted, by some of the wilder spirits below the gangway. It would not be in human nature if a platformistic orator or two did not make radical capital out of the sufferings of the poor brutes.

There will be a good deal of lively sparring round about these questions at the beginning of the session, but it will all be with the gloves on. The first real fight will be upon the Burials Bill—a dead horse, it was thought this time last year, but proved to be all alive and vigorously kicking. It is not impossible that the Government may find themselves in a minority in this division. Under any circumstances, the Opposition will run them very

close. The Government have all the bigotry and all the backing of the clergy on their side, and that is difficult to upset. But common-sense and justice are both so clearly against them that, if not this year then next, they must give in. Still, they enter on the session very strong. The Opposition have found no weak point in their armor yet, though they too are stronger than they were. It will be an interesting session, and more lively than its immediate predecessors; but, unless something unexpected turns up, it is unlikely that it will lead to serious change.

LAGRANGE'S REGISTER.

PARIS, January 28, 1876.

AMONG the men who have honored the profession of actor can be cited Lagrange, who was the favorite pupil of Molière, and who published, after the death of Molière, the first complete edition of his works. The archives of the Théâtre Français contain a very valuable manuscript, called the 'Register of Lagrange,' which the administrators of this theatre have just published. It is a curious monument of the history of the French stage. You will find in it an exact account of all the play-bills of the famous "Troupe de Molière" from 1635 to 1685, with the amount of the gross receipts and of the sum which was left for the actors after all the expenses were paid.

Lagrange was probably born in 1639. He was made an orphan at an early age, and with his sister and brother was robbed by his legal *tuteur*. He became a comedian, as did his brother Achille. He changed his family name of Varlet into the name of Lagrange, as was then, and is even often now, the fashion for actors. He made his début in some of those companies which Scarron has painted in his 'Roman Comique,' and which travelled in the provinces. Molière himself had first played and written plays for the provinces. The 'Etourdi' was first given at Lyons in 1655; the 'Dépit Amoureux' at Béziers in 1656. When did Lagrange meet Molière? This point is still a mystery. We only know that he made his début in Paris in Molière's troupe at the time when it played at the theatre called the Petit-Bourbon, six months after Molière had established himself in it. His 'Register' was begun immediately, and therefore it may be said that it gives almost the whole history of Molière's representations.

Lagrange played at first what we now call the *jeune premier*. He became the personification of youth, of love, of elegance; but at an early age Molière saw in him that type which the seventeenth century baptized as the *honnête homme*—a phrase which is not well translated by "honest man," as honesty is only one of its characteristics. The *honnête homme* whom you find in almost all the plays of Molière is the sensible man of the world, who is wise, but who has nothing *rébarbative* in his wisdom, the man of common-sense, who is full of indulgence for all the follies of mankind, the safe man and good friend. It may be that Lagrange, who had received a good education, gave to Molière many traits of this type, as he certainly bore all his life the character of a gentleman, and showed himself his faithful and trusty adviser. The Hôtel de Bourgogne was at that time the leading theatre. It had a position very similar to the position now held by the Théâtre Français, and of course it became very jealous of Molière's troup. The public was on Molière's side. After the 'Etourdi' and the 'Dépit Amoureux' came the 'Précieuses ridicules,' then 'Sganarelle.' M. de Ratabon, the superintendent of the royal palaces, discovered that the Petit-Bourbon was a dangerous building, which might soon fall on its spectators, and ordered its demolition. In 1660, Molière found himself without a theatre. Molière's actors remained faithful to him in his misfortune. "All the actors," writes Lagrange, "loved the Sieur de Molière. Their chief combined an extraordinary capacity with honesty and with the most engaging manners. They protested that they would follow his fortune, and would not leave him, whatever proposition should be made to them from other sides." Molière moved heaven and earth, and finally his troupe was allowed to play in the Palais-Royal. He almost immediately produced the great masterpiece called 'L'Ecole des Maris.' The frontispiece of the original edition shows Molière in the part of *Sganarelle*, Mlle. de Brie in the part of *Agnes*, Lagrange as the young lover, with his curly wig, his sword, his plumes, his long *canons* (such was the name for the long lace which hung about the knee), his shoes adorned with ribbons. I cannot go into the details of every part created by Lagrange. Molière confided to him the part of *Don Juan*, though it was, to use Molière's own words, "very contrary to his humor." There is a wickedness, a depravity in *Don Juan* which was perhaps beyond the capacity of Lagrange. In fact, I do not remember to have ever seen a good *Don Juan*, and, greatly as I admire Molière, it seems to me that Mozart has surpassed him in his conception of this extraordinary type. The *Don Juan* of Molière is too coarse, too comical; the *Don Juan* of Mozart has a supreme elegance, and he becomes at the end extremely tragical. He is, as it were, the Satan of love; he is handsome, bold, unscrupulous, and invested with an indescribable charm. He is irresistible, and even death cannot curb his criminal and elegant arrogance. *Don Juan* is the greatest myth of the Latin race, as *Faust* is the greatest myth of the German race. They embody all the characteristics of two families of mankind. On the whole, as a Latin, I must have a certain weakness for *Don Juan*. *Faust* is quite as bad as the lover of *Zerlina* and of *Donna Anna*; he is as complete an egoist. The one pays with his eternal soul for the pleasure of learning—the other for the pleasure of feeling. The one is an artist, the other a professor.

We read in the 'Register' of Lagrange, under date of the 14th August, 1665: "Friday the troupe went to Saint Germain-en-Laye. The king said to the Sieur de Molière that he wished that his troupe should from this time be his own; that he would ask it of Monsieur. (The Palais-Royal was the property of Monsieur, the brother of the king.) The king at the same time gave a pension of six thousand livres to the troupe, which took leave of Monsieur, asked him for the continuance of his protection, and assumed the title of 'The King's Troupe at the Palais-Royal.'" It will be remarked that Lagrange always calls his patron the Sieur de Molière; I have, however, seen copies of the first edition of Molière's pieces, which appeared in 1666, and which bears the title, 'Works of Monsieur Molière.' For eleven years, Molière employed Lulli, the musician, who had first been in the kitchen of Mademoiselle, then *violon-laquais* in the house of the same Mademoiselle. This Lulli had a true musical genius, and was very useful to Molière for his ballets and the fêtes of Versailles. He had written all the music of the 'Fâcheux,' of the 'Amants magnifiques,' of the 'Bourgeois gentilhomme,' of 'Psyche,' etc. Lulli secretly bought the privilege of a certain Abbé Perrin, who had an exclusive right over all the music of the kingdom, and suddenly prohibited Molière from having at the Palais-Royal anything like singing or dancing. Molière appealed to the king, and the king stood by him. Molière had to look for another musician; he found Charpentier, who was the master of the Sainte Chapelle and the musician of the Duke of Orleans. Charpentier wrote the music of the 'Malade imaginaire.' Molière, alas, died after one of the first representations of this piece. "This same day," writes Lagrange (17th February, 1673), "after the comedy, towards ten o'clock at night, M. de Molière died in his house, in the rue de Richelieu, having played the part of the aforesaid *Malade imaginaire*, much troubled with cold and pain in the chest, which caused him to cough; so much so, that in the great efforts which he made he broke a vein in his body, and did not live more than a half-hour or three-quarters of an hour since said broken vein."

Lagrange became the successor of Molière; he was already what was called the *orator* of the troupe, the man who always spoke to the public. The troupe of Molière seemed lost, however, without Molière. It is the sad necessity of those who amuse the public not to take any repose. Molière was hardly in his grave, where he was buried at night, than Lagrange, receiving no orders from the king, put the 'Misanthrope' on his bill. This choice was an indirect homage to his friend, as the 'Misanthrope' is the masterpiece of Molière, and is as much a tragedy as a comedy. Baron had to take Molière's part, and he sang the song of *King Henri* so as to draw tears from his audience. Could anything more dramatic be imagined than the first representations of the 'Malade imaginaire' which followed the death of Molière? Who could laugh at the sight of the old man pursued by the phantom of death? Had death not been a terrible reality to the poor Argan? When the curtain was drawn, could the audience not imagine that they saw the ghost of Molière himself in the old man sitting in his chair and reading his doctor's prescriptions? This famous chair is still preserved at the Théâtre Français, and is used in all the representations of the 'Malade.' The troupe of Molière soon broke up; some of the actors emigrated to the Hôtel de Bourgogne. Lulli asked the king to give him the Palais-Royal, and the opera turned out the comedy. Lagrange entered into negotiation with a ruined troupe, the troupe of the Marais, and opened a new theatre at the Hôtel Guénégand—it was still Molière's theatre—*ex* as opposed to the Hôtel de Bourgogne.

Much has been said about the wife of Molière, and her true history still remains to be written. We find this note in the 'Register' of Lagrange: "Sentence for Mlle. Molière [she is always called Mlle. on the play-bills] against the Sire Lescot, president at Grenoble, condemned to do her reparation for injurious speeches and *voies de fait* which he has used against her." This President Lescot had become enamored of Mlle. Molière during the representation of 'Circe,' in which she had appeared in a magnificent costume and with her fine flowing hair. The President once went behind the

the curtain and followed *Circe* to her box. She would not receive him ; he declared that she must know him very well, having received so many presents from him. It seems that he had been the victim of a false Mlle. de Molière, who looked like her, as afterwards the Cardinal de Rohan was deceived by a false Marie Antoinette. Mlle. de Molière was obliged to call for help, and President Lescot was brought before a court and condemned. Madame or Mademoiselle de Molière, to use the words of Lagrange, did not keep the illustrious name of her husband. She married an actor called Guérin. Armande Béjart did not know what she had lost ; she thought that one good comedian was as good as another. Lagrange used to mark particular days in his 'Register' with lozenges or circles, which he painted with different colors, according to the character of the event. He had behaved like a devoted friend to the widow of Molière. On the day of her second marriage he simply writes "Marriage of Mlle. Molière," and he tints his circle with a dark color.

The famous Champmeslé became one of the actors of Lagrange's troupe, and 'Phèdre' was played on the same stage as the 'Misanthrope.' Molière and Racine became for a time inseparable. The troupe often appeared before the king. Lagrange died on the 30th of March, 1692, quite suddenly; he was only fifty-three years old. His daughter had been married some time before, and was extremely unhappy. It was thought at the time that her misfortune broke the heart of the poor, honest old actor, who had managed so long and so faithfully the greatest troupe that ever ascended the French stage. Madame Guérin did not survive him long. She had not been a good wife to Molière. She had no appreciation of his great genius ; she was indolent, frivolous ; but many of the stories which were told about her in the pamphlets of the time were mere calumnies. She was simply the ordinary wife of an extraordinary man.

Correspondence.

THE BANK OF ENGLAND RESERVE.

To the Editor of The Nation :

Sir : I now proceed to say a few words on the question you raise respecting the gold recorded as being in possession of the Bank of England. In the weekly reports published by the Bank there are two statements given of the gold—one of the amount lodged in the Issue Department, the other of the quantity in the reserve of the private bank called the Bank of England. As you most justly imply, it is of the utmost importance that these two masses should not be confounded ; they belong to two most distinct bodies, for the Issue Department is absolutely an office of the state. If it were transferred from the premises of the Bank to Whitehall, not a single fact would be altered, but the non-identity of the two bodies would become visible to all.

The gold I spoke of as proving the nullity of the suspensions of the Act of 1844 was of course that which belonged to the Issue Department—to the state ; for on that department the commands of the law of 1844 fall. The Act does not say a word about the deposits or the banking of the Bank of England. Let us look now at the report of May 2, 1866, before the suspension, and that of May 16, after the law was, for the time, repealed, and the Bank might have as many notes as it chose without purchasing them with gold.

The report of May 2 quotes the

Notes issued at.....	£27,712,020
The gold in store at.....	12,712,020
	£15,000,000

The report of May 16 records—

Notes issued.....	£26,851,825
Coin and bullion.....	11,851,825
	£15,000,000

The gold required by the statute was found in store in both cases alike. The fifteen millions of uncovered notes allowed by the law were not exceeded. And so it went on afterwards. At the same periods,

On May 2 the reserve of the private Bank was.	£5,636,370
On May 16.....	1,202,810

In giving these figures for the gold reserve of the Bank, I follow the universal English practice of reckoning the notes it possessed as gold, as the gold might be had for them at the Issue Department by sending a clerk across the court.

The panic was not nugatory on the Bank's reserve ; it lowered it enormously.

But now I must beg you to allow me to draw your attention to a fact of extreme importance and significance, which no one ever notices, and which, to my great regret, I forgot to notice in my little book on 'Currency and Banking.'

Look first at the report for May 30 :

Notes issued.....	£26,434,205
Coin and bullion.....	11,434,205
	£15,000,000

So much for the Issue Department.

As to the Bank of England itself, in the face of its liabilities towards its depositors, which amounted to the prodigious sum of thirty-three and one-half millions, it possessed a banking reserve of only £859,980—less than one million.

Now, you are aware that the Directors of the Bank of England, Mr. Bagehot in his 'Lombard Street,' the *Economist*, and the City articles of every newspaper, preach that, if the Bank, through the exchanges or any other cause, loses a couple of millions of its gold reserve, the rate of discount must instantly be raised ; for, as the gold sinks, the danger of "ruin" becomes imminent. Thus the banking business is made to rest on a different principle from every other business. The price of the article it deals in, the price charged for loans, is made to depend, not on the universal law of the supply and demand of the article dealt in, but on the movements of a mere insurance fund to guard against a possible danger. This being the general doctrine, let us look how the matter stands after a suspension of the Act. I have shown that as regards the issue of notes, so far the suspension was null, because the gold which would have been required by the law was found, spontaneously, in the Issue Department. But what shall we say, not of the notes, but about this gold ? What might have been done under the suspension of 1866 ? Suppose that on May 31, from any cause, the Bank had been asked for the payment in cash of two millions without any increase of resources. The reserve of £859,980 must have been paid away : the ruin, the stoppage, and all their sorrows must have overwhelmed the Bank. But is this so ? There were more than eleven millions of the yellow metal in the Issue Department : could they be of no service ? Ay, every pound of them. Let us consider how the matter would have worked. When the reserve was all run out there is presented a check for £1,100,000 about. The Bank sends instantly for so many notes from the Issue Department, and they are paid to the presenter of the check. But he wants gold : so off he steps to the Issue Department and demands gold for the notes I do not see how the Issue Department could have refused to give the gold ; for the suspension of the Act, I conceive, simply restored the state of things before 1844, when both gold and notes were subject to the pleasure and management of the Directors of the Bank, and they were bound in law to cash every note presented. If this is so, when their reserve was all run out they might, with these notes which the suspension enabled them to issue, have drawn out the whole stock of gold in the Issue Department ; and then what becomes of the fine principle that because two or three millions out of ten or twelve have been taken from the Bank, the Bank, which would still have some eight millions or more in its private reserve, and a power of commanding some eleven additional under a suspension, is authorized to impose a heavy burden, an oppressive tax, on all the trade of England ?

I see no escape from this conclusion ; but as this is the first occasion on which I have put this view in print, I may have overlooked some other points and be in error. If such is the case, I shall be most thankful to be corrected.

Bonamy Price.

Oxford, Jan. 25, 1876.

Notes.

Sheldon & Co. have removed from their up-town quarters to No. 8 Murray Street, in Mr. Van Nostrand's immediate neighborhood, and not far from Printing-house Square. They will hereafter confine themselves exclusively to publishing.——Roberts Bros. will republish here Mr. Kegan Paul's 'William Godwin : His Friends and Contemporaries' ; and William F. Gill & Co., 'Robert Haydon's Correspondence.'——J. H. Coates & Co. have nearly ready 'King and Commonwealth,' by B. Meriton Cordery and J. Surtees Phillpotts ; and the second volume (Vols. 3 and 4 of the French edition) of the Comte de Paris's 'History of the Rebellion.' Of Vol. I., the first edition of 2,000 copies has been exhausted.—— G. P. Putnam's Sons have been appointed American agents of the London *Academy*, and will furnish it to subscribers in this country at six dollars per annum,

or at twelve cents the single number.——George Routledge & Sons will shortly publish 'Thomas Wingfold, Curate,' a *Tendenz*-novel by George MacDonald, directed against the theological views of Prof. Tyndall and his followers.——The *Publishers' Weekly* reports that its enquiry of the trade, "Which are the twenty-five most salable books in biography?" resulted in giving the first place to Forster's Dickens and Irving's Washington, followed by Boswell's Johnson, Plutarch's Lives, Farrar's Christ, Bigelow's Franklin, Strickland's Queens of England, Abbott's Napoleon, Carlyle's Frederic II, Irving's Columbus, Motley's Barneveld, Grimm's Michael Angelo, Guthrie's Autobiography, Sherman's Memoirs, Memorials of a Quiet Life (Hare), Todd's Life, Ames's Alice and Phœbe Cary, Curtis's Webster, Irving's Goldsmith, Mrs. Somerville's Recollections, Memoirs of J. Q. Adams, Lewes's Goethe, Lockhart's Scott, Mill's Autobiography, Robertson's Life and Letters. The scale of suffrages, so to speak, ranged from 21 (Dickens) to 7 (Adams, etc.); Carlyle ranked 11, Sherman, 19. The list is curious and suggestive.——The *Tribune* Index for 1875 is now procurable. The topics are not arranged under one alphabet, but distributed under the four heads of editorial, political, miscellaneous, and foreign; for instance, the progress of the Emma Mine scandal must be sought under three of these heads. Prominent characters or events are emphasized by a fuller-faced type than the ordinary, and the principal classifications are referred to in the table of contents. For excellent specimens of these we may point to New York City and Legislature and United States Congress under "Political," and Obituary, Religious, and Reports under "Miscellaneous." But we have said enough to show what value this Index has for a very wide circle, including journalists, politicians, and intelligent persons generally, as well as the *Tribune's* readers.——J. W. Scott & Co., No. 75 Nassau Street, have begun publishing the *Coin Collector's Journal*, under the editorship of Mr. Edward Frossard. It is freely illustrated, and, besides articles of general interest to collectors, furnishes reports of the more important public sales of coins, with the prices brought. The third number (for February) begins a description of the Centennial medals already struck.——The Annual Report of the Trustees of the Museum of Comparative Zoölogy at Cambridge is full of encouragement to the friends of that institution. The additions in all the departments during the past year have been unusually valuable, and several unrivalled private collections have been designated by their owners as the future property of the Museum. Nevertheless, as illustrating the sound principle of our modern endowments, viz., "unto those that have *should* be given," Mr. Alex. Agassiz states that to enable the Museum to rival the national establishments of Europe, "each of its several departments should have an income equal to that provided for the whole institution by its present endowment." Mr. Agassiz has also some pertinent remarks on the relief which museums of natural history are to obtain, in the storing of specimens for study, from the establishment of zoölogical stations such as now exist in Italy and in England. The Report gives an account of the Louis Agassiz fund, and plans and an elevation of the Museum buildings in their contemplated extension.——We regret to learn that the usual water-color exhibition of the Brooklyn Art Association, which forms the sequel of the New York exhibition, is unavoidably given over for this year.

—The fourth memoir of the Peabody Academy of Science at Salem is a posthumous work by the late Dr. Jeffries Wyman, on the 'Fresh-Water Shell Mounds of the St. John's River, Florida.' Only a portion had been printed when the writer was suddenly removed by death, and the supervision of the rest has fallen chiefly upon Mr. F. W. Putnam, his successor. With the aid of a map the mounds are each described in their order from north to south over a space of one hundred and fifty miles in length. Their state of preservation, relative age, composition, fossil and other archæological remains, are all discussed with Prof. Wyman's well-known caution and candor. He concludes that some of these shell-heaps were essentially finished two or three centuries before the white man set foot in Florida; that the builders of them, so to speak, were a primitive race, destitute of pottery, of metals, and even (to any great extent) of stone implements; and that they were undoubted cannibals. The proof of this last assertion, drawn from the human remains discovered, is of a kind to carry conviction; but it is fortified in an appendix by liberal extracts from books of travel and Jesuit Relations showing the common practice among the American Indians of both continents of eating their prisoners of war at least, sometimes after having tortured and sometimes after having fattened them. This chapter is naturally not very pleasant reading. It is followed by a discussion of the age of the mounds as determinable by almost the only trustworthy factor, namely, the trees which have grown upon them or in the swamps formed upon part of their original site after the devastating river had changed its course. Some of the live-oaks are estimated at from 360 to 666 years of age, one of the cypresses at 340 years; and the assumption of a thousand years for the process of destruction of the mounds is declared not unreasonable, and possibly too small. The mounds must certainly be regarded with something of the veneration bestowed on other ancient abodes of man. They have remained the best camping-places on the river; they are now occupied by the colonists of our day, and even, as at Old Enterprise, by hotel-keepers; they were used during the rebellion as military positions; they were the nursery of the wild-orange groves, which are thought, by the way, to have sprung from the camps of the Spanish invaders; and the shell-fields are daily turned up by the cultivator. This memoir might stimulate invalid tourists to continue the researches described by Prof. Wyman, in which of necessity the whole had often to be inferred from a part. The *extent* of cannibalism, for instance, has yet to be ascertained.

—Our leading medical quarterly, the *American Journal of the Medical Sciences* (Philadelphia: Henry C. Lea), published in its January number two essays upon "Practical Medicine" and the "Discovery of Modern Anæsthesia" by Drs. E. H. Clarke and H. J. Bigelow respectively, of Boston, as part of a series on "A Century of American Medicine." Medicine, whether American or European, has not had a scientific life for much more than a hundred years; indeed, some of its features even now are not so blessed. But neither in empirical practice nor in scientific deduction and study have we cause to blush for our country. Dr. Clarke, after prefacing that for the first fifty years of the Republic "the necessities of the present left little leisure for the cultivation of the arts and sciences," shows that subsequently our physicians contributed their share to the world's progress. Indeed, in the earlier years, Rush, Physick, James Jackson, Hosack, and others gave promise of creditable successors. Stearns, Nathan Smith, Eberle, Bigelow, Gerhard, Pennock, the Boston Jacksons, Ware, Holmes, Horner, Neill, the two Flints, Bowditch, Horace Green, Da Costa, Weir Mitchell, A. Clark, Stillé, Hammond, Wyman, and H. C. Wood are among those whom he mentions as contributors to the sum of definite knowledge. Some of the contributions that he justly claims for this country are: the original diagnosis between diphtheria and membranous croup; the clear distinction between typhoid and typhus fever, recognized about the same time by Louis of France, but not admitted until comparatively recently in Great Britain; the nature of hydrocephalus; many very valuable points in the diagnosis and treatment of diseases of the chest; a more rational treatment of mania a potu; the nature of the rice-water discharges in cholera; the recognition of the self-limitation of many diseases (a doctrine that seems likely to be abused); the excretion of cholesterine; facts as to the trichinous disease; a multitude of important facts and many generalizations as to the nervous system and its diseases; the peculiar action of ergot; the independent discovery of chloroform; the introduction of wild cherry, veratrum viride, podophyllum, and a host of other useful remedies from our indigenous materia medica. He also cites the discovery of the influence of soil-dampness upon consumption, the communicability of puerperal fever, and Bowditch's method of thoracentesis in pleurisy—three valuable professional contributions which, however, more appropriately belong to hygiene, gynæcology, and surgery. We might wish that Dr. Clarke had carried his view further from the North Atlantic coast—that he had, for instance, while commemorating Dr. James Jackson as having moulded the New England profession by his teachings and example, also remembered with due praise Drs. Daniel Drake and Warren Stone, of the West and Southwest; but what he has here modestly although explicitly set forth is a very satisfactory contingent to the centennial contributions. Those who know his 'Sex in Education' require no comment upon this essayist's style. Dr. Bigelow, to whom indeed the world is directly indebted for the introduction of anæsthesia in surgery at the exact time that it occurred, furnishes a lucid, solid, and conclusive argument as to the claim of W. T. G. Morton for bestowing upon the physical man the greatest boon that he has ever received from his fellows.

—The *Tribune* has published some extracts from advance sheets of 'Two Rivulets,' the latest contribution to literature of Mr. Walt Whitman. The book contains some new views on the subject of poetry which will, no doubt, attract all the attention they deserve. Everybody has noticed, probably, that there are certain peculiarities of construction in Whitman's verse not to be found in older poets, but most people have been repelled from the task of discovering exactly what the principles at the bottom of them were, partly by the filth in which the bard is frequently found wallowing, and partly by the inanity of most of his ideas. In the present book, however, he is at pains to take the reader into his confidence and tell him what his views are, and they are no less than this—that the time for a new

kind of poetry has come. The time has arrived, he says, "to essentially break down the barriers of form between prose and poetry." Henceforth, poetry is "to win and maintain its character regardless of rhyme and the measurement-rules of iambic, spondee, dactyl, etc." Even if "rhyme and those measurements," he continues, remain in use among "inferior writers (especially for persiflage and the comic)," the "truest and greatest poetry" (while subtly and necessarily always "rhythmic" and "distinguishable easily enough") can "never again, in the English language, be expressed in arbitrary and rhyming metre." Rhyme, he continues, has played in the past an important part in literature, and has served admirably to express "the pensive complaint, the ballads, wars, amours, legends of Europe, etc.," but the day for it is over. The "literary as well as social etiquette of feudalism and caste" must be dismissed, at all events in this country, while the "Muse of the prairies and the peaks of Colorado," "joyfully enlarging, adapting itself to comprehend the size of the whole people, with the free play, emotions, pride, passions, experiences, that belong to them, body and soul—to the general globe, and all its relations in astronomy, as the savants portray them to us—to the modern, the busy nineteenth century, (as grandly poetic as any, only different), with steamships, railroads, factories, electric telegraphs, cylinder presses—to the thought of the solidarity of nations, the brotherhood and sisterhood of the entire earth—to the dignity and heroism of the practical labor of farms, factories, foundries, workshops, mines, or on shipboard, or on lakes and rivers—resumes that other medium of expression, more flexible, more eligible—soars to the freer, vast, diviner heaven of prose." This strikes us as almost as good as Alwato.

—When Miss Cushman bade farewell to the stage in 1874, it was generally believed she could not long struggle with the painful disease which threatened her life. Nevertheless, her extraordinary native vitality has enabled her to appear on the boards, even within the past year and a half, in some of her most successful characters, and at the time of her death her reappearance was already beginning to make the fears of her friends and herself seem exaggerated. The loss which the stage suffers by her death is very great, for there is absolutely no one to take her place; and whatever estimate may be formed of her standing as an actress or an actor—for she was both—there can be no question that she was, in the half-dozen parts which she finally made her own, without a rival. It is the misfortune of actors that they have to submit themselves to contemporary judgment, and leave nothing behind them by which future generations can form any opinion of their merits. Their tones of voice, their methods of expression, their walk, their address, their conception of their parts, die with them. What survives is a tradition of their style, distinct enough at first, perhaps, but growing fainter and more shadowy with every year. For this reason it is impossible to try successful acting by any common external standard handed down from the past, as we can literature, painting, sculpture, or architecture, and we are forced back upon contemporary standards afforded by living actors, or upon the general principles with regard to dramatic art. The first of these standards, in Miss Cushman's case, it is difficult to apply, for her best parts were acted for years by no one of importance in England or America but herself; the value of the general principles of the art as a test consists, as everybody knows, "in the application" of them. To our mind, Miss Cushman's success was a success rather of industry than of genius, and her style was too melodramatic for the best playing of the great Shaksperian parts. Her *Meg Merrilies* was a good proof of this, and her *Queen Katharine* and *Lady Macbeth* were, we should say, just devoid of that touch of nature which distinguishes true tragedy. In remembering Miss Cushman's success, it is impossible not to doubt whether patriotism did not have something to do with it, and whether the necessity of proving to ourselves that America, too, was capable of producing great actors was not at the bottom of a good deal of the applause that she won. If her career were to be run over again, she would be perhaps deprived of this adventitious aid. It should be added, however, that her success was not achieved without a severe struggle against great odds, and that she did not obtain the support of patriotic approval till after she had already placed herself, by sheer force of her unwearied application and ambition, in the front ranks of her profession.

—Perhaps no branch of the Executive Departments in Washington is less widely known and appreciated than the Hydrographic Office. The surveys and explorations carried on by the Government within the limits of its domain are under the supervision either of the Engineer Corps of the Army or of the Interior Department. The surveying of our coasts and harbors is conducted by officers of the navy and civilians under the supervision of the Coast Survey Office. The Hydrographic Office is the repository of charts, books, manuscripts, and other data relating to the hydrography, navigation, and meteorology of the world, with the single exception of the United States. Its chief objects are: to provide charts and descriptive works for the use of mariners; to arrange in convenient form for reference and discussion the information recorded in journals of cruises, and in publications in every language; to provide suitable instruments and books for the use of navigators and surveyors; and to organize and conduct all surveys and explorations carried on by the United States Government outside of its own domain. The old building now rented and occupied by this office is less than half the requisite size, even for present needs; every hall and stairway, in fact every nook and corner, is crowded with shelves for storing charts and books; and even the old ice-house, stable, and hay-loft are filled with valuable plates, instruments, and records, in default of any other available place to store them. The window spaces in these and the main building are monopolized by engravers and draughtsmen; the library is used as a working room; in short, draughtsmen and computers, messengers and officers, engravers and compilers, clerks and copyists, occupy the same apartments, and such is the want of desk-room that some of the officers and employees are obliged to work at their homes or boarding-houses. Necessarily every one works at a great disadvantage, and it is highly desirable that early provision should be made for the purchase or erection of a suitable building, where the valuable archives, plates, books, instruments, etc., may be stored without imminent daily risk of destruction by fire, and in which the important work may be carried on in accordance with the increased and increasing demand. Before the office was established, British charts and publications were issued for use in our navy, and our merchant marine depended for their supply on the few marine stores having them for sale. A rupture of friendly relations between the two countries would have cut off the supply at a time when the demand would have increased, and this consideration led to the establishment of the Office. Since then the annual appropriations for its support have been so small that engraving has had to be confined to a few standard charts, while the cheaper method of photolithographing corrected foreign charts has been resorted to. Even this has been confined to the charts most in demand, and we are still obliged to purchase foreign publications for use in the navy and for sale to the merchant marine. The proper maintenance of the Office is, we need not say, of private as well as public importance. Thousands of lives and millions of dollars have been sacrificed through our ignorance of the dangers which beset the pathways of ocean travel. These losses are still occurring; yet the small sum asked for the purpose of decreasing the dangers is struck out of the estimates by the head of the Department, and Congressmen give little heed when their attention is drawn to it. Had England the whole world's commerce under her flag, it would be reasonable to expect her to do all the surveying.. But happily we can still speak of American commerce, and we are not wanting in naval officers experienced in surveying and eminently qualified to perform it creditably. All that is needed is an appropriation, placed beyond the reach of politicians, to the credit of the Office, to be used under the supervision and at the discretion of the Navigation Bureau.

—Mr. W. Carew Hazlitt has recently made an addition to the tolerably long list of good things he has done ill by editing and publishing anew the poetical and dramatic works of Thomas Randolph. Randolph, who was born in 1605, and who died in 1634, left behind him a few plays and poems which well deserved being put in the way of readers who go at all beneath the surface of English literature. He was a favorite of Ben Jonson's, who did a great deal to encourage younger men, and one of his odes is "A Gratulatory to Master Ben Jonson for his adopting of him to be his son," in which he says:

> —"the whole quire
> Of poets are, by thy adoption, all
> My uncles; thou hast given me power to call
> Phœbus and self my grandsire; by this grant
> Each sister of the Nine is made my aunt."

His poems have little in them that deserves praise, but the plays are noteworthy, and it is easy to see that their writer might have been considered a promising young man. As for Mr. Hazlitt's part in the volume, it is of about the merit of all his work. Mr. Lowell has often tricked him up and given him his three dozen, but wholly without effect, for the poor man apparently always does his best. As it is, he does actual harm by getting out editions of old plays (for which the demand is never anything but small at any one time) which are full of his mistakes, blunders, and inept comments. It will be years before the occasion will arise for new editions, and meanwhile readers have nothing better to consult than his prettily-printed books, where the notes as often lead astray as not. Some instances are to be

found in this volume of Randolph's works. In the text is this passage, p. 119 :

"Like the sweet gums that from electar trees
Distil,"

which is elucidated by the following note : "I do not know what is meant by *electar trees*. Perhaps Randolph may have written *elecam tree*, referring to the *elecampane* or *Helenium*, which certainly yields a species of gum." Quite as certainly a man of Mr. Hazlitt's reading should know that *electar* trees are those which were supposed to distil amber (electre), and that his hypothetical reading has not a leg to stand on. Again, p. 128 :

"Or have these devils
Broke into Paradise ?"

to which is appended this note referring to the word *devils:* "A term which Webster's celebrated drama so-called, printed in 1612, brought into fashion." It would not be easy to gather from this statement that Mr. Hazlitt meant Webster's "White Devil ; or, Vittoria Corombona."

—In view of the deluge of criticism which is certain to be poured out upon George Eliot's new novel when the publication is completed, it might seem the part of discretion not to open fire upon the first instalment. But this writer's admirers can reconcile themselves to no argument which forbids them to offer the work a welcome, and—putting criticism aside—we must express our pleasure in the prospect of the intellectual luxury of taking up, month after month, the little clear-paged volumes of 'Daniel Deronda.' We know of none other at the present time that is at all comparable to it. The quality of George Eliot's work makes acceptable, in this particular case, a manner of publication to which in general we strongly object. It is but just that so fine and rare a pleasure should have a retarding element in it. George Eliot's writing is so full, so charged with reflection and intellectual experience, that there is surely no arrogance in her giving us a month to think over and digest any given portion of it. For almost a year to come the lives of appreciative readers will have a sort of lateral extension into another multitudinous world—a world ideal only in the soft, clear light under which it lies, and most real in its close appeal to our curiosity. It is too early to take the measure of the elements which the author has in hand, but the imagination has a confident sense of large and complex unfolding. The opening chapters are of course but the narrow end of the wedge. The wedge—as embodied in the person of Gwendolen Harleth—seems perhaps unexpectedly narrow, but we make no doubt that before many weeks have gone by we shall be hanging upon this young lady's entangled destiny with the utmost tension of our highest faculties. Already we are conscious of much acuteness of conjecture as to the balance of her potentialities—as to whether she is to exemplify the harsh or the tender side of tragic interest, whether, as we may say in speaking of a companion work to 'Middlemarch,' the Dorothea element or the Rosamond element is to prevail. A striking figure in these opening chapters is that of Herr Klesmer, a German music-master, who has occasion to denounce an aria of Bellini as expressing "a puerile state of culture —no sense of the universal." There could not be a better phrase than this latter one to express the secret of that deep interest with which the reader settles down to George Eliot's widening narrative. The "sense of the universal" is constant, omnipresent. It strikes us sometimes perhaps as rather conscious and over-cultivated ; but it gives us the feeling that the threads of the narrative, as we gather them into our hands, are not of the usual commercial measurement, but long electric wires capable of transmitting messages from mysterious regions.

—The new *Revue Historique*, edited by G. Monod and G. Faigniez, is a large octavo of 320 pages, handsomely printed. It contains six articles, the opening one being by M. Monod, upon the progress of historical studies in France since the sixteenth century. Of the others, the most considerable is by A. Castan : "Granvelle et le petit empereur de Besançon" (1518–1538). The "petit empereur" was a demagogue by the name of Gauthiot ; the episode here described is one of those municipal contests, so common in episcopal cities, between the bishop and the municipality, and had as its result the permanent establishment of the imperial power and the Catholic religion in the city of Besançon. Another important article is by M. Victor Duruy, upon the municipal system in the Roman Empire ; it is to form a chapter in the fifth volume of his Roman History. After the original articles follow "Variétés," two in number—one upon the Regions of Italy under Augustus ; one upon the Sack of Magdeburg. Then follow "Mélanges," also two—an unedited memoir of Richelieu, and a conversation between Napoleon and Sismondi in the year 1815. Next comes, in the "Bulletin Historique," a survey of recent historical literature—for France (by Faigniez), Germany (by Hartwig), and England (by S. R. Gardiner). The number closes with the review of half-a-dozen books, before which is a list of periodicals and transactions, with the titles of their articles. This review differs chiefly from Sybel's *Historische Zeitschrift* in the prominence given to intelligence. The "Bulletin Historique" is its most distinctive, and perhaps most valuable, feature. It seems at first sight to have fewer reviews of books than the *Zeitschrift ;* but it is found that a large number of books receive brief but adequate notice in the Bulletin.

—The most striking thing in this number of the "Bulletin Historique" is a summary, by Mr. Gardiner, of the Introduction to Mr. Brewer's since published volume of "Calendars of State Papers for the Reign of Henry VIII." (1524-30). It is, he says, "a real history of the epoch," founded "not upon the rapid researches with which Mr. Froude is satisfied, but upon profound and conscientious investigations." The result of Mr. Brewer's studies is to show Henry as the real master, to whom Wolsey submitted, and to make the king primarily responsible in the matter of the divorce. In this matter both king and prelate appear utterly unscrupulous ; "the fall of the Cardinal, under the weight of an unjust accusation, was the consequence of his efforts to satisfy his master without breaking with the Pope" As to the final rupture with the Pope, Henry did not desire it, and tried to avoid it for several years, but was led to it by the force of circumstances ; he was obliged, in consistency, to carry out his threats so often made. Another interesting paper is that by M. Reuss, upon the destruction of Magdeburg. Tilly has already been exonerated from the guilt of this conflagration (not, however, of the rapine and carnage), and the article in question is an attempt to trace out the responsibility for it, with the aid of some new documents discovered (chiefly at the Hague) by Prof. Wittich of Jena. The conclusion arrived at, as being almost absolutely proved, is that the conflagration was, like that of Moscow, a part of the strategy of the defence. Falckenberg, the commander of the city, probably in accomplishment of a misunderstood order from Gustavus Adolphus, and in concert with the chiefs of the extreme party in the city, appears to have placed combustibles in different houses, which were simultaneously fired after the capture. The whole argument is skilfully elaborated, and almost reads like a novel by Wilkie Collins.

HAMERTON'S ETCHING AND ETCHERS.*

EIGHT years ago the first edition of this work was published by Macmillan & Co. It has become very scarce, and a copy for sale to-day brings easily twice the original price. This first edition was in many respects a different book from the one before us ; it was in larger type and on larger paper, and on paper of a curious sort, apparently made for the work and with the purpose of being used throughout—the same paper for the letterpress and for the illustrations. These illustrations were numerous and splendid, and of very unusual character. They were all etchings, thirty-five in number ; six by the author himself, one or two copied by the author or others from ancient prints, several by modern etchers, who may be supposed to have worked directly for the book, but a number, as well, printed from genuine ancient coppers, which Mr. Hamerton had got together with great labor and patience and considerable expense. Thus, the Rembrandt was an unquestioned original (Jacob and Laban, Blanc 7, Bartsch 118), selected by the author as the best from among the half-dozen Rembrandt coppers which he found to be within his reach. The Paul Potter (second state of Le Vacher, Bartsch 14) belonged to M. Galichon, at that time the director of the *Gazette des Beaux Arts*, since dead ; the large and historically-interesting Callot (La Tour de Nesle) belonged to M. Arsène Houssaye ; and the etchings by Waterloo (Bartsch 53) and Weirotter were the property of a Parisian dealer. These important illustrations gave to the first edition of the book a sumptuous air, which the appearance of its letterpress tended to increase ; in fact, it was a rather magnificent publication, especially when well bound, for the original cover was not in good taste ; just one of those books which seem to be printed appropriately in small editions on purpose to become scarce.

The second edition, which is now before us, though the same book to begin with, is yet different enough. The text has been a good deal changed, chiefly by the addition of whole chapters and the omission of others ; there is perhaps a quarter more matter in the new edition than in the earlier one ; the illustrations are entirely changed ; there are only twelve etchings in the book, and of these all but two have been copied by Mr. Hamerton himself from etchings by ancient and modern masters. The Lalanne at page 182 is the only print retained from the first edition, and of this there is room for only a part on the present smaller page (the plate must have been cut in two). The preface to the second edition says that it would have been

* 'Etching and Etchers. By Philip Gilbert Hamerton.' Second edition. Boston : Roberts Bros. 1876. Pages xxx.–459.

impossible to get together the coppers used for the first edition, even had it not been desirable to make the present book an inexpensive hand-book within the reach of every student of etching. Each plate has an account of itself and of its manner of production printed on its fly-leaf, wherein the student is told how long an immersion in the acid bath each part had received, how many proofs were taken, how many changes made, and how much dry-point work had been superadded. In short, the illustrations are to illustrate alone, in this new edition, and not to ornament.

The art of etching has many claims to general regard, but none greater than this—that it lends itself to the purposes of artists who devote their lives to it, to those who may wish to preserve memoranda of their observations or of their moments of inspiration, and equally well to the purposes of students and of those who live by the application of fine art to industry. It is an art by itself for those who love it and succeed in it, and who can live without that pecuniary success which the public at present denies to the practitioner of this especial branch. It is of great value to the architect, to the architectural sculptor, and, finally, to the student of decorative art, whether as a means of preserving a record of precious things that he cannot procure, or as a means of preserving in imperishable form his own designs. Any one who can draw may, with a very slight experience of the simple processes employed, produce etchings which, though artistically valueless, may be of the greatest importance and interest to himself. Any one who can draw as well as a professional painter is supposed to do, may, with little study, make etchings as successfully as he could make drawings in pen and ink, and these, although of slight importance in the history or progress of art, may be of great value to himself and of great interest to his friends. Great success in etching, on the other hand, is reserved for the very few. But in this respect it is like other arts. Modelling in soft material may be compared closely with etching. Anybody can learn to work in clay and in wax; and this art is the daily resource of the pattern-makers and the carvers in wood and in stone, and ought to be the daily study of all learners; while great excellence in it is of course confined to the few sculptors, born and taught, great by nature and by training.

Mr. Hamerton seems rather to resent the suggestions of Mr. Charles Blanc and of Mr. Palgrave that etching is easy to learn, and may be practised by those whom he would call amateurs. His objection to the consideration of etching from this point of view seems to be that its practice by weaker hands would not help "the cause of true art"; and if by amateurs he means merely, as one passage seems to indicate, the ladies who would desert worsted work and potichomania for the etching-needle, no one will dispute his dictum. But suppose the case of a lady spending some part of her summer in seriously-intended drawing from nature, or of a student of drawing who wishes to use it for his own convenience in scientific research. To these and to other such workpeople, faithful as far as they go, successful within their narrow limits, the convenience and the advantage of a little knowledge of etching are not to be denied, nor are their attempts at it other than a great and positive gain to "the cause of true art."

To take a case which is immediately before us: if the newly-established weekly, the *American Architect and Building News*, could be illustrated with etchings—supposing always that the subjects chosen for illustration are worthy of being etched—how interesting would it become, how desirable would be many of its illustrations to take out and lay in the portfolio! And why should it not be so illustrated? Every draughtsman who can make a perspective drawing of a church, shaded up with pen and ink, can learn with a very little patience to draw the same thing on copper with the etching needle, and the merit of his etching would be exactly proportionate to the merit of his pen-drawing. Any student who, during his months of happy labor among the unrestored ancient buildings of Europe, fills his portfolio with drawings of his own with lead-pencil, with pen, and with the brush, is capable of doing the same work on copper; let it be that he goes no further, there are many ways in which going so far only as this will be of benefit to him. The somewhat greater difficulty of the process will make him more careful and more sincere; but if the only good result that should come of it were to be his own greater appreciation of the works of the great masters, "the cause of true art" gains indefinitely in the gain of sympathy for art of any man or woman of our unsympathizing society. Any one who finds that he begins to understand the charm and the actual value of a great etching should be sincerely thankful; it is a charm that can hardly be explained and never be defined, but only more or less clearly indicated. The power of appreciating it to its full value is akin to the power of producing it; it is a matter of temperament which cultivation may greatly aid indeed, and would perhaps develop in many persons who now seem to be without it, but which no teaching can ever create.

Mr. Hamerton is not too rigid in his insistance upon the vast superiority of etching for *effect* over all other kinds of etching. The greatest result is to be got in that way, without doubt. Turner, in preparing the outlines for the plates of the 'Liber Studiorum,' is using the art appropriately, and Mr. Cruikshank, too, in his illustrations to 'Grimm's Household Stories,' although his work is almost wholly outline, and shade and shadow are used only to indicate form, is an etcher still, and Mr. Hamerton seems to recognize him as such, for he notices "The Elves and the Shoemaker" with the same terms of laudation that he would give to a finished etching, and such as he does give to the comparatively elaborate chiaroscuro work in "The Folly of Crime" and the admirable "Dougal MacCallum." We are inclined to claim for everybody who has occasion to use graphic art the privilege of employing the etching-needle and the acid bath, and to set up as many standards for criticism in the use of these sacred implements as in the case of the familiar household lead-pencil. But Mr. Hamerton is right, thoroughly right, altogether right, and deserves our heartiest support in his constant reiteration of the statement that greatness in etching is a mental and not a technical greatness. The giants of etching are men who can think their own thoughts and who have conceptions which are not those of other men. The use that Mr. Hamerton has made of the extraordinary technical achievements of Flameng and Jacquemart, to discriminate between such art as theirs and such art as Rembrandt's or Haden's, is admirable, and leaves little to be desired in the way of instructive criticism. His remarks on Ruskin's etching, and the difference between it and the work of a great artistical etcher, are full of suggestion. His attempt to explain abstraction (chap. viii.) and comprehensiveness (chap. vii.) seem to us as nearly successful as such brief treatment can be. He has explained admirably the various manners of different artists, and the different practices of the same men at different times; and we can hardly believe that Mr. Hamerton would object to admit all that we can claim for the right of the whole community to use this art in an everyday sort of fashion without fear of the artistically-minded critic.

For, indeed, if the art is not to be used by all the world and on all occasions, why these many pages of practical notes at the close of the volume before us? The few who are artistically inclined in the highest sense are in the way of learning enough about their art to begin their work without this carefully-prepared hand-book. These pages of explanation and instruction seem to be very complete, and to give the well-known and recognized processes and also the more important of the newly-discovered and recently-proposed modifications of them. Whether another and equally good manual exists in English we are not able to say; in French there are several books of instruction, but none that we have examined is, on the whole, as full. It is possible that something could be done in the way of arrangement or with catch-titles and the like to make it more immediately available for reference. And this brings us to speak of a defect which cannot be forgiven, and which is simply incomprehensible—the absence of an index. The first edition had no semblance of an index; the second, now before us, has what is called a "catalogue index," merely of artists, with the titles of those plates of theirs which have been mentioned in the volume.

FEMININE POETRY.*

THE number of women who write verses is increasing, especially in America. Our common-school education supplies multitudes of women with a capacity of expression which, however limited, is sufficient for the needs of rhythm and of rhyme, while our social conditions cultivate fluency of utterance, and have no tendency to promote that reticence which comes of large experience and high breeding. Much knowledge of the world and a keen sense of self-respect are restraints to the outpouring of personal emotion and to the publishing of private sentiment. To crave sympathy is so feminine a trait, to find in speech relief from oppressive emotion is so natural to a large class of men as well as of women, and to measure the interest of sentiments to others by their importance to ourselves, is so common an error, that there is no reason for surprise at the quantity of verse by women which in these days of cheap and easy printing finds its way to the booksellers' counters. But we doubt if much of it is read except by its authors, by their personal friends, and by the conscientious critic.

The abundance of these female writers, however, has a not unimportant bearing on what is rudely termed "the woman question." Poetry is an open field for them, where they may contend on even terms with man. And it must be allowed that the mass of contemporary verse by women shows no marked inferiority to the mass of contemporary verse by men.

* 'Cartoons. By Margaret J. Preston.' Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1875. Sm. 8vo, pp. 240.

Out of the hundred new volumes of poems, ninety might be classed as distinguishable more by external differences than by any absolute internal division. But of the ten remaining, the select few that may outlast the year of their production, this is not to be said. A vast proportion of the verse that endures has been and still is the work of the harder sex. And the explanation of this fact is not to be found in the inferiority of female education, or in any unfair treatment that women may have received from men. Mill's argument in respect to the stunting of feminine intelligence and the warping of their capacities, as the result of their education and of their position, is not good to account for the fact that, in all time and under favorable as well as unfavorable circumstances, no woman has ever produced a first-rate poem or a first-rate work of imaginative art of any kind. Sappho, Mrs. Browning, Rosa Bonheur, any woman of greatest note who has tried poetry or the other arts, affords an instance in point. Their work is not first-rate. It has admirable qualities, but as art it is inferior to what men (men, it may be, of less general capacity) have done. It is in the nature of things that this should be the case. The keen susceptibility (however it may have been acquired) of the feminine temperament gives to immediate impressions a force that is opposed to the steady action of reflection and reminiscence. The power of the intellect is, in a sort, subordinated to the power of the sense. In this there is nothing either to praise or blame; it is matter simply of observation, and is due to physiological conditions which cannot be changed even were change desirable. But in poetry, as in all other arts of expression, the highest excellence depends upon imagination and the sense of form—two most strictly intellectual qualities, two qualities based not on direct perception, but on reflection, comparison, and reminiscence; that is, not merely on the reception or even the accumulation of images, but still more on ideas and principles derived from the recollection and classification, conscious or unconscious, of the impressions and images themselves.

The general characteristic of women's verses, be they Greek, Italian, French, German, English, or of whatever tongue, is the predominance in them of sentiment over thought, the absence of imagination in its higher phase, and the substitution (usually) of a smooth and flowery diction, such as the Greek critics noticed in the verse of Sappho, for a strong and clearly defined form. These characteristics often give to woman's verse a peculiar, but not properly artistic, charm. It is the verse of sentiment, fresh from an instant experience, eager for expression. It is too lyric, personal, impassioned, to pay attention to the restraints of art. Euterpe and Erato have a larger share in feminine inspiration than Clio or Polymnia. The woman is more than the poet, and gives us confidences which may touch our hearts without moving our intelligence.

The subject admits of abundant illustration, and the volumes before us will serve for this purpose as well as any others. We take up Mrs. Preston's 'Cartoons.' The poems thus named reveal a woman sensitive, impressionable, tender-hearted—a woman who has travelled and read—read especially the poems of Mr. and Mrs. Browning, and who has found satisfaction in the cultivation of her gifts of expression. Her verse never sinks below the level of respectability, never rises to that of vigorous originality. It bears no such individual stamp as to distinguish it from the poetry of many others of the choir of contemporary poets. But, says Mrs. Preston (after the manner of Mrs. Browning):

> "What then? If one weak song of mine
> Should yet prevail to bring the shine
> Back o'er some spirit's dull decline,
>
> "And for a moment seem to fling
> A flash about its sun setting—
> I think (God granting) I may sing."

We indeed see no objection to Mrs. Preston's singing even if her songs do not fling flashes round the sun-setting of spirits. She may find singing good for her own sake. Indeed, Mrs. Preston's verse deserves praise for all its minor qualities, and, if judged by any common standard of average performance, may stand creditably among the year's productions.

From the rudimentary art of 'Cartoons' we pass to the simple nature of 'Hawthorn Blossoms.' These blossoms seem to have been mostly gathered in Indiana, where Mrs. Charles appears to have lived and to have loved and to have suffered. It would further seem, from some of the revelations that they make, that during the last year a prospect of new happiness has opened before the author. In reading some of Mrs. Charles's verses, we feel as if committing an impropriety in partaking of confidences not intended for our ears. It is true that some great poets have set a bad example in disclosing to the public gaze what ought never to have been seen by more than one pair of eyes. And little poets may cite the great in excuse for a similar procedure. But the fault would be inexcusable in them were it not that their experiences of sentiment, whether kept private or made public, are of not much importance except to themselves. For their own sake, however, they should practice self-restraint. Mrs. Charles's emotions, feelings, and experiences are similar to those of many American women, and her poetry is of the kind that many can write with more or less facility. It is the verse of an innocent, gentle sentimentalist of many aspirations and right purposes. Its naïveté betokens a state of culture hardly yet ready for the critic. Take, for instance, the opening stanza of a poem called the "Minstrel":

> "Fancy now that I'm a minstrel, only listen to my lay;
> Thou shalt be my love ideal, for 'tis true, as poets say,
> We must on earth love something, and I have no lover real;
> So, perhaps, it e'en were better that I choose a beau ideal."

This is intended seriously, and, being so, what can be said of it except that it is a pity to print it, especially as Mrs. Charles says:

> "Derision I would not excite,
> A just decision I invite;
> I may not climb the hill of Fame;
> Justice and truth is all I claim"?

But the standard of justice and truth in matters of criticism is not likely to be the same in Indianapolis and in New York. Culture is of slow growth, and cannot be forced—a fact that most Americans, loath as they have been to admit it, are gradually coming to acknowledge. High schools, and Oread or other Institutes however named, and even State universities, are in general of little more use in developing those qualities without which no real culture can exist, than travelling menageries or itinerant lecturers. If there were a high standard of critical judgment of women's work in our Western States, we should hardly be called upon to notice Mrs. Charles's poems, or those of Miss Minnie Ward Patterson of Michigan.* The merits of Miss Patterson's verses, like those of Mrs. Charles, are such as might justly appeal to the kindliness of a familiar circle, but hardly qualify them to claim the interest of the busy world. They are essentially high-school- or college-girlish. Miss Patterson gives us the "Poem delivered at the Quinquennial Reunion of the Alumni at Hillsdale College," as well as that "delivered at the dedication of the Society Hall of the Eclectics and Atheniades, Albion College." They are both full of excellent sentiments, delivered with imperfect art, and of such principles as are indicated in the following stanzas:

> "But when, with pure heart, woman stands as the he'per
> And equal of man—soon may usher the day—
> The demon of crime that debases and thralls us
> Must let go the nation and hasten away.
>
> "Fear not! ne'er can liberty rob her of home-love
> Or gentleness. You would not fear that the vine,
> Transplanted from cellar to garden, and flinging
> Its boughs to the breezes, would e'er be a pine!"

"Shadows and Silver Sprays," by a lady whose name we presume to be Maggie Roberts, is a book of another order. She says of her own productions: "Every poem is to the point; therefore it is needless for the author to say more than that they command the admiration and respect of their own and every other nation." We may add that they have the interest of being distinctly products of the civilization of the city of New York. The author, like many of her sex, is a hero-worshipper. Here is a stanza from her "Song of Welcome to Alexis," which is certainly to the point:

> "We hail thee! Imperial Prince,
> Son of Russia's great Czar,
> Beneficent in time of peace,
> Most terrible in war;
> We'll shout an hearty welcome
> Wheresoe'er thou shalt roam,
> Noble Alexis,
> Pray feel at home."

Five of the Silver Sprays are devoted to Noble Alexis and one to the "gracious monarch" his imperial sire, of whom we are told, with a somewhat bold use of a familiar verse:

> "Millions of freemen own thy sway,
> And all thy great commands obey.
> So when thy journey here is o'er,
> Thy praise shall sound from shore to shore."

Next to Prince Alexis, "bold son of the sea," the author's chief hero seems to be "the magnanimous Col. Fisk," whom, also, with a republican metonymy, she calls a prince. One of the four poems that relate to him is entitled "The Assassination of the Prince of Erie," and in another the Lord is besought to

> "Inscribe his name upon the scroll
> That hangs in heaven's high dome."

'Hawthorn Blossoms. By Emily Thornton Charles (Emily Hawthorne).' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1876. 12mo, pp. x.-165.

'Pebbles from Old Pathways. By Minnie Ward Patterson.' Chicago: C. J. Burroughs & Co., Printers. 1875. 12mo, pp. 206.

'Shadows and Silver Sprays. By Eiggam Strebor.' New York: John F. Trow & Son. 1875. Sm. sq 8vo, pp. 123.

We might cite much from this volume curious as illustrating conditions of character and feeling prevalent in a certain class in New York, but we have cited enough to show our readers that the usual forms of criticism are not to be applied to it. It is not always needful to call a spade by its name.

There is more than ordinary felicity of diction and sincerity of feeling in many of Mrs. Aitken's poems, but they are not in general stamped with the impress of so distinct an individuality as to separate them widely from the mass of good feminine poetry. Mrs. Aitken is no intentional imitator, but her style has been more or less consciously affected by that of her favorite poets. She is, we infer from her verse, an American transplanted to Scotland. Her volume begins with a series of thirty sonnets addressed to the American people, earnest appeals, after the manner of Mrs. Browning, to the better sense of the nation, vehement in denunciation of the baseness of its politics, the tricks of its trade, its low material aims, its recklessness in the pursuit of wealth, its lack of integrity and honor. It is because she loves the land and the people so well that she is moved to try "to stir the hearts of men," and the impatient and overexcited tone in her verse is itself the indication and proof of the depth of her emotion. The longest and most ambitious poem in the volume is also perhaps the best. It is a series of dramatic scenes entitled "A Day in the Life of Mary Stuart." The character of the Queen is vigorously conceived and delineated, and the situations of the piece are effectively chosen, and picturesquely presented. There are touches of uncommon pathos and of passion in the work, and we cite a few stanzas from a song that occurs in it as a specimen of Mrs. Aitken's poetic resources which may well recommend her volume to our readers:

"'Tis a crime to remember—O hard, O strange!
What sorrow is worth a year of tears?
And who shall defy the gathering years?
It should be easy for hearts to change!
Oh not for mine, saith my heart to me—
Would we were free!

"And why not easy, dear heart, for you?
Wiser it is, you'll surely grant,
To take instead of the thing you want
Anything else and make it do!
I cannot, saith my heart to me—
Would we were free!

"That's done over and over again,
But not by women who've a way
Of nursing a dream in its decay,
Which never, God wot, was the way with men!
So will we dream, saith my heart to me—
Would we were free!"

Vulfila, oder die Gotische Bibel. Herausgegeben und erklärt von Ernst Bernhardt. (Halle: Waisenhaus, 1875; New York: L. W. Schmidt.)—The present work constitutes Volume III. of Zacher's Germanistic Library, the preceding volumes being 'Gudrun,' by Martin, and 'Walther v. d. Vogelweide,' by Wilmanns. Of the series in general we need only say that it bears throughout the stamp of unmistakable scholarship. As for Dr. Bernhardt's labors in particular, a careful inspection warrants us in demanding for them the sympathy of all lovers of Germanistic studies. Such an edition of 'Vulfila' has been long and sorely needed. A knowledge of Gothic is the rightful beginning of the scientific study of German, Anglo-Saxon, and Icelandic, and Dr. Bernhardt's critical text and commentary are the best foundation we have yet possessed. The Gothic text is based upon Uppström's reading of the several manuscripts. But while the Swedish editor contented himself in the main with reproducing the manuscript text in its inconsistencies and variations, Dr. Bernhardt has attempted to give a corrected text, approaching more nearly to what must have been the language of Vulfila himself. The great Goth—for he fully deserves the predicate—died in the third quarter of the fourth century. The manuscripts now extant, the Silver Codex and the Ambrosian Codices, are a century and a half later, and were all made in Italy during or soon after the reign of Theodoric. Not only must the language have changed somewhat in the interval, but the later copyists interpolated in the text glosses and revised readings from parallel passages and from the Itala, not to speak of misspellings and other blunders. The editor has restored the text, so far as possible, to the form that it probably had on leaving the hand of the original translator. Accompanying the Gothic is a Greek text, constructed by the editor by means of an exhaustive comparison not only of the uncial Greek manuscripts of the New Testament (Cod. Sin. and A, B, C, etc.), but also of the leading Latin manuscripts of the Itala and Vulgata groups. The patient labor and research herein displayed are worthy of the highest praise.

The editor's method is twofold. On the one hand, he has restored, we may say, the Gothic to its early form; on the other, he has placed by its side a Greek text such as Vulfila himself might have used. He has made it probable that the Greek original used by Vulfila for the Gospels resembled closely the Codex Alexandrinus, but not without some remarkable coincidences with the Codex Sinaiticus. That used for the Epistles resembled D', F, G, of the Italian-Greek class. Furthermore, he has shown that Vulfila, although translating directly from the Greek, must have consulted a Latin version, especially in the difficult passages in the Epistles. The results of these minute researches are contained in the foot-notes at the bottom of each page of text. These give us the apparatus for understanding and appreciating Vulfila's work. Thus, Luke i. 3 reads in the Gothic "it hath seemed good to me and to the Holy Spirit." The clause "and to the Holy Spirit" is not found in any Greek manuscript, but occurs in *b*, *g*[1] of the Itala. Similarly, Luke ix. 43 reads in Gothic, "But while they all wondered at all the things that Jesus did, Peter quoth, Master, Why could not we cast that (spirit) out? But Jesus quoth, That kind goeth not out but by prayers and fasting. Then he quoth to his disciples," etc. Peter's question and the answer are found in *f* (Codex Brixianus) of the Itala. Most probably they were interpolated by some copyist from a manuscript like the Brixianus. As an example of critical acuteness we may cite the editor's note to Luke i. 5, in which it is shown that Vulfila mistook the meaning of the Greek ἐφημερία, "course," daily temple-service, and translated it by a word meaning "race, family."

But it is needless to multiply examples, when every page testifies to the editor's untiring research. Our knowledge of Vulfila's life and personality is meagre enough. Dr. Bernhardt appears to have added little, if anything, to the results already gained by Waitz and Bessels. Indeed, so long as no new materials are discovered, we must be content perforce to rest in ignorance upon many of the most important points in the life of the Gothic bishop. He was born in 310 or 311—whether of pure Gothic descent, or the offspring of Cappadocian Christians carried off captives by the Goths in the preceding century, is still a disputed point. Bernhardt inclines to the latter view. In 323 he probably accompanied a Gothic embassy to the empire in the reign of Constantine. In 341 he was consecrated bishop of the Goths by Eusebius, at the Synod of Antioch, and took up his residence north of the Danube. In 348, in consequence of the encroachments of Athanaric, he and his people, with permission from Constantius, settled to the south of the Danube, in Moesia, near Nicopolis. In 360 he took part in the Synod of Constantinople. In 380 or 381 he was summoned by Theodosius to Constantinople, and died there. These few dates and the fact that he was a staunch Arian are all that we can profess to know of one who must have been an extraordinary genius. The more closely we examine his work, the greater becomes our respect for the faithfulness and skill with which it was done. It remains to this day the marvel of all who approach it. We can only regret that so few scholars in this country, and even in England, have been attracted by a literary monument which has fascinated the acutest minds in Germany and which is the key to the Teutonic group of languages.

It may not be superfluous to add that Dr. Bernhardt, although giving the text of the *Skeireins* (explanation of the Gospel of John) and of the fragments of Ezra and Nehemiah, does not regard them as the work of Vulfila, as indeed no modern critic does, and also that his edition is strictly what it professes to be, a critical text-edition, without grammar or glossary. Hence it will not enable us to dispense with the editions of Gabelentz and Löbe and of Heyne.

Histoire des Éventails. Par S. Blondel. (Paris: Renouard; New York: F. W. Christern. 1875. 8vo, pp. iv.-336.)—The recent revival of interest in the charming result of the fan-maker's skill may be said to date from the Loan Exhibition of fans opened in May, 1870, at the South Kensington Museum. M. Blondel confesses that it was a chance remark in a newspaper notice of this fine display—long to be remembered by those who had the good fortune to see its five hundred admirably arranged fans—which suggested to him the preparation of the present volume, much if not all of the matter in which has already appeared in the pages of one of the French art-journals. In the introduction to the excellent catalogue of the Loan Collection, Mr. Sam. Redgrave sketched in a few pages the birth and gradual development of the fan. M. Blondel has made use of most of Mr. Redgrave's references and researches, with the result of rendering his book far fuller of items of interest to English readers than French works of a similar character usually are. In the catalogue of 1870, besides two small

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[1] Sonnets, Songs, and Stories. By Cora Kennedy Aitken, author of 'Legends and Memories of Scotland.'' London: Hodder & Stoughton. 1875. 16mo, pp. vi.-248.

engravings inserted in Mr. Redgrave's text, there were seven full-page woodcuts of fans loaned for exhibition, and, by the courtesy of the South Kensington authorities, M. Blondel has been enabled to reproduce six of these—the one omitted, curiously enough, being an engraving of "No. 146, a dress-fan lent by the Empress of the French." These cuts, which in the catalogue had a fine clean look, and were printed on separate pages of thick tinted paper, do not appear to equal advantage here, where they are merely inserted in the text with printing on the under side, treatment decidedly detrimental to neatness of impression.

M. Blondel has apparently had free access to the leading collections of the French capital; many of his best illustrations are taken from fans in the possession of the former librarian of the Empress, the Count Philippe de St. Albin, and of his sister, Mme. Achille Jubinal. In chronological sequence, the book describes the fans in use in India, China, and Japan, and among the Egyptians, the Greeks, and the Romans. Then, after noticing briefly the fans of Italy, Spain, and England, it devotes most of its space to the fans of France—with justice, for in France alone is fan-making raised to the dignity of one of the fine arts. There the *éventailliste*, or artist-manufacturer, suggests a subject, giving out *mount* and *stick*—to use the technical terms—to separate hands; generally, however, the stick is subordinate to the mount. In France alone was made the mysterious *vernis-Martin*, of which neither Mr. Redgrave nor M. Blondel is able to tell us much. In France alone have celebrated painters not refused to spend their skill upon the decoration of a fan-mount: to mention only a few out of many, Boucher, Watteau, Lancret, Hamon, Gérôme, and, strange to say, Gavarni have painted fans. There is in the possession of a lady of this city a beautiful fan painted by Hamon, whose delicate style seems admirably adapted for such dainty work. Engravings of two other of his fans will be found in the obituary notice of him in the *Gazette des Beaux-Arts* for February, 1875.

In France, fans of necessity followed the changes of fashion and politics, and, like the pottery of the people, they became patriotic during the Revolution. Under Louis XVI., they were decorated with versified adulation of Necker set to music, both words and notes appearing in full on the fan. Louis himself, meeting with a quatrain by Lemierre which he liked, had written it upon the fan of Marie-Antoinette, much to the delight of the courtiers, who chose to credit the king with the authorship. The lines are rather better than the poetry of kings:

> "Dans le temps des chaleurs extrêmes,
> Heureux d'amuser vos loisirs
> Je saurai près de vous appeler les Zéphires;
> Les Amours y viendront d'eux-mêmes."

Although M. Blondel professes to give the history of fans among all peoples and at all epochs, he makes no mention anywhere of the only fan modern America has produced. Montezuma's mighty fans—apparently resembling those borne beside the Pope during high festivals at St. Peter's — eceive due notice, but by some unaccountable oversight nothing is said of the ingenicus feather-fan made by the aborigines of Niagara.

Backsheesh; or, Life and Adventures in the Orient. By T. W. Knox. (Hartford: A. D. Worthington & Co. 1875.)—The supplementary title of this book states that it contains "descriptive and humorous sketches of sights and scenes over the Atlantic, down the Danube, through the Crimea, in Turkey, Greece, Asia Minor, Syria, Palestine, and Egypt; up the Nile, in Nubia and Equatorial Africa, etc., etc." Mr. Knox made this extended journey principally for the purpose of amusement, and looked upon everything he saw as part of a comedy got up for his special entertainment. His humor is not of a delicate sort, and is, in fact, often vulgar and coarse, having its roots in a total lack of reverence. In the descriptions of Damascus and Jerusalem there is a soberness which is slightly akin to awe, but usually the tone is one of great flippancy in regard to historical places and personages of whom we are accustomed to speak with some amount of respect. This rollicking, *nil-admirari* treatment of antiquities has been so thoroughly and cleverly worked up by Mark Twain that it seems somewhat tame in the hands of any one else. Throughout his journey Mr. Knox's exertions were largely devoted to outwitting hackmen, dragomans, guides, Oriental shopkeepers, etc., in the matter of charges, and he was usually successful—sometimes in a most laughable way, as when he discharged a guide who would not make the ascent of Mount Pentelicus *alone*.

There is considerable information scattered through the book, in regard to routes and charges, which might be very useful to travellers. Most of it, perhaps, can be found in guide-books, but it impresses one more distinctly when accompanied with the actual experience of a traveller. The illustrations are very numerous, nearly two hundred and fifty in all, and are about equally divided between cities and ruins and personal mishaps with donkeys, camels, and sea-sickness—the latter being rather more pointed than witty.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Author.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*
Alzog (Rev. J.), Universal Church History. Vol. II. (Robt. Clarke & Co.)	$5 00
A Kempis (T.), Imitation of Christ. (E. P. Dutton & Co.)	1 25
Blackie (Prof. J. S.), Songs of Religion and Life (Scribner, Armstrong & Co.)	1 50
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 2, 1876.

The Week.

THE Syndicate, having succeeded in selling all the five per cent. bonds authorized by law, now want the privilege of trying a 4½ per cent. bond, to be made attractive to solid investors here and in Europe by the length of time which it runs. Accordingly, a bill has been introduced and passed by the Senate changing the time which 4½ per cent. bonds run from 15 years to 30 years, and, to make the transaction larger, increasing the amount of 4½ per cent. bonds from $300,000,000, as now authorized, to $500,000,000. It is a matter of record that every syndicate operation, since the refunding began, has cost the country more or less gold, and has accordingly made it more difficult for the Treasury to get the gold needed for the work of resumption. While, therefore, it is desirable that the Government should pay as low a rate of interest on its bonds as possible, it is nevertheless a question whether after all it is not a positive loss to disturb the bonded debt when by so doing payment of the demand debt is deferred, and public attention is diverted from the main question.

Besides the passage of the Funding Act and the West Point Appropriations Bill (with amendments) neither Senate nor House has accomplished anything of importance. The Senate has received a large number of petitions protesting against the repeal of the Bankrupt Act, and has discussed Mr. Anthony's resolution with regard to the accurate printing of debates, but without coming to any decision. One event of the week has been the appearance of Senator Sharon of Nevada, who was elected Senator some nine months ago, but has not thought it worth while to come to Washington before. In the House, the 3.65 District Bond Conference report has been discussed and the whole matter postponed a week, the February interest on the bonds remaining, we believe, still unpaid. The Democratic Currency Caucus Committee has had a hard week of it in endeavoring to reconcile the conflicting views of those who "roar for more soft-money" and those who are opposed to this roar. The committee is pretty evenly divided on the subject, there being some eight hard-money men on it and five anti-contractionists, as they call themselves, headed by Mr. Holman. The subject has been brought up in the House also, with the almost instantaneous result of an adjournment, hard-money Democrats uniting with Republicans in the vote; the object of the former being to prevent action on resolutions introduced by the inflationists, and the latter desiring to prevent a vote on Democratic resolutions demanding an enquiry into the whiskey frauds and Babcock's case.

The verdict of "not guilty" in General Babcock's case was probably a surprise to most people, both in and out of St. Louis, and perhaps to none more than to the General himself. Judge Dillon's charge was decidedly in the defendant's favor, rather from what he omitted to say than from any positive instructions. He referred to the high character given the accused by the President, but did not call attention to the fact that his admitted acts had not been those of a man answering to the President's description of him, and he made no reference to the color given to his telegrams and letters by the circumstance of the correspondence being clandestine. He also gave the jury a warning not to be influenced by popular clamor, but did not caution them at all against the influence of a great name and high station. All this may have been perfectly right, but it certainly helped the defendant. There can be little doubt that the political effect of the acquittal will be bad; this much may be inferred from the sudden appearance upon the scene of several notorious political scamps who had been keeping quiet lately, headed by Boss Shepherd, and their telegraphing in very blasphemous terms their exultation over the result. Every corrupt gauger, distiller, rectifier, or revenue officer, in or out of jail, gave a sigh of relief when he heard of it.

District-Attorney Bliss has explained the proceedings of Sherman, the deputy whom he sent to the West to hunt up evidence for the Government, and who turned over what he found to General Babcock's counsel. He says that Sherman found valuable evidence which went to show General Babcock's innocence; that he—Sherman—feared that if he turned it over to Dyer it would be suppressed, and he therefore turned it over to Babcock. This conduct, Mr. Bliss says, was perfectly proper; but this is so obvious that we wonder at any question being raised about it. Mr. Bliss is a *bouffe* district-attorney, and has been acting under the orders of an Attorney-General who issued only the other day a *bouffe* order warning his subordinates that hereafter anybody who turned State's evidence against the Whiskey Rings would be severely punished by the Government. In *bouffe* prosecutions, the Government always collects the evidence, and then hands it over to the defence. Offenbach is coming to this country in a few weeks, direct from the Duchy of Gerolstein, to study our institutions, and we trust the opportunity may not be lost to bring about a meeting between him and Messrs. Bliss and Pierrepont.

Mr. James E. Lyon, who, as we have once or twice stated in these columns, knows more about the secret history of the Emma Mine than almost any other man living, has told his story to the House Committee on Foreign Affairs, and a shocking story it is. There are one or two features of it which deserve attention. Mr. Lyon corroborates on every important point the story of the mine as it was related in Mr. Paffard's pamphlet (which we reviewed in the *Nation* some two years ago). His position was that of actual owner of a large interest in the ore which had been taken out of the mine; and when he found that Park and Stewart were going to sell it, he clung to them in the hope of getting his money, and he was thus brought into close relations with them, and they were forced into giving him a great deal of valuable information that no one else could ever have got at. The Schenck transaction he corroborates in every important point. The story will, we fear, be cold comfort for Mr. Williams, who estimates at $25,000 the damage done to his character by the statement that he prepared the Emma for Prof. Silliman's inspection; for Lyon says that Park told him that Williams was "the best man in the world to fix a mine for examination," and that he had "fixed up the Mariposa" for him. The story implicates a good many persons besides Park and Stewart whose cases will now have to be looked into. As to the condition of the mine at the time of the sale in England, Lyon has a letter from Stewart in which it is spoken of as "worked out."

The State Department, in response to the resolution of enquiry voted the other day by the House, has furnished the same Committee with copies of the correspondence between the Department and Gen. Schenck, showing that on his connection with the mine attracting attention from the press in England, he addressed a telegram to the Department saying that "his entire interest in the enterprise arose from the ownership of certain shares for which, after investigation, *he had paid dollar for dollar*" (the italics are ours), and "that he had become a director at the solicitation of respectable Americans, to protect their interests and his own," but offering to withdraw if it was deemed advisable. The Department replied, on the 28th of November, that the advertisement of his name as "a director of a Company seeking to dispose of its shares in the country to which he was accredited was ill-advised, unfortunate, and calculated to subject him to criticism," and earnestly advised him to withdraw

his name. On the 12th of January following, Schenck enclosed to Mr. Fish a copy of a letter addressed to the chairman of the Company, dated the 6th of December, resigning his directorship, and cited the well-known case of Saldanha and the Lisbon tramway in palliation or justification of his own conduct. On the 20th of December he also telegraphed, on hearing that a resolution of enquiry had passed the Senate, that he was ready for investigation. Mr. Fish then adds the following remarkable statement:

"As the resolution of the House makes a reference to the action of the Executive Department of the Government on this question, I deem it due to Gen. Schenck, as a public officer who has had various and important public trusts, and who has for many years occupied a prominent position before the country, to further state that the course adopted in the Department growing out of these facts was based on the conviction that, while the use of the name of the Minister of the United States in such an enterprise was inconsistent with his position, at the same time Gen. Schenck had been guilty of no wrong purpose or intent in connecting himself with the Company in question. I remain firmly of this opinion, and am, further, satisfied that he, in common with many others, became a sufferer thereby."

As Mr. Fish is a man of unimpeached honor, and as no recent change has to our knowledge been made in the fundamental principles of morality and in the usages which govern the conduct of gentlemen in matters of trust, we take it for granted that, when he wrote the above, he had not read Schenck's own deposition in London and the copy of his agreement with Park. If he will do so, he will see that when Schenck said that he had invested in shares and "paid dollar for dollar" for them, he was guilty of gross falsehood. He had, on the contrary, simply secretly borrowed shares from the promoter of the mine, with an agreement which absolutely protected him against loss and secured him eleven per cent. per annum profit, even supposing he paid Park seven per cent. for the use of the shares. Mr. Fish will, therefore, see at a glance that, had this arrangement leaked out, the British purchasers of the shares would have considered Schenck a dishonored man, and themselves the victims of a swindle. We must also call Mr. Fish's attention to the fact that when Schenck, by forwarding him on the 12th of January a copy of a letter of resignation of his directorship dated the 6th December, led him to believe that the resignation had really taken place at the latter date, in consequence of his (Mr. Fish's) telegram of the 28th November, he (Schenck) was again guilty of deceit, inasmuch as his resignation was not announced until January, thus allowing the "respectable Americans" who were promoting the mine a month longer to get rid of their shares before the British public began to suspect. We have therefore no hesitation in assuring the public that, when Mr. Fish finds time to read the documents we have mentioned, he will agree with all Protestant theologians, all modern moralists of reputation, and all gentlemen of civilized countries, in pronouncing Schenck's conduct dishonorable. Many queer things are allowed to pass in official circles just now in Washington, but Mr. Fish is not a man to lower his standard to the Shepherd level under any pressure or temptation. We notice that Mr. Fish also says he is satisfied that "General Schenck is open to no imputations whatever" arising from the Machado matter, but we feel sure that in this case also Mr. Fish has not read the correspondence. We must observe, at the same time, that when the papers were all crying out a month ago on the publication of the Wiard correspondence and the Park agreement that Schenck *must* now come home, we warned the public that he would not resign nor be asked to do so, and that he would stay in his place under the new "Fire" rule; and the reason is that, as the Government is now conducted at Washington, not only do dishonest men do dishonest things, but the honest men who are looking on have forgotten, or are forgetting, what the marks of dishonesty are.

There have been several conventions during the week, the principal ones being those of the Republicans in Indiana and of both parties in Connecticut. In Connecticut, the Republican ticket, headed by Henry C. Harrison, of Hartford, and with Gen. F. A. Walker as candidate for Secretary of State, is a good one, and the resolutions are pronounced for hard-money, as are also those of the Democrats, notwithstanding a desperate attempt on the part of the inflationists to carry the platform. In Indiana, the Republicans have drawn up a series of resolutions as long as an article of a State constitution. They begin by "hailing" the Centennial year, then give a history of the past achievements of the party from the point of view of absolute, unbiassed, historical truth; and then proceed, "in view of this record," to promise faithfulness in the future as in the past; to deny the so-called rights of nullification and secession; to declare the independence of the national and State governments in all cases in which there is not some sort of dependence; to promise amnesty to the penitent and rebuke the impenitent rebel; to demand a reformed civil service; to protest against all encroachments of church on state or state on church; to demand a revenue system which will give "all needful encouragement" to trade, agriculture, manufactures, etc., and bring about "harmonious relations" between labor and capital, and a system of taxation which shall give "the greatest possible exemption" to articles of "primary necessity," and fall most heavily on "luxuries" and "wealth"; to demand the repeal of the Resumption Act, and that the currency be neither contracted nor expanded, but resumption be left to be brought about by the "laws of trade"; to protest against all attacks on the common-school system and other Democratic schemes; and to endorse General Grant as a patriot, and nominate Senator Morton for the Presidency. The State ticket is headed by G. S. Orth for Governor. There is not much in the Wisconsin Republican resolutions except a hard-money plank, an anti-third-term plank, and a quasi-nomination of Mr. Blaine for the Presidency. The Democrats have fixed upon St. Louis as the place and June 27 as the time for their National Convention.

The Advisory Council in Brooklyn, as was expected, decided all the points of procedure submitted to it in favor of Plymouth Church—that is, approved of what the church had done. It threw on Mrs. Moulton the responsibility of the failure of the Mutual Council, by commending the desire of Plymouth Church to exclude the local churches. Before separating, however, it fell in with the suggestion of the Andover Church so far as to appoint a Committee of Three, which should, on the request of Plymouth Church, select a Commission of Five, out of a prepared list of twenty eminent Congregationalists, to be charged with the duty of investigating any accusations that may be made against Mr. Beecher by any person declaring himself responsible for them, within a period of sixty days after the dissolution of the Council, the result of the investigation to be made public. To this Professor Egbert C. Smith, of Andover, makes serious objections in the *Congregationalist*, which we have no time to discuss this week. Mr. Bowen has, in the meantime, read his statement before the Examining Committee, but declined to remain in their company one minute after finishing, not wishing, probably, to submit himself to cross-examination. An attempt to compel or induce him to do so by locking the door was foiled by the good man's flight through the door of the back parlor, and, in his agitation, he called loudly for the "gentlemen of the press," who were on duty on the sidewalk and promptly came to his aid. Brother White, who locked the door, says it was a playful act, while Brother Bowen pronounces it the "greatest outrage of the century." The truth probably lies half-way between these two views. We would recommend, however, that Mr. Bowen be examined next time in chains. We know of no other way of securing the prolonged attendance of so astute and good a man at the meeting of a hostile body desirous of interrogating him on any subject. He likes to give his own account of things and then return promptly to his holy work.

The Treasury, in pursuance of the Sherman Act, has bought silver bullion, issuing bonds to get gold to pay for it, and has now in its vaults between $13,000,000 and $14,000,000 of silver

dimes, quarters, and halves. These coins are worth 95½ in greenbacks, while fractional notes are worth 100; in gold they are worth 83¾ to 84, while fractional currency is worth 87¾—the same as Treasury notes. It was the intention to begin paying out this subsidiary silver coin on the 1st of March, and to herald the movement as the beginning of specie payments and the restoration of a sound currency, on the assumption that the people would, when they saw silver coins in circulation, believe that the small change of the country had been improved. There seems, however, to be some hesitation on the part of the Treasury, and the question is, what can be done with this silver coin? If it be paid out, then the Treasury forces into circulation a currency more debased than any in use. It is true that an advance in the price of silver, now 53⅛d. per ounce in London, the lowest price on record, might bring it up to the gold value of the paper currency, but then the danger would be that it would be exported, and the country left with no small change. To sell it and turn it into gold would entail a heavy loss on the Government, which paid very much more for it than it is now worth. Altogether, this whole business is calculated to bring the cause of sound currency into so much contempt that we are surprised to find an inflationist like Judge Kelley attempting to restrain the Treasury from pursuing to the utmost its "silver resumption" policy. There were during the week no important changes in the Wall-Street markets, if we except a decline in speculative stocks. The bank statement showed a surplus reserve of $13,634,950, which is $1,293,400 less than last week, but $4,200,000 above the corresponding week of last year. In domestic trade the season is late, and the outlook is less encouraging than at the beginning of the year. The gold price of $100 greenbacks during the week ranged between $87 62 and $87 91.

The Carlist war has come to an end by the dispersal and capture of what remained of the Carlist troops and the flight of Don Carlos himself into France. The present contest has lasted four years, or two years less than the war of 1834, and, again unlike the latter, has been ended without foreign assistance. It would undoubtedly not have lasted so long but for the establishment of Castelar's Republic, and the consequent dissolution of the army and uncertainty about the future of the government. Don Carlos was, however, prevented from descending into the low country and taking any advantage of his frequent successes by the fact that the bulk of his followers were local volunteers, who were in arms for the defence of provincial *fueros* still more than for the vindication of the principle of legitimacy, and could hardly have been persuaded to advance on Madrid even if they had been sufficiently equipped for the work. The restoration of Alfonso, and the consequent increase in the vigor and unity of the operations of his army, has brought the end about somewhat more speedily than was expected, and it may be fairly predicted that the Pretender has made his last attempt. He is not likely again in his lifetime to find constitutional government in a state of so much discredit as that into which it had fallen when he raised his standard. His success will probably seat Alfonso firmly on the throne, and at the same time cause considerable discouragement in the ranks of the friends of Ultramontanism and Divine Right throughout Europe. There is not likely to be again, in our time, so strong a conservative reaction as followed on the follies and atrocities of the Commune in France and its counterpart in Spain.

M. Buffet, as was expected, resigned after his complete defeat at the elections, and there was great depression at the Bourse as long as it was uncertain how Marshal MacMahon would deal with the crisis. He met it, however, with perfect good temper, and put M. Dufaure in M. Buffet's place, and made arrangements for an entire reorganization of the Ministry, to be announced in a message at the meeting of the Chambers. All the new members of the Cabinet, except, it is said, the Duc Decazes, General Cissey, and M. Montaignac, will be taken from the Left Centre, which is probably as far to the Left as the Marshal can ever be expected to go. M. Thiers is, in the meantime, engaged in rallying the Moderate Republicans into something like a party, and will probably have the co-operation of Gambetta, and talks, among the fresh measures to be sought, of an amnesty for all the Communists whose offences were purely political or who were plainly misled. The objections to such a step are stronger in France than they would be in any other country in the world, as something which would help to diminish, in the eyes of the city populations, the seriousness of armed attempts at revolution. It is a well-known fact that at least three generations of workingmen have now grown up in Paris to whom stories of street-fighting against the troops were the great interest of their boyhood, and who in their boyhood looked forward to the defence of a barricade as one of the necessary and desirable social experiences. This tradition must be utterly broken before any French government will be completely secure.

The only news of importance from Germany is that of a powerful speech in the parliament at the close of the session, by Prince Bismarck, in which he offered the most earnest assurances of the peaceableness of the new German Empire and of the pacific temper both of the Emperor and himself. All this was apropos of the Press Bill, then under discussion, which gave him the opportunity of throwing the blame of the rumors of war last spring on the newspapers, and accusing them of complicity with the military party and of gross inefficiency in the discharge of their own duties as collectors of news and commentators on it, and of giving notice that the Government would hereafter have no relations with any of them, either official or semi-official. Whereupon, much abuse of the German press has appeared in various quarters, and much depreciation of the character and attainments of its conductors, and much invidious comparison of it with that of England and the United States. Most of this talk is, however, rather idle. The press of a country is the product of its institutions and manners, and the reflection, one may say, of its society, and it may be taken for granted that enterprise in the collection of news or power in the writing of articles will never appear in the press of any country until its complete liberty and independence are guaranteed both by the laws and by public opinion. A good newspaper cannot be made without a heavy outlay of money, and nobody will invest heavily in a business which a police magistrate may any day bring to a standstill.

A wail comes from the Chamber of Commerce in Odessa which will delight the souls of the Grangers. It has issued a report in which it says that, even so recently as 1867, 44 per cent. of the grain imported into England came from Russia. By 1873, 44 per cent. of it came from the United States, and only 21 from Russia. Between those years, it is true, the total export of Russian grain increased about ten per cent., but American total exports increased nearly fifty per cent. Now there is a positive decline in Russian exports. Moreover, the Chamber is afraid matters are going to become worse instead of better under the influence of the improvement and cheapening of transportation in this country, and they are especially alarmed by the improvements at the mouth of the Mississippi. The United States, too, is beating them out of the German market, and they fear additional competition from the Spanish states on the Pacific coast. The Russian banks are trying to place a large amount of real-estate mortgages on the London market to raise money for agricultural improvements; but the trouble with Russia is said to lie too deep for speedy cure, or cure by any investment of capital—viz., in the character of the people and in the constitution of society. It begins to be seen that the peasants, left to themselves since emancipation, and with the communal system of property, cannot compete as producers with the greater intelligence and individual ownership of Western countries, and another and greater revolution than the abolition of serfdom now begins to be called for—viz., the division of property among individuals, which would be a violent break with a social system thousands of years older than serfdom, and far more deeply rooted in the manners.

GENERAL BABCOCK AND THE ARMY.

THERE can be little doubt that a verdict of "not guilty" was the only one left to the jury in General Babcock's case by the facts as actually presented to them. The evidence introduced by the Government and admitted by the Court positively proved only as much as this—that there had been a conspiracy between the distillers and internal-revenue officers in St. Louis to defraud the Government of the whiskey tax, to which Joyce, a revenue agent, and McDonald, the supervisor, were parties; that these men were on intimate terms with General Babcock, who was in a position of trust and confidence in the President's household, and therefore was exactly the man needed by the conspirators to inform them of intended descents by revenue agents—the daily danger which they had to guard against; and that on several occasions, when the Ring had objects to further at Washington, in one case the appointment of an internal-revenue officer, in the others the prevention of descents, Babcock was discovered in active correspondence with the Ring, and rendering them material assistance. The first of these occasions was in 1873 after the death of Ford, the collector—a man greatly trusted by General Grant, but after his death suspected of being a "whiskey thief"—when Babcock interested himself in a very suspicious way in securing the appointment for the Ring's man, Constantine Maguire, since convicted.

The next evidence introduced by the Government showed that in the spring of 1874 Douglass, then Commissioner of Internal Revenue, becoming suspicious of Joyce, determined to pack him off to California, and to send a revenue agent by the name of Hogue to St. Louis to look into matters there; that notice of this intended descent was at once telegraphed by Avery, the chief clerk of the Treasury Department and one of the Ring (since convicted), to Joyce, who telegraphed back, "Telegrams received. Start for San Francisco Sunday night. All perfect here"—meaning evidently that no illicit whiskey was being made; and that at the same time he telegraphed to Babcock, "Start for San Francisco to-morrow night. Make D. call off his scandal-hounds, that only blacken the memory of poor F. (Ford) and friends. Business"; that General Babcock went to D. (Douglass) and made enquiries about the intended descent. But there is no proof that he tried to prevent the descent, and the letter which he wrote in reply to Joyce's telegram contains nothing compromising.

Joyce now went to California, but returned by leave in June, and went at once to Washington, and, on enquiry, finding there was no danger, telegraphed McDonald to "let the machine go"—or, in other words, to begin work again. Later in the summer it was determined by the Internal-Revenue Department to send Brooks, a Secret-Service detective, and Hogue, the agent, to make an investigation, and the Ring, as usual, became nervous, and began to telegraph actively. In this correspondence Babcock appears, for the first time, actively working to prevent a "raid." It was proved that on October 25 Joyce telegraphed him: "Have you talked with D.? Are things right? How?" and, on December 3, "Has Secretary or Commissioner ordered anybody here?" that a letter from Brooks to Rogers, Douglass's deputy-commissioner, relating to the intended descent, was stolen from his (Rogers's) desk, and next appeared in Babcock's possession (it was admitted that he had not stolen it); that this letter he took both to the President and to Douglass, urging on Douglass that the letter looked like blackmail—though this was obviously an absurd interpretation of it—asking him what "a sensitive man like Logan" would think if he saw such a letter, and suggesting that a superior class of persons ought to be used for work of this kind, and saying pretty much the same thing to the President; that on December 13, 1874, Douglass told Babcock that the proposed visit of Brooks and Hogue to St. Louis was "off," and that on this Babcock telegraphed McDonald at St. Louis: "I succeeded. They will not go. I will write you." This was the first despatch signed "Sylph," and usually referred to as the "Sylph" despatch.

About January 27, 1875, it was determined by the Commissioner, after consultation with the President, to issue an order transferring the supervisors and revenue agents from one district to another. The Ring immediately began to telegraph, protesting against the order, and it was proved that Babcock again actively interfered, with Douglass and Rogers, to have the order rescinded; that while he was doing so Joyce telegraphed him (February 3): "We have official information that the enemy weakens. Push things." This despatch was also signed "Sylph," and the order was, as a matter of fact, almost immediately rescinded, on the ground, according to the President's testimony, that it would only be likely to serve as a warning to the thieves, and that an unannounced descent of some kind would be preferable. This correspondence was all in cipher, and carried on without the knowledge of the President. It was also proved that after McDonald had been indicted, and suspicion fallen on Babcock, the latter opened a clandestine correspondence with him through a third person; but this correspondence was not produced by either side on the trial.

In estimating the weight which this written evidence ought to have, there are several things necessary to be taken into consideration *pro* and *con*. There is, in the first place, the obvious consideration that on the theory of guilt it is all easily explicable. If Babcock had been one of the conspirators he would have taken just the interest he did take in furthering the objects of the St. Louis Ring, and the same means to conceal his connection with it. The appointment of Ford's successor would have aroused all his energies, and when he found that Hogue and Brooks were going to St. Louis, or that the supervisors were to be shifted about so that a new man would be placed in McDonald's place, he would (as a guilty man) have taken just the measures to have the orders rescinded that he did take, by going to Douglass or Rogers or the President and representing to them that public considerations required the use of other means. The attempt of the defence to break this down by showing that the order shifting the supervisors was really withdrawn because the President and his advisers had come to the conclusion that more effective steps might be taken, has in reality nothing in it. The question is not what the President wanted, but what the Ring wanted, and there is no question that they were greatly alarmed at the news of the order with regard to the supervisors, and began to use the most strenuous exertions to get it rescinded. When we find Babcock telegraphing under an assumed name in cipher to Joyce: "I succeeded. They will not go. I will write you," and when we find Joyce using the same signature, and telegraphing about the "weakening of the enemy" and "pushing things," and also find that things are pushed, we can only say that all this was eminently natural if Babcock were guilty, but otherwise not. And not only his despatches, but those from the other side also addressed to him, are all explicable and natural on the theory that he was, in 1874 and 1875, bound to the Ring by the closest ties. It must also be remembered that, if Babcock were innocent, he was not merely an unconcerned spectator of what was going on, but, from his position, bound to do what he could to acquaint the President and the Revenue Department with any important facts that came to his knowledge relating to the conspiracy which was all the time believed to exist. All the telegrams he received should have been shown at once; but instead of this he carries on a secret correspondence with the conspirators, and does whatever they ask him to do at Washington.

On the other hand, it cannot be denied that the evidence is very fragmentary, and that there was no positive proof of any motive on Babcock's part. The Government undertook to prove that he received money from the Ring by mail, and a pecuniary motive would certainly be the natural one in such a case; but the only witness produced for this purpose was unable to swear positively to the fact of a letter containing money having been even addressed to General Babcock. There was no proof of its being received; so that, leaving out of view the extraordinary testimony of a letter-carrier who swore that he took the letter out of the mail and returned it to Joyce, it cannot be said that Babcock was proved even to have been offered any money.

Under these circumstances, no jury could have properly found the accused guilty. In a criminal case, a jury is not allowed to decide by a preponderance of probabilities, but must, to bring in a verdict of guilty, be satisfied beyond a "reasonable doubt" of the guilt. With the meagre evidence before them, without the benefit of hearing from General Babcock's own lips this explanation of his telegrams, or of having him tested by cross-examination, it cannot be said that his guilt was established beyond a reasonable doubt. The case illustrates very forcibly the barbarism of the common law on the subject of criminal verdicts, which, excluding by strictly artificial rules a great deal of the most important evidence, at the same time forces a jury either to acquit or to convict. The Scotch verdict "not proven" is the only one which comports with the facts in such a case as that of General Babcock.

But though the verdict of "not guilty" was, under the circumstances, the only proper one for the jury to render, the real question at issue was not whether, by resorting to every legal device in the exclusion of the evidence, a verdict of guilty could be prevented, but whether General Babcock was actually innocent. The public is in possession of a great deal of evidence on this point which did not get to the jury at all, and, when it is considered in connection with the other, his case cannot be said to be improved.

The most important of this evidence is the fact that the behavior of General Babcock since proceedings against him began has been that of a guilty man. On first learning of the accusation against him he telegraphed to St. Louis proclaiming his innocence, promising a full explanation of all his correspondence, and demanding to be heard in his defence in St. Louis. At the same time he was privately telegraphing to Luckey, the other secretary, instructions to his counsel in these words, "Tell him to employ assistance if he wants, and means, but to prevent my going there now at all hazards"; and when the trial actually took place he got the telegrams sent for this purpose ruled out on the ground that they were "confidential communications." His clandestine correspondence with McDonald he neither produced nor explained, and of his long correspondence with Joyce, extending over a period of three or four years, he omitted to produce any which related to the years 1874 and 1875, though he did produce a quantity of letters written before that time, and showing a very different relation existing between the two men from that which must have existed when they were sending "Sylph" despatches to each other. From first to last, he struggled to prevent any fragment of evidence from going to the jury which the Government did not itself produce. To cap the climax, no sort of rational explanation of the more mysterious despatches was offered even by his counsel.

In estimating the effect which the result of this trial ought to have on General Babcock's future, it will not do to forget that he held two relations to the public service. He is not merely the President's secretary, but is an officer of the army besides. The army has always been above all other professions a school of honor, and has professed to test, by a standard altogether nicer and more sensitive than that of courts of justice, the conduct of its members. What it asks is, not whether an officer has or has not committed an indictable offence, but whether he has been guilty of conduct "unbecoming an officer and a gentleman"; and in discovering this it is not bound by any technical rules of evidence or law. The military idea of the "officer and gentleman," as settled by the practice of military courts and by usage, especially excludes want of frankness or sincerity or truthfulness. The telegram, for instance, from Babcock to Luckey, telling him, at the very time that he was clamoring for an opportunity to clear himself, that his counsel in St. Louis must prevent his going there now at all hazards, was not sent by "an officer and a gentleman," and it was not the act of an officer and a gentleman, but that of a pettifogging criminal, to have it ruled out as a "privileged communication." And the whole farcical spectacle of a gentleman of high character, as the President declared him to be, accused of crime, first promising to explain all, and then sitting down as dumb as an oyster and keeping all the evidence to himself, is, in the eye of military usage, utterly disgraceful. It is before a military tribunal that General Babcock ought to be summoned now. The present position of his case makes his retention in the army a public scandal, and his request, if he has really made it, to be assigned to active duty, is a piece of impudence which, if there were no such thing as "politics," would probably result in the loss of his commission on the spot. When the case first came up, General Babcock's demand for a military court of enquiry was preposterous, because all the evidence was in the hands of the District Attorney, and consequently beyond the court's reach. Now the evidence has been all produced, and the only remaining question is, What should be done with an officer whose conduct is such as to require a semi-official announcement from Washington that his resignation is in the President's hands? Ought he to be suspended or cashiered? Now that it is proposed to transfer the Indian Bureau to the care of the army, the maintenance of a rigid standard of military honor becomes of more importance than ever. The work which the army, in case of such a transfer, will undertake is nothing more nor less than watching the acts and preventing the frauds of agents and contractors who stand in the relation to the Indian Bureau that Joyce and McDonald did to the Internal Revenue. Sharpness, vigilance, and open honesty, a single eye to the interest of the Government, are the qualifications for such a duty, and we have no doubt the army is the place to look for these qualities. But these are just the qualities General Babcock has not displayed. There is, we suppose, no question in anybody's mind that his retention in the White House after such revelations as we have had of his character is a public outrage, and to send him back to the army after dismissal from any position—even that of a White House scullion—for acts such as those he has been guilty of would be a gross insult to the army, and the corrupting effect it would have on the tone of that branch of the service can hardly be estimated.

THE FRENCH REPUBLIC.

THE constitution of 1791 in France was upset in the following year by the insurrection in Paris of the terrible Tenth of August. The constitution of 1793 was then adopted, but the Convention which framed it suspended it before it went into operation, and established a revolutionary provisional government, composed of the Committee of Public Safety. This government was put an end to by the killing of the more important members of the Committee, and a commission was then appointed to draw up another constitution—that of 1795—in which the government was lodged in the hands of a Council of Elders and a Council of Five Hundred, with an executive Directory of five members. This lasted until 1799, when Bonaparte came home from Egypt and overturned it with a battalion of grenadiers, and made a new constitution, with an executive of three Consuls, of whom he himself was naturally the chief. This lasted three years, for in 1802 Bonaparte, feeling that it was ridiculous for as good a soldier as he was to have colleagues, ordered his own election by popular vote as Consul for life. This lasted two years, and then the Empire was established in 1804. This lasted until the overthrow of the Emperor in 1814, when another constitution was framed restoring the monarchy, which lasted until the Revolution of 1830, when another constitution set up what was called "the Monarchy of July," which was overthrown by the Revolution of 1848. Another constitution—this time republican—was then adopted which lasted until 1851, when it too was set aside by the *coup d'état*, and the Empire restored, which lasted until 1870, when another revolution lodged the power once more in the hands of a Provisional Government, and finally in that of an Assembly composed in the main of Royalists. We have gone over the governmental changes in French history since 1789 simply for the purpose of calling attention to the fact that every government set up, from that year until 1870, was the direct result either of the use of violence by the populace or of the threats of violence on the part of the person commanding the army. The new constitution, too, was in

every sense the work of the victors in an armed conflict, and was intended to express, and did express, the political views of the party which for the time being happened to be dominant in Paris, the capital.

One has to bear all these facts in mind in order to appreciate the importance for France, and doubtless for Europe also, of the establishment which we have just witnessed of a new government. The number of happy accidents which have contributed to or accompanied the work, has been so great as to tempt anybody who chose to be superstitious into the belief that a run of luck had begun for a country which has become notorious for the extent and duration of its political misfortunes. The rising which overthrew the Second Empire was undoubtedly due to the tremendous military disaster of Sedan, but had it not been for the continuance of the war, with its still more appalling subsequent reverses, we should undoubtedly have witnessed the proclamation by the mob of another republic of the old type, destined, in all probability, to excite general alarm, like the others, and after a brief period of trial to share the fate of the others; for the men who figured most prominently in bringing about the "déchéance" were Reds and adventurers of the same kind as those who obtained control of the Government in 1848. The prolongation of the war and the siege of Paris speedily reduced these men to insignificance, and compelled the transfer of the seat of government to the country districts, leaving the politicians of the capital, to use Bismarck's coarse but happy phrase, "to cook in their own grease." We all laughed a good deal when Gambetta went to Tours in a balloon and began issuing proclamations against the enemy on the line of the Loire, and there was a good deal that was laughable about it; but he was doing something which he had no intention of doing, and which may prove more important to France than the defeat of the Germans would have proved—that is, breaking the spell by which Paris had held the popular imagination for so many centuries, and proving to the peasantry that there might be a government outside Paris, and that all was not lost when the capital was lost, and all was not ended when the capital had spoken. The meeting of the Assembly at Bordeaux afterwards and the negotiation of the peace from that point, was another valuable confirmation of this view, and had doubtless a powerful influence on public opinion. For the first time since 1789 the occurrence of great events in Paris had not settled anything for the nation at large. The mob had "descended into the streets" and overturned the Empire, but the power to decide what should succeed it had passed out of their hands.

The new Assembly was largely monarchical in its composition, and it was fresh from panic-stricken country districts in which the destruction of the army had discredited the Empire, and Gambetta's frantic efforts at resistance had discredited the Republic. On the old plan, the proper course for the Assembly under such circumstances would have been to recall the king and proclaim a monarchy. But here again Providence seems to have interposed through M. Thiers and procured time for deliberation, under that agreement to postpone the determination of the form of the government known as the "Pact of Bordeaux." But then this, doubtless, could not have been brought about if the Germans had not held France by the throat, and were not standing ready to carry fire and sword down to the shores of the Mediterranean. The willingness of the Royalists to wait is entitled to all the more praise because at that time the follies of Gambetta, whom M. Thiers did not hesitate to call a "raging madman," had made the Republic seem another name for anarchy and dismemberment. The rising of the Commune which followed was simply the attempt of the Paris mob to reassume their old supremacy, and was inspired by rage at the sight of independent action by the country outside; and the contest which followed made the lesson of the war complete and, we trust, enduring, for it showed that Paris might rise, expel the Government, and resist desperately, without in any way changing the political situation—that, in short, for political purposes Paris was no longer France.

The five years of struggle in the Assembly which have since followed have been also a most valuable piece of political experience. The Monarchists have had, in the first place, the fullest opportunity for a peaceful trial of their own strength and of the temper of the country. They were left to discover, without let or hindrance, the depth of the chasm which separates the last descendant of the old line of kings from the nation. They found out for themselves that Henry V. had become an impossibility, and they acknowledged it. They gave him up when he wrote his letter. They discovered, too, by incessant discussion and by the trial of all sorts of combinations, how much divided they were on fundamental questions, and how little fitted they were as a party to take charge of the Government. They were brought to the adoption of the new constitution, not by the guillotine or the bayonet, or by fear for their fortunes, or by any of the old forms of coercion, but simply by five years of steady debate. The effect of this delay on Gambetta and his following was no less marked and no less happy. The Gambetta whose moderation and tactical skill we are now all admiring is by no means the Gambetta of 1871, nor yet even of 1873. He is neither any longer a Red Dictator nor Radical Reformer. He has abandoned the notion that the Republic is of divine origin, and has ceased to believe in the necessity of a new "couche sociale." Four or five years of experience in a really free parliamentary body, with, on the whole, opportunities for testing public opinion such as public men in France have never before enjoyed, have cooled his ardor, taught him the conditions of healthy political life, and revealed to him why it is that Frenchmen have feared republican government. He has got over the belief that any class of his countrymen are enemies to be hunted down or denounced, and has learned that opinions, however outrageous or dangerous, are best met by moderation and persuasion; that the gravest political problems are best solved by not trying to solve them completely; and that really good laws are, as Sir Matthew Hale said, "the production of the wisest thing in the world—Time." In short, he has become competent to give lessons to some zealots and demagogues among ourselves, and might profitably harangue Mr. O. P. Morton on "outrages" and the best method of dealing with them.

The new constitution, therefore, comes into existence under the happiest auspices. It is the product of peaceful discussion, after all the worst traditions of French politics have been discredited or destroyed by the utter failure of their supporters to devise anything else. It has been adopted by the country, in vote so free that—an event unprecedented we believe in French political history—the head of the Ministry has been unable to find a constituency in all France to return him to either branch of the legislature. It is placed, too, as far as material conditions are concerned, under the protection of an executive officer who, though not a great political head, is a gallant soldier and, what is far better, an honest gentleman, who keeps the company not of "Bosses" or speculators or gamblers, but of whatever is best in French society both morally and intellectually, and who undoubtedly does desire to give his country rest and to assure her future. And though last, not least, it goes into operation just as the people have received the most admirable illustration possible of the integrity and skill and wisdom of the national financiers, and the prudence and intelligence with which their contributions to the national treasury are managed. We may fairly hope, therefore, that the wanderings of France in the political wilderness are over, and that she has at last reached the promised land, though it must be admitted that as long as the army is as large as it is, and the temper of the people as volcanic, no political experiment can be watched with complete confidence in the result until it has lasted much longer than any of those already tried have done. What she needs above all things is to pass into the hands of a generation which has known nothing of the violent transfer of power or of its lawless exercise, and on which the established order of things has secured the strong and enduring hold of habit; and that she will effect this transition through the Septennate seems now if not certain extremely probable.

A SENATORIAL ELECTION IN FRANCE.

PARIS, February 11, 1876.

THE elections for the new French Senate have taken place, and I have had the curiosity to see how they would take place in one of the Departments. The origin of this new creation may be cited among the few well-ascertained cases of spontaneous generation. Living, as I do, among politicians of all shades, I could not say with exactitude who invented the curious mode of suffrage which has given existence to the new Senate. The American Senate is a representation of the States, and this representation has an historical cause; our constitution-mongers felt that they were obliged not to give to the Upper House the same origin as to the Lower House—that one chamber was enough for the representation of mere numbers, of the passing and fleeting passions of the day. They dared not give a distinct representation to the Departments, which were the artificial creation of the French Convention, though the Departments have now lived long enough to have a sort of permanent entity; not knowing exactly what to represent, they hit upon the curious idea of representing the French Communes. Now, what is a Commune? If you travel through the country you see from time to time on the horizon a spire, or a tower—it is the old church. If you get nearer you will see on some little square opposite the church the *mairie*, which is not seldom adorned with the tricolor flag. Three or four houses with gardens will mark the places where live the chief landholders, and, if the place is a little important, sometimes the notary, with the two gilt *panonceaux* over his door; all the other houses are the homes of the peasantry. This Commune has its little municipal council and its mayor; and the mayor is named by the prefect, and can be chosen outside of the municipal council. Of such Communes there are as many as 36,000 all over the country, their population varying from a few hundred souls to the two million or more which represent the population of Paris. Now, in a country where equality has become the ruling passion, imagine a system of representation which gives the same importance to the poor little hamlet lost in the solitude and to the capital, and you will have the system which has become the basis of the Senatorial elections. And what is still more extraordinary, this political importance was given to the Commune just after the movement which had made the name of "Commune" synonymous with rebellion and crime. Each Commune, however, was allowed the right of naming a senatorial elector, and while the discussion of any political subject is strictly forbidden inside of the municipal councils, these delegates were entrusted with the nomination of the Senators, of the legislators of the country.

The first act was therefore the nomination of the delegates. In most of the 760 Communes of the Department of the Oise, which I had selected as the theatre of my observations, the municipal councils chose their mayors for delegates. The proportion of the mayors who were named to those who were not was 87 per cent.; and in the instances which seemed to mark an opposition between the councils and the mayors must be classed a few cases of sick mayors who could not well travel to the *chef-lieu* of the Department, and a few cases of absent mayors. The day of the election the delegates started in various directions for Beauvais, some in their own carriages, some by the special trains which had been provided for them by the railway companies. As soon as they arrived at Beauvais they found themselves in a sort of political paradise. Obliging friends were waiting for them at the station; all the councillors-general were there in attendance; they had provided for rooms and for meals at the little hotels of the place. Men came from all sides and very politely handed them electoral tickets. I noticed that the good country mayors never refused anything; they took every ticket which was offered them and placed them with much care in their pockets. They resorted to the lodgings which had been prepared for them, took breakfast, and then made their way on foot to the court-house, a charming building in the best Renaissance style, which stands just opposite the magnificent and, alas! unfinished cathedral of the Middle Ages. In the court-house was the prefect, with his staff of sub-prefects and *conseillers de préfecture*. How polite and amiable they all were! How they shook hands with the good country electors! The prefect, however, was only a witness of the ceremony. The electoral proceedings, according to the terms of the law, were to take place under the supervision of the president of the court, so as to give a sort of judicial dignity to them. Many conversations took place before the proceedings began. The Government had very honestly refused to have official candidates—that is to say, nobody was allowed to give himself out as such, or to sign himself on the placards, as was the fashion in the Imperial times, "M. X——, *candidat du Gouvernement*." The Administration could not help, however, having its favorites, and the prefect and the sub-prefects were free to recommend them individually to the delegates whom they personally knew, or who asked for their advice.

The Department of the Oise contains only two very important personages, who both have much influence as landowners: one is the Duc d'Aumale, the proprietor of Chantilly; the other is the Duc de Mouchy, the proprietor of Mouchy, now allied to the Bonapartes by his marriage with the handsome Princess Murat. The Duc d'Aumale, who has completely devoted himself to his important military duties, is still the President of the Council-General of the Department, and as such he had come to Beauvais on the day of the election. The Duc de Mouchy being under forty could not offer himself as senator; but he had composed his list of three Bonapartists—a country gentleman, a colonel of the army, and an ex-deputy of the Empire. The Duc d'Aumale had made no list; for, being in cordial sympathy with the existing Government, he had said that he would give his support to the list of the Administration. The Republicans had made their own list, and, as they are not strong in the Department of the Oise, they had taken two names from the Government list, and simply added as their own nominee Colonel d'Andlau, the author of the famous book on the capitulation of Metz. This was not bad policy on their part, as it was the publication of this book which rendered necessary the judgment of Marshal Bazaine; it was, therefore, not easy for the Duc d'Aumale, who had been obliged to pass judgment on Bazaine, to make much opposition to Colonel d'Andlau. Everybody in Paris expected a large return of votes for the Bonapartist list; neither the Duke nor the Administration had done any canvassing or made any agitation in the Department, while the Duc de Mouchy and his partisans had been moving heaven and earth. The Duc de Mouchy was seen everywhere shaking hands with all the country mayors, and, as he is personally much liked, he received everywhere marks of public sympathy. The vote took place in great silence and with much solemnity. Each delegate was called by name, and dropped his carefully-folded paper into the urn. When the numbers were read, it was found that two candidates of the Administration were elected; the candidate who came third was Colonel d'Andlau, but he had not an absolute majority. The Bonapartists were out of the race. A second balloting took place, and this time Colonel d'Andlau was elected. The election of the Oise, therefore, ended in a complete defeat of the Bonapartists in one of the most Conservative departments of France. They have been more successful in other places, but many of their leaders have been defeated. On the whole, they have been disappointed in their expectations, and they now exclaim against what they call the "restricted" suffrage, and make an appeal to universal suffrage, of which they profess to be the only apostles.

It is very difficult to say with any precision what our new Senate will be. If it were not for the seventy-five life-members who were named by the late Assembly, the majority would belong to those who style themselves Constitutionalists—men who have accepted the present constitution, but who have not been Republicans before. There are ninety-seven of such Constitutionalists on the list I have before me, and I can only find thirty Republicans proper—men who were always attached to the Republic. There are not more than forty Bonapartists, and I give this name to those candidates who spoke in their circulars of the revision of the constitution and of the direct appeal to the people. The Republicans will command about one hundred and forty votes, but will not have a working majority. The Constitutionalists will have about one hundred votes. It is quite clear that in all questions affecting the actual republican constitution the Bonapartists will be completely crushed; but, in those questions which may be called social, they will be able to throw themselves on the side of the Constitutionalists or conservatives, and will help them keep the advanced Republicans in check. In all personal questions affecting the existence of a Cabinet they will play fast and loose, as they did in the late Assembly.

If we look only at the great features of the situation, it cannot be denied that the Bonapartist party has been defeated, and this proves that the country is not alarmed at the present state of things. The chief reason of its calm and confidence is not, as Gambetta and his friends would like the world to believe, the existence of the Republic; it is the tenure of power of Marshal MacMahon—a man known by his energy, his devotion to his duty, and his determination not to allow any disorder. So long as there is no direct conflict between the Executive and the Chambers, the country at large will work, enjoy its repose, and care little for the small tempests in the glass of ministerial life.

According to the present constitution, there is now a double responsibility—the responsibility of the President, of the chief of the Executive, and the responsibility of the ministers. The ministers are not merely the clerks of the President. Hitherto they have been chosen in the Chamber, and have represented the majority of the day. The time may come when

the President may refuse to govern according to the dictates of this majority, and may choose his ministers outside of it. Such a conflict arose in 1849 between Louis Napoleon, who was then Prince President, and the then Chamber. The French people are reassured by the idea that the Marshal will not be the mere tool of the Chambers, and perhaps this belief tends to increase the strength of the Republican party; for it is generally felt that even in case the Upper Chamber should become the citadel of M. Thiers and the Lower Chamber the citadel of Gambetta, the Marshal, as chief of the army and President, would still remain in the citadel of his own prerogative, and would not give way to the pressure of the radical party. The Marshal considers himself as a soldier on duty, who has been charged with the defence of order. He is stubborn, self-willed, and tenacious. He has strong dislikes, and he has just shown it by removing from the Prefecture of Police M. Léon Renault merely because M. Renault accepted, in the Department where he is now a candidate for the Lower Chamber, the patronage of a M. Valentin, who was made prefect at Lyons by M. Thiers. The Marshal's objection to M. Valentin does not arise from this last fact, but merely from the fact that in 1848 Valentin was a sergeant in the army and joined the insurgents against the established government of Louis Philippe. "Mauvais soldat," says one of the actors of the "Grande Duchesse" in speaking of another. In the eyes of MacMahon, Valentin is and will always remain the "mauvais soldat."

As there is no dispute now as to the form of government, personal considerations and questions have become all-important, and it is somewhat difficult to judge them at a distance. I will not deny that the administration of the Marshal, under the Duc de Broglie and under M. Buffet, has committed mistakes, sometimes gross mistakes; but, on the whole, I believe that the rule of an honest and determined soldier, who insists in every case upon the strict enforcement of the law, who does not coquet with ambitious or corrupt politicians, has been a great benefit to a country which had just gone through the greatest misfortunes. After the war, after the Commune, a strong hand was a necessity, and it will probably remain so for a while.

Correspondence.

MAJOR ANDERSON AT FORT SUMTER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Surprised by the view of Major Anderson's conduct presented in the 'Reminiscences of Forts Sumter and Moultrie in 1860–61' by General Doubleday, noticed in your issue of the 10th inst., I looked up and have had copied for you the enclosed letters from Major Anderson, written during that period, and never before published. They certainly agree perfectly with your own theory, that "it is difficult to see how in such a trying case, without precedent or instructions, an officer could have pursued a different course from that adopted by Major Anderson—namely, to remain passive until his fort was attacked, and then to defend himself as well as his small force and scanty supplies would allow; meanwhile to leave politics to the Administration at Washington." I suppose all who knew Major Anderson will agree that, whatever may have been his defects of character, want of sincerity was not among them. He was indeed a perfectly sincere and modest man, of simple and earnestly religious character, as these letters, written under circumstances which brought out that trait in his character, to the rector of the Episcopal Church at Trenton, N. J., of which he was a member, abundantly show.

It may be well to add that that clergyman, the Rev. Dr. Richard Bache Duane, my very dear friend, who died in December last, and by whose will I came into possession of these letters, was an ardent Union man. He kept no copies of the letters to which those now sent you reply; but, from my knowledge of him, I know very well that there was nothing in them to which Major Anderson could so respond, unless he too was heartily loyal to the Government and cause he served.

The father of Dr. Duane, referred to in one of the letters, was the late Hon. William J. Duane, Secretary of the Treasury under General Jackson, and himself the son of "Duane of the *Aurora*." So that, descended as he was through his mother, a Bache, from Benjamin Franklin, Dr. Duane came naturally by his patriotism.—I am, yours faithfully,

Howard Potter.

New York, February 25, 1876.

No. 1.

Ft. Moultrie, S. C., Dec. 19, 1860.

My dear Friend: God grant that you may never be placed in a position so full of responsibility and apparently so entirely cut off from all prospect of human relief as the one I am now in. Until such be the case you can never realize how cheering, how consoling and bracing, such a letter as yours is to me. Were it not for my firm reliance upon and trust in our Heavenly Father, I could not but be disheartened; but I feel that I am here in the performance of a solemn duty, and am assured that He, who has shielded me when death claimed his victims all around me, will not desert me now. . . . . A word or two about my position, etc. As soon as I had time to inspect my position and ascertain the feeling and temper of the people here, I found that to enable me to comply with my orders to defend this Fort, it was absolutely necessary that more troops and ordnance stores must be sent, and I recommended that they should be sent at once. The Government has, as you see it stated, declined for prudential reasons to send them, and I must now do the best I can.

This Fort is a very weak one in its capability of being defended. It is surrounded by houses which I cannot burn or destroy until I am certain that I am to be attacked, and I shall not be certain of it until the S. Carolinians are in position; but I have so little ammunition that I cannot waste it in destroying houses. And again, within 160 yards from the walls are piles of sand hills, some of them higher than our Fort, which will give the best and safest shelter for sharp-shooters, who may pick off, in a short time, our Band of 60 men—all we have. Now, my dear sir, do you not think that this is rather a gloomy picture? And yet were you to see this little Band, to note how zealously they attend to any duty I require of them—frequently voluntarily engaging in some work which they know I wish executed—how entirely they refrain from drinking, you would see that they are men who, in the hour of trial, would do their duty. For myself, I can say frankly and truthfully that I have not had a moment of despondency. I feel that He who made me will guide me through any trials that may be in store for me, and that should it be His will that I should fall, He will be a Protector to my wife and a Father to my children. Be assured that your kindness in sending me such an encouraging, sustaining epistle will never be forgotten by Your friend,

Robert Anderson.

No. 2.

Ft. Sumter, S. C., Dec. 30, 1860.

My dear Sir: Your most welcome letter of the 26th December, received to-day, finds me, as you see, at Fort Sumter. God has been pleased to hear our prayers, and has removed me to this stronghold. Perhaps at the very moment you were writing to me I was, by his guidance, leading my little band across to this place. I left Fort Moultrie between five and six P.M., and had my command here by eight o'clock the same evening. You say that you had marvelled that I had not been ordered to hold Fort Sumter instead of Fort Moultrie. Much has been said about my having come here on my own responsibility. Unwilling to see my little band sacrificed, I determined, after calmly awaiting instructions as long as I could, to avail myself of the earliest opportunity of extricating myself from my dangerous position. God be praised! He gave me the will and led me in the way. How I do wish that you could have looked down upon us when we threw the "Stars and Stripes" to the breeze at 12 o'c. on the 29th! Our chaplain thanked God for having brought us from our place of danger, and prayed for our country, that that flag might long continue to wave over a united and happy people. The flag was then raised, the command presenting arms, and the band playing "The Star-spangled Banner," after which three cheers were given for the flag and three for the Union. It was to me a solemn, and to all a most interesting, ceremony. Thank my kind friends in ——, who feel an interest in my welfare; especially my young friend ——, who so kindly remembered me. I am now, thank God! in a place which will, by His helping, soon be made so strong that the S. Carolinians will be madmen if they attack me. There are some alterations and some additions which I wish to have made. The Gov'r of this State has interdicted all intercourse with the city, except that of sending and receiving letters, so that, you see, we are quasi-enemies. Were I disposed to declare myself independent of, to secede from, the General Gov't, and retaliate, I could cut Charleston off from her supplies; but I will show him that I am more of a Christian than to make the innocent suffer for the petty conduct of their governor.

I rec'd a letter to-day from my poor wife. The first news of my movement she heard in N. Y. was, "Fort Moultrie is taken." It was enough to have killed her.

God bless you and yours.

Yours aff'y,

Robert Anderson.

You see it stated that I came here without orders. Fear not; I am sure I can satisfy any tribunal I may be brought before that I was fully justified in moving my command.

No. 3.

Fort Sumter, S. C., Jan. 16, 1861.

My dear Sir: Your letter of 9th inst. has given me very great satisfaction and pleasure. Do present me, if you please, most gratefully and affectionately, to your venerable Father, and assure him that I was deeply moved by reading your statement of the manner in which he received the news of my movement. In reference to the incidents connected with that move, I can only say now that in the main the statement you sent me is sufficiently near the truth. Had I time, I might enter rather more fully into the manner in which I ordered things, so as to deceive the South Carolinians, and even to blind my own men, as to the steps I was about to take; for everything depended upon secresy, and anything calculated to draw

suspicion towards my acts might, probably would, have caused a failure. But God, to whom I appealed, showed me the way and gave me the will to execute it. To Him be all power and praise.

I trust that He will so order it that I shall be spared the cruel necessity of being engaged in strife against our fellow-countrymen. All my endeavors, all my prayers, so far as the public is concerned, are directed to that end.

I am in daily expectation of news from Washington, where you see I have two of my officers, who were sent on with my despatches.

Begging you still to remember me and my little command in your prayers, I am, as ever,

Yours affectionately,

ROBERT ANDERSON.

No. 4.

FORT SUMTER, S. C., March 11, 1861.

MY DEAR FRIEND: Yours of February 21 was received in due time, but I have been so constantly occupied that I could not make my acknowledgments to you for it sooner.

It seems that this is still to be a point of interest. I thought that the policy of the new Administration would have been developed by this time. The occupancy of this work, and the fact that a demand would be made by the Southern Confederacy for my withdrawal, were facts well known to all. I presume, however, that persons who are not in power make up their minds as to what *ought* to be done much more readily and upon slighter data than the same persons newly placed in office. The question of reinforcing is one that is very easily determined upon, but, when the *how* is it to be done? and how many lives will it cost? are examined, the matter is of much greater difficulty than it was thought to be. You have had very many rumors about us which were wholly untrue. With the exception of my having added considerably to our defensive means, no change of any consequence has been made in the command. I am still doing something every day, and shall probably, should we be unattacked a month longer, make some changes every week.

The S. Carolinians continue working very energetically, building new batteries or strengthening those already built. They will certainly be ready to pour a very heavy storm of shot and of shells upon us; but, trusting in God, I have no fear of the result. He has been pleased to scatter a much larger force than these people can muster, and His arm has lost nothing of its strength.

My own impression is that when Mr. Lincoln and his cabinet examine into the question of my position they will decide that it is useless to keep me here. My position is an interior one; and the entrance of the harbor is *not* at all guarded by my guns, but *is* by heavy batteries which are *not* under the fire of my guns.

I do not worry myself about these questions. They are not for me to discuss or to decide, and I know that God will order all things aright, and I am content with that knowledge. . . .

I thank you, most earnestly, for your prayers. I hear from many sources that we are remembered in prayer, both public and private, and I thank God for His continued mercies to us, and pray that He will be pleased to unite us, if not as one people, to make us *one* in our love and adoration of Him. When I reflect upon what has been passing around us during the last ten years, I sometimes feel that we have strayed so far from God's paths that He will chasten us with the rod of His power; but, then, when I reflect upon His mercies, I hope that He may spare us, a people, and that we will repent and turn to Him.

Please still remember me in your prayers. I need them.

God bless you and yours.

Yours faithfully and aff'y,

ROBERT ANDERSON.

Notes.

THE *American Naturalist* states that H. O. Houghton & Co., of the Riverside Press, will shortly publish, with explanatory letterpress, a series of sketches of the wild flowers of North America, from studies by the well-known botanical artist, Mr. Isaac Sprague.——Mr. Joaquin Miller has found a happy title for his prose romance, which Jansen, McClurg & Co., Chicago, are to publish, viz., 'The First Families of the Sierras.' It is a story of miner life in California.——An acute writer, Mr. James Thompson Bixby, has written a work called 'The Similarities of Physical and Religious Knowledge,' of which D. Appleton & Co. will be the publishers.——The appointment of a superintendent of the Astor Library is of no little importance to the reading public of this city. The *World's* suggestion of Mr. James Carson Brevoort as a fit candidate for that place is an excellent one, and we hope it will find favor with the trustees. Mr. Brevoort's private library is the largest and, we believe we may say, the most comprehensive in Brooklyn, and his knowledge of books, both special and general, is very great.——Deserved attention has been given by Dr. Elliott Coues, U.S.A., in the Bulletin of the United States Geological and Geographical Survey of the Territories (No. 6, Second Series), to the various publications relating to the classic travels of Lewis and Clarke. He traces to three sources some twenty editions, "authentic, abridged, spurious, or collateral," and gives the most complete bibliography of the whole subject ever attempted, though he constantly expresses his indebtedness to Mr. Thomas W. Field for his previous labors in the same direction. This interesting *exposé* of the bookmaker's art is followed by a review of Lewis and Clarke's contributions to zoölogy in respect of mammals and birds. Dr. Coues indicates all the passages in which each species is described, the diversity of scientific names which have since been applied to them, which of these were based on the explorers' descriptions, and to which of them priority of nomenclature is due. This also is excellently well done. The curious doubt which hangs over the spelling of Captain Clarke's name is recognized on p. 426, and the conclusion is reached that "the balance of evidence is in favor of 'Clarke.'"——Mr. Joseph Sabin's latest monograph, extracted from his 'Dictionary of Books relating to America,' is a 'List of the Editions of the Works of Louis Hennepin and Alonso de Herrera,' pp. 16. The 'Dictionary' itself has now forty printed parts, numbering 32,000 titles, and six more parts are expected to appear this year, the MS. being, as we understand, advanced to the letter K. Even at this stage the work deserves a prominent place in our Centennial show of national literature.——J. W. Bouton announces the 'Works of William Unger,' being seventy etchings by this admirable artist after the old Dutch and Flemish masters, with English text. There will be ten parts, royal folio, at $7 each.——A handy little fortnightly, *Gazette anecdotique, littéraire, artistique et bibliographique*, has been begun with the year at the Librairie des Bibliophiles, Paris (New York: F. W. Christern). It has a very attractive typography.

—When we published, week before last, a letter signed "N. N.," comparing Smith College at Northampton with Girton College at Cambridge, England, considerably to the advantage of the former, we had not seen its prospectus, and had no knowledge of it ourselves. This we have since received, and have made some enquiries, which render it necessary to say that "N. N.'s" letter was in many respects misleading. Smith College was only opened in September, 1875, so that nothing whatever can be asserted with any confidence as to the character of the education it will afford. The faculty, if it be now complete, is composed of persons who have still their reputation to make as university instructors, and it is, therefore, improper to compare them in any way with the lecturers or examiners at Girton College. Moreover, as nobody has ever graduated at Smith College, it is manifestly absurd, if not worse, to say that it gives as good an education as can be had at Harvard or Yale. All that "N. N." was entitled to say on this subject was, that he hoped or expected that it would do so. In fact, the institution is as yet simply a mass of promises. We find, too, that the domestic arrangements and the discipline, as described in the prospectus, are by no means like those of Girton, and are evidently adapted to younger and less formed students than those of Girton. In short, we must pronounce Smith College to be another small, feebly-endowed, and insufficiently-equipped college, added to the host of those which in all parts of the country are doing so much injury to the cause of the higher education in the United States. We would earnestly urge the friends of collegiate instruction for women to refrain from the expenditure of money in this way, and to devote themselves, if possible, to procuring for female students the benefits of the existing educational machinery, by creating, if possible, halls attached to the older universities, and obtaining a share in their instruction and the use of their standards, without resorting to the device called "coeducation." The country does not contain the talent or learning necessary to man any more universities in the existing state of the profession. The older colleges know this well, and the new ones should not pretend that they have discovered any hidden treasures.

—The death of Horace Bushnell, which occurred on Feb. 17, is an event in the intellectual, and not merely in the theological, world. For more than twenty years he was an invalid, disabled from professional labor, and compelled to desist from exciting toil; but in this discouraging condition he sent out some of his best productions—'Sermons for the New Life,' 'Nature and the Supernatural,' 'Work and Play,' 'Christ and His Salvation,' 'The Vicarious Sacrifice,' 'The Moral Uses of Dark Things,' 'Woman Suffrage, the Reform against Nature,' 'Sermons on Living Subjects,' and 'Forgiveness and Law'—eight volumes, some of which were composed entirely of new material. In this way, and by his power of personal character, he kept himself alive in retirement, and was an intellectual force while invisible. Dr. Bushnell was primarily, by the structure of his mind, a theologian, and would have shown the theological bias in any calling he might have pursued, even in journalism or law, had he followed either of those callings, as he proposed to do and for a short time did. His actual ministry, which began late and ended early, occupying

but twenty-five years out of seventy-four, could hardly have created the predisposition that was so strong in him. He was a theologian, too, of the grand type. The end he had in view was the reconciliation of theology with the primal instincts of human nature. The points he presented and discussed were: the claims of nurture as distinguished from conversion; the human motive and necessity of the Incarnation; the unexceptional character of the Atonement; and the naturalness of the supernatural. These points he made with great ability and brilliancy, in a style original in its piquancy, with remarkable subtlety of definition and variety of illustration. Thirty years ago he was the most conspicuous figure in our ecclesiastical world. He had disciples in all the divinity schools, and even founded a school of his own, equivalent, within orthodox Congregationalism, to the Broad Church of the F. D. Maurice school in England. It is probable, however, that he did as much to weaken orthodoxy as to strengthen it; his interpretations were not welcomed by the authorities, who suspected him of heresy, and put him on his defence. He was more than a match for them, and yet their suspicions that he weakened the faith rather than confirmed it were not unreasonable. Dr. Bushnell's most characteristic work, on the whole, the work that displays the full peculiarity of his mind, is that on Woman Suffrage. It is a volume of equal size with Mill's book on the same subject, written in an equal spirit of reverence for woman. Dr. Bushnell dedicates his book to his wife in terms as glowing as those used by Mill in his former dedication of 'Liberty.' Yet the two reasoners arrive at opposite conclusions. Bushnell's antipathy to the movement was deep and earnest. He would not even consent that the experiment of suffrage should be tried. But his candor appears in his frank admission, in this book, that on other points connected with the general subject his views have undergone decided changes.

—The Johns Hopkins University was formally instituted at Baltimore on the 22d of February, in the presence of a remarkable company, which included a German-like representation of the heads and leading professors of other universities. President Eliot, of Harvard, made what was playfully characterized as the baptismal address, and was followed immediately by President Gilman, who in a long discourse unfolded, as definitely as was possible, the condition of the University's endowment and the plans agreed upon or under consideration by the trustees. He first showed that Mr. Hopkins's bequest, unparalleled as it was, really enabled the University to begin life only in very moderate circumstances. Half of the seven millions goes to a hospital, half to the University, and the income on the latter ($200,000) is but little more than the annual expense of Harvard, whose "plant" is estimated at five millions. Out of this income, too, the future buildings have to be provided for, and it is therefore clear that unless fresh endowments are forthcoming, the University must content itself with a very gradual development. Its scope and methods, as next set forth, were substantially foreshadowed in the *Nation* a year ago (No. 500). President Gilman did not distinctly formulate what is still evidently to some extent *sub judice*, but he let it be inferred that elementary instruction in all branches of science is not contemplated at the new University. There will be no stated curriculum of four years. Great freedom is to be allowed both to teachers and to scholars; the former must be "free and competent to make original researches in the library and the laboratory"; the latter will be encouraged to "make special attainments on the foundation of a broad and liberal culture," and to make them through a "combination of lectures, recitations, laboratory practice, field work, and private instruction." Pending the filling of the several professorial chairs, the trustees will ask distinguished professors from other colleges to come to Baltimore during a term of years and reside there an appointed time, "and be accessible, *publice et privatim*, both in the lecture-room and in the study." But two appointments have thus far been made, viz., Prof. Gildersleeve, of the University of Virginia, to the chair of Greek; and Prof. Sylvester, of England, to that of mathematics. The order in which the departments will be built up was presented at some length. The foundation of the hospital makes it natural and probable that instruction in the biological sciences will receive early attention from the trustees of the University.

—Mr. James T. Gardner, in his report to the American Geographical Society on "the uses of a topographical survey to the State of New York," has given due prominence to the economical value of such a survey, and points out very forcibly the loss which the want of it entails upon property-holders. He says "there can be no proper valuation of real estate, hence no equalization of taxation, until the State is provided with a correct map of its entire public and private property." As under the present system there can be no accurate maps, the assessment rolls are made up largely by guessing, and since it is each man's interest to pay taxes on as few acres as possible, the aggregate area of taxable real estate is constantly shrinking, so that Mr. Gardner estimates that now one-tenth of the whole escapes taxation altogether. For instance, in Queens County in 1864 the assessors' books gave only 182,000 acres, while the maps showed 253,000 acres. The facts that he brings forward to support this statement, as revealed by recent special surveys made in different towns and cities, are conclusive as to the injustice of the present system upon the taxpayer. In Yonkers, 525 acres, worth $260,000, were brought under taxation by the new survey, and it was found that some persons were paying taxes on as much as forty acres more or less than they possessed. In Newport, R. I., only four men were found to be properly taxed upon their real estate; ten men were paying assessment on $579,000 instead of $280,000, while ten others were only taxed on $450,000, when their property was really worth $700,000. In the matter of equalizing taxation alone, the survey would be a measure of great economy for the taxpayers of the State. By its survey the town of Yonkers reduced its tax $4,000 per annum, and, at the same rate for the whole State, the saving would be $3,200,000 annually, the interest of which amount would be sufficient to carry on such a survey as Mr. Gardner proposes. It is evident, on the other hand, that Yonkers pays the penalty of striving to obtain greater accuracy in its town taxation by being obliged to bear a proportionately larger burden of the State taxes.

—As another result of the present system, or rather want of system, Mr. Gardner states that "hardly in one case in a thousand do the deeds in the State of New York describe correctly the area of real estate conveyed." So general a statement might appear exaggerated to any one but real-estate lawyers or surveyors, who have constant proof of its truth. A case is quoted where a man about to sell his seventy-acre lot was induced to have a new survey made, by which it was found to contain eighty-seven acres; and another where an owner, upon subdividing a lot of land purchased for fifty acres, found that actual measurement gave him only forty acres. Such inaccuracies arise from the want of permanent imperishable monuments, the trees or stones which were used as points of reference when land was of little value having in general disappeared, and their position been since determined by the shrewd guess of some more or less disinterested person. A properly conducted survey should not only provide monuments that will last for all time as guides to property boundaries, but also furnish to every one at a low price an authentic map of his property and its relations to that of his neighbors. The maps of the Ordnance Survey of Great Britain, for instance, which are sold at a shilling or two a sheet, not only furnish accurate information about the surface features of the country but give the boundaries of a man's farm in the country or his lot in the city, and the points of reference determined by them constitute a final standard in cases of disputed boundaries. The saving which an official survey of this State, conducted on scientific principles by men whose position and reputation should place them above the influence of local interests, would make in the costs of litigation, which increase even faster than the value of property, can hardly be estimated. What these costs may amount to can be inferred from the case cited of a lawsuit now pending in New York City where five surveyors are employed to determine the right ownership of three inches of land. The maps of such a survey should give an accurate delineation of the surface-features of the country, which would serve as a basis for laying out such public works as the water-supplies for towns and factories, and drainage systems for improving the health of marshy districts and increasing the value of agricultural lands. The work should be entrusted to a man whose experience, scientific attainments, and natural ability would fit him to direct it and train up a corps of assistants. It would require probably fifteen years for its accomplishment, and the cost, though very considerable, would fall short of what is actually expended by special surveys, which only accomplish a part of its results. This cost would fall heaviest upon the more thickly settled regions, where the accruing advantages would be greater; to the farmer it would not be more than ten cents per acre.

—A correspondent of *Notes and Queries* has been tracing the origin of Macaulay's New Zealander. He finds in the *Monthly Review*, 1780, lxii. 128, a notice of 'Poems by a young nobleman of distinguished abilities, lately deceased, particularly the State of England, and the once flourishing City of London. In a letter from an American traveller, dated from the ruinous portico of St. Paul's, in the year 2199, to a friend settled in Boston, the metropolis of the Western Empire." Mr. Bartlett has already shown that besides the use of the image three times by Macaulay himself, something very similar is to be found in Volney's 'Ruins,' Henry Kirke White's 'Time,' Shelley's dedication to 'Peter Bell,' and in a letter of Horace Walpole's to Mason, dated Nov. 24, 1774, from which last Macaulay is generally supposed to have derived it. The correspondent of *Notes*

and Queries now brings forward another claimant—and this time a foreigner. In 'L'An Deux Mille Quatre Cent Quarante : Rêve s'il en fut jamais' there is a vision which treats in like manner of a wanderer amid the ruins of Versailles. An English edition of this book appeared in London in 1773, a year before the date of Walpole's letter, and seven years, therefore, before the publication of the supposed visit of the Bostonian to the ruins of London, where "a poor emaciated Briton, who officiates as cicerone, is his attendant." It is curious to note that the self-styled Bostonian's book was published during the American War.

—We are very glad to extend a hand of welcome to the new *Revue Philosophique de la France et de l'Etranger*, edited by Th. Ribot, and to be published monthly by Germer Baillière (New York : F. W. Christern). M. Ribot is a most painstaking and enthusiastic student of the science of man, and his abridgments of the labors of English and German philosophers and physiologists have probably had no small share in the promising revival of psychological studies which we now see in France. The programme of his review is catholic enough. Kantians and inheritors of Cousin may contribute to its columns on the same terms as Comtists and experimentalists—individual responsibility namely, and the obligation of saying something novel. Even from metaphysicians "*facts* will be required." This temper compares pleasantly with that of certain persons in England and with us, who are as great friends of evolution and of physiological methods as M. Ribot, but whose own evolution upwards from theological beginnings seems to have stopped short at the stage of inarticulate joy over their emancipation ; and for whom every piece of writing is good whose pages are speckled over with words like "body," "ganglion-cell," "brute ancestor," "visceral emotion," whilst the sight of a term like "soul," "design," or "free will" in a book affects them with a sort of foaming at the mouth. In this first number of the *Revue Philosophique* M. Taine and M. Janet stand shoulder to shoulder, the latter discoursing of final causes, for which, as usual, he is a more fluent than original apologist ; and the former giving an entertaining diary of the way his child learned to talk, and finding in his observations a corroboration of Max Müller's theories. This child created several words for its own use. The sound *ham* was uttered by it at fourteen months.

"For some weeks I took it for mere babbling, but at last I saw that it invariably occurred when the child was fed. The child now is sure to utter it when hungry or thirsty. . . . If we listen attentively and try to reproduce the sound, we see it to be the *natural vocal gesture* of a person catching something in his mouth. It begins by a guttural aspirate not unlike a bark, and ends by the lips closing as if the food were seized and swallowed. . . . Now the family uses the word like the child. Originality, invention are so lively with it, that if it learns our language, we also learn from it its own."

The bibliographic part of the review is both extensive and conscientious. The list of articles soon to be published contains many relative to recent German psychology. As this important matter is little known among us many persons may be glad of this second-hand and easy introduction to it. It is confidently asserted in Germany that the new science of "psychophysics," the outcome of laboratories, and the creation of such physicists as Wundt, Helmholtz, and Fechner, is but a brilliant commentary on the deductive conclusions of the idealistic philosophers of that country. Not only is the intellect not built up of sensations, says the new science, but a pure sensation is a nonentity ; what we call sensation is soaked through with intellect, and the result of complex logical inference. We do not vouch for the truth of this interpretation of the experimental facts, but we have said enough to show philosophical students of even the most conservative type that they possibly may lose more than they save by giving physiological methods the cold shoulder.

—In 1872 Domenico Comparetti, the distinguished Italian scholar, published a work entitled 'Virgilio nel Medio Evo,' which was received with the greatest favor in Italy and elsewhere. Although a work of general interest, it has now for the first time been made more accessible to students by a German translation ('Virgil im Mittelalter von D. Comparetti. Aus dem Italienischen übersetzt von Hans Dütschke.' Leipzig : Teubner, 1875). We say more accessible, though it seems paradoxical that a stranger to both languages should find German the easier ; but, apart from the fact that German literature attracts far more students than does the Italian, the German translator has, by omitting reprints of rare texts, etc., of no value to the general reader, reduced the original two volumes to one octavo volume The first part treats of "Virgil in Literature to the Time of Dante," and is an exhaustive essay on the vicissitudes of the Latin poet, during the Middle Ages, in the hands of the grammarians, commentators, and Christian fathers. In fulness of details Comparetti far exceeds all who have heretofore treated this attractive theme. It is interesting to follow the author's luminous account of the *literary* changes in the character of Virgil from the time of Servius to the allegorical exposition of Fulgentius. Although the *sortes Virgilianæ* were employed under the Antonines, and the writer of the Fourth Eclogue was early regarded as having a prophetic foresight of the coming Christ, it is remarkable that, to the time of Dante, no suspicion of magic attached to Virgil. That interesting transformation is due entirely to the popular traditions of Naples. It is seldom that a myth can be traced so clearly in its rise and diffusion. The author follows it from Naples in its spread over Italy and the rest of Europe, giving in the second part ("Virgil in Popular Tradition") a mass of interesting details. One or two additional traditions from Sicily may be found in Pitrè's collection (see *Nation*, No. 528), vol. ii., p. 13–17.

—Few historians of Florence have cared to follow the fate of that commonwealth under the Grand-Dukes. Napier does so in his history in a somewhat hasty way, and there are native historians (among them Galluzzi and the incomplete Ammirato) who continue their works to the extinction of the Medici. Capponi, on the other hand, whose death is already to be lamented, ends his fresh labors with the fall of Florentine liberty in 1531. The student will find a dearth of good histories of this period, and will be grateful to the indefatigable Alfred von Reumont, who had scarcely finished his great work on 'Lorenzo de' Medici' when he began a history of Tuscany since the Florentine Republic. His work forms part of the invaluable Geschichte der europäischen Staaten' of Heeren, Ukert, and Giesebrecht, 'and bears the separate title : 'Geschichte Toscana's seit dem Ende des florentinischen Freistaates' (Gotha, 1876). It is a first instalment, and contains the history of Tuscany under the Medicean Grand-Dukes from 1530–1737. The volume is provided with a chronological table, bibliography of works relating to this period, and a genealogical chart. The purely historical details are relieved by chapters on the state of literature, science, and art, in which the author's profound knowledge finds a congenial outlet. Everything that Von Reumont writes about Italy is sure to be accurate and interesting, and the present volume, it seems to us, possesses these qualities to an unusual degree.

—Several German publications which lie upon our table either speak for themselves, or require but a brief introduction to our readers. First of these is 'Das Ancien Régime in Canada,' the German version of Francis Parkman's well-known work bearing that title, and one of August Auerbach's American series (Stuttgart) to which we so lately alluded. It makes an octavo volume of 333 pages, uniform with the 'Pioneers of France' previously issued by the same house. A third volume of Mr. Parkman's is announced as in preparation—the 'Jesuits in North America.'—'Die Urne' (Leipzig : C. G. Theile) is an annual of universal necrology, edited by Dr. Hugo Schramm-Macdonald. The volume before us is the first ; it covers the years 1873–74, and is adorned with a portrait of the late King of Saxony. It classifies the dead first according to their station or profession, and then according to their nationality ; and the biographical details, the anecdotes, etc., tempt the reader to go through the 'Urne' as he would through any other review of the year. For ready reference, on the other hand, an alphabetical index is provided at the end of each period. The editor's design is to overcome as far as possible the inaccuracy of newspaper and telegraphic obituaries, and to furnish more trustworthy material for even the conversation-lexicons. We have examined his list of the notable dead of 1873, and find that it certainly includes the greatest names. A fulness to satisfy the prejudices of every country would be impossible. Among our own countrymen, for instance, we find Judge Chase but not Judge Nelson ; James L. Orr but not John P. Hale ; Gen. Canby but not Gen. Meade ; Agassiz but not Catlin ; Powers but not Sully, etc. Under Winslow, by the way, is given in a foot-note the story of his fight with the *Alabama*, which is unqualifiedly characterized as a "pirate-ship." One excellent feature is a reference to fuller notices of the deceased in periodicals and elsewhere, as in the case of J. S. Mill. The 'Urne' decidedly takes its place beside 'Men of the Time.'—The German law of trade-marks and the exchange stamp-tax law are given textually and discussed scientifically and historically in the two last numbers (Theil III., Band I., Hefte 2, 3) of 'Die Gesetzgebung des Deutschen Reiches' (Erlangen: Palm & Encke).—A light and versatile writer, Ernst Eckstein, has had unusual success with his latest production, 'Der Besuch im Career' (Leipzig : J. F. Hartknoch), which has reached a fifteenth edition. It is a humorous story of the way in which a *Primaner*, locked up for mimicking the flat and pompous speech of the Herr Director of the Gymnasium, contrives to place himself on the outside of the cell and to turn the key on his persecutor. The mystification of the janitor between the real and the counterfeit voices is very amusing. After vainly endeavoring to establish his

dentity with his servant, the Director can only exclaim, despairingly but still classically, that "Mit der Dommheit kämpfen Götter sülbst vergübens!" There are six clever illustrations. In one of them, out of a group of nine *Primmer*, two are represented as wearing glasses—unwitting confirmation of the statistics of Dr. Cohn, of Breslau, as to near-sightedness in the German gymnasia (31.7 per cent.)——As a continuation and complement of Kiepert's ancient and modern hand-atlases, Dr. Carl Wolff has been employed to edit an historical atlas in eighteen maps, embracing the period from A.D. 500 to 1871. The first of three parts, all of which will appear during the present year, is before us (Berlin : Dietrich Reimer ; New York: L. W. Schmidt). It is strictly limited in scope to Europe, and Germany and her immediate neighbors receive most attention. In this respect, of course, as well as in the number of maps, it differs distinctly from Spruner's atlas, and while calculated to be of service even to the learned, it is designed chiefly for the use of students in the higher schools. As regards clearness and beauty of execution and accuracy, Dr. Wolff's maps compare not unfavorably with Spruner's, and by turns one feels inclined to give the palm to the Berlin establishment and to that at Gotha (Justus Perthes). Dr. Wolff, except in a few cases, preserves the national spelling for names of places, though in this he is not always consistent, *e.g.*, Warszawa (16), Warschau (15), Warszawa (Warschau) (12), etc.

THE LIFE OF GEORGE TICKNOR.*

THIS book is likely to hold a unique place in American literature. We have had nothing like it heretofore, and we shall have nothing like it hereafter. The biographies with which it might be compared—that of Washington Irving, for instance, or that by Mr. Ticknor himself of his friend Prescott—are very different from it in quality and association. Mr. Ticknor was the most marked type of the American man of letters and society of the first half of this century, as distinguished from the mere scholar or author. He combined traits not often found so happily mingled ; his strong social tastes and his brilliant social gifts did not interfere with the steadiness of his literary industry or diminish the worth of its results. He had a fortunate temperament and an easy life. He was in fortunate relations to his times, and he succeeded in securing, together with such advantages as America could afford to a man of strong moral feeling, rational desires, and genial temper, the benefits of the best culture of Europe and the charms of its best society. His biography, quite apart from its personal interest, will have a permanent value as a vivid illustration of the conditions of the most cultivated society of New England during a period of rapid national development, which even now, though so recent, seems to belong to a somewhat remote past—a period of comparative simplicity of living, of cheerful confidence in the political institutions of the country and in the moral progress of the people—a period far less various in aspect, far less perplexed with difficult political and social problems, far less unsettled than the present. In the homogeneous community of Boston—a community which had a high if somewhat narrow and provincial standard of intelligence and character—Mr. Ticknor was for many years a distinguished and original figure.

He never took a leading part in political affairs, never held political office, never was tempted outside those lines of activity which, with unusual good sense and clear discrimination of his own capacities and inclinations, he had early laid down for himself. His career was one of uncommon consistency. There is nothing dramatic in its incidents. But probably no American has led a life richer in that class of associations and interests which belong properly to literary biography, and the two volumes in which his history is told afford such varied literary entertainment, such pleasant personal anecdotes and reminiscences of so many of the most distinguished people of the time, as to form a substantial addition to the books on the shelf that holds the memoirs of Johnson, of Scott, of Mackintosh, and they may find a place, perhaps, close to the 'Life of Southey' and the 'Diary of Crabbe Robinson.' It is curiously distinguished from all its neighbors, however, in the fact of its American origin. The American portion is even more fresh and instructively entertaining than the foreign. And in this the book is the true image of Mr. Ticknor himself. He was on even terms with the best society everywhere, but he was most perfectly at home in it in his own delightful library, where to the agreeableness of a man of uncommon social accomplishments was added the gracious welcome of a most genial and ready host.

His nature was of even proportion and build, and admirably adapted to its actual surroundings. He was pre-eminently, in a good sense, a man of the world. Alert, self-controlled, of liberal and refined taste, with many sources of enjoyment open to him, he was not exposed to the temptations of vehement passions, or to the illusions of the poetic imagination. His clear intelligence and sound moral nature were in admirable harmony. A steady sense of duty was combined in him with great sweetness of disposition. His character was based upon a strong will and moulded by strong moral principles. In the circumstances of his life he seemed a fortunate man ; in great part this was due to his having learned the difficult lesson of how to compel good fortune to one's bidding.

Such a man's life would be worth reading even were his experience of less variety than that of Mr. Ticknor. The outline of his can be told in a few words. He was born of excellent parents in Boston in 1791. He was an only child, and he received every advantage of education within his father's means. After graduating at Dartmouth College, he studied law, and was admitted to the bar, but his literary tastes were so strongly pronounced that he soon determined to give himself to literary pursuits, and to this end resolved to go to Europe for purposes of study. The account given in the pages of his biography of his zeal for study, and of the difficulties he met with in attempting to learn German from the impossibility of obtaining the needful books, is a striking picture of the difference between the opportunities of sixty years ago and those of the present time. Before leaving America he made a journey to Washington and Virginia, seeing many eminent men, and meeting with a reception from them which showed that even then, at twenty-three years of age, he must have been a youth of uncommon powers of attraction, and not less uncommon acquisitions. His accounts of visits to Madison and Jefferson, his sketches of Marshall, Pinkney, John Randolph, Emmet, and others are full of interest. In the spring of 1815 he set sail for England, amply supplied with letters of introduction from Jefferson, John Adams, and other eminent men to their friends abroad, and from the moment of his landing at Liverpool and first acquaintance with Roscoe, and on his way to London with Dr. Parr, begins the series of sketches of distinguished persons whom he saw more or less familiarly wherever he went during his four years' stay abroad, and with many of whom he formed relations of life-long friendliness which were renewed during subsequent visits to Europe in later years. One of his earliest acquaintances in London was Byron. They were together one morning when a gentleman came suddenly into the room and announced the defeat of Bonaparte after a great battle in the Low Countries. "But is it true ?" said Lord Byron. "Is it true ?" "Yes, my lord, it is certainly true ; an aide-de-camp arrived in town last night, he has been in Downing Street this morning, and I have just seen him as he was going to Lady Wellington's. He says he thinks Bonaparte is in full retreat towards Paris." After an instant's pause, Lord Byron replied : "I am d—d sorry for it."

The anecdote is a characteristic one, and the scene again reminds the reader how far 1876 is from 1815. But the pages of Mr. Ticknor's 'Diary and Letters' are full of anecdotes and narratives of conversation, of descriptions of remarkable men and women, and of unusual personal experience, which are so fresh and entertaining, so well told, and so illustrative of social habits, as to form a contribution of no slight value to our knowledge of the life of the times.

Mr. Ticknor's style was from the beginning simple and animated. He wrote with fluency and ease. His head was not turned by the flattering attentions he received at all hands, and his journals and letters are free from the conceit and egotism that too often mark productions of the sort. The freedom from extravagance of expression in the accounts of his experiences was a characteristic sign of the even balance of his temper and of his fixed habit of self-control. His sympathies, though quick, never betrayed him into enthusiasm, nor was his judgment overmastered by excitement of feeling. In August, 1815, he established himself at Göttingen, and there remained, leading a most industrious life as a student, with brief intervals of vacation, for the next twenty months. His zeal for learning, eager as it had been, was quickened and satisfied by the ample opportunities that were here afforded to him, and the time he passed at Göttingen was in some respects the most important period of his life, as that in which he acquired large stores of thorough scholarship, which, constantly augmented in future years, served as the solid basis of his later literary work, and distinguished him as one of the most accomplished students of his generation. He had special gifts for the acquisition of languages, and at Göttingen devoted himself mainly to the language and literature of Greece, of Germany, and of Italy.

From Göttingen he went to Paris, and, while continuing his studies here with great diligence, he entered freely into society, where his attractions and his abilities secured for him the acquaintance and intimacy of the per-

* 'Life, Letters, and Journals of George Ticknor.' Boston : James R. Osgood & Co. 1876. 2 vols. 8vo.

sons best worth knowing. Few young foreigners have had such a reception. Madame de Staël, Humboldt, Madame Récamier, Châteaubriand, Villemain, Benjamin Constant, Lafayette, and others worthy to be named with these, pass one by one before us in living presence on the pages of his journal. Our limits do not allow us to quote, as we should like, the account of the striking conversation of Madame de Staël and Châteaubriand. We can but refer our readers to Mr. Ticknor's own pages.

In Italy, in Spain, his experience was the same, everywhere welcomed by the best and most interesting people, everywhere making diligent use of his unrivalled opportunities for the observation of men and manners, while pursuing his serious studies with unrelaxed ardor. There is nowhere in literature such a picture of the society of Europe in the years immediately after the fall of Napoleon as is given to us in Mr. Ticknor's narrative.

He returned home in 1819, after four years' absence, and he came back quite unspoiled by his dangerous experience of the charms of Europe. The solidity of his character showed itself by his simple, unaffected acceptance of the conditions of life in Boston, and his adaptation of himself to the narrow limits of American society. He almost at once entered upon the duties of the Professorship of Belles-Lettres and Modern Languages at Harvard College, to which he had been appointed during his absence, and applied himself with earnestness and generous zeal to the task of instruction, and to the quickening of whatever literary and scholarly taste and ambition there might be among his students. For fifteen years during which he held the professorship he sought not only to enlarge the scope and elevate the standard of literary acquirement in the College, but to promote the higher culture of the community at large. No man did more than he by the influence of example, by the liberal use of his time and knowledge, and by the generous freedom with which he placed his large and rare collection of books at the service of all who might be aided by it, to foster the love of letters and to qualify the force of the material tendencies of American life by the promotion of the better interests of intelligence. Few men have done so much for the civilization of this country. Few have been such worthy Americans.

In 1834 Mr. Ticknor again visited Europe with his family, and a large part of the volume before us is made up of the journal of the three years that he now spent abroad. Its chief interest is similar to that of the journal of his earlier residence in Europe, consisting in the clear and animated accounts of the remarkable persons with whom he was brought into relation. It is an extraordinary supplement to the earlier description, and taken as a whole gives an unparalleled view of good society forty years ago in England, in France, in Germany, and in Italy. Mr. Ticknor, it is true, had not the instinct of the imagination, and some of the chief figures of the time, living outside the conventional circle, do not appear on his pages, or, if at all, only in unsatisfactory and uncharacteristic likeness. But the very traits in Mr. Ticknor's mental disposition which limited his powers of imaginative insight, give to the mass of his notices of persons and narrative of incidents an absolute trustworthiness so far as the actual fact and the personal impression are concerned. He is seldom epigrammatic, very seldom gives a poetic touch, but writes always with good sense and constantly exhibits his strong moral sympathies. Perhaps the most remarkable passage of his experience is contained in his exceedingly interesting narrative of a series of conversations with Prince Metternich in 1836. Such a revelation of the statesman's judgment of himself and his policy has, we believe, never been made public before. But this is only one out of many passages of interest.

It was after returning home in 1837 that Mr. Ticknor gave himself to the preparation for the press of his 'History of Spanish Literature.' For many years he had employed himself in amassing the materials required for it, and the labor upon the work was suited to his taste. The book is too well known and too highly esteemed to need fresh criticism. It is one of the most thorough and exact of literary histories, and one of the few most creditable productions of American scholarship.

During the later years of his life he was greatly interested in the establishment of the Boston Public Library, and the immediate, and what seems likely to be the lasting, success of that institution was in great measure due to his judicious counsels and active exertions. He made it in large part what it is. In its interest he visited Europe for a third and last time in 1856-7. Old and new friends clustered around him, and again wherever he went he was welcomed by the best. His last years were passed quietly at home. No one who had the privilege of knowing him there but will have a pleasant and often a grateful memory of his rich and abundant conversation, of his ready helpfulness, of his lively interests in books, in persons and affairs. He died, after a happy life, in full possession of his faculties, in the eightieth year of his age.

The 'Memoir' which is now published of him is prepared with taste, discretion, and fidelity. It is a sincere and simple presentation of a sincere and simple but remarkable character. The book, as we have said, is unique in our literature, and we could wish that when another edition is called for, some parts of merely local and temporary interest might be omitted, in order to extend its circulation, and thus to increase the influence of a life so honestly devoted to intellectual ends, of a character so exemplary in its ministry of culture and civilization.

SOME RECENT BOOKS ON GOVERNMENT.*

MR. REEMELIN'S book is hardly to be called either an essay or a treatise. It is a series of reflections on politics, of which it is not always easy to see the connection or even the drift. The chapter on the "Object of Government," to which we turned as a sort of test of the writer's aim, merely tells us that most old, and especially theological, definitions of government are incorrect; that "adequacy to the purpose in hand and consistency with the permanent welfare of society are the true measures by which to determine the amount of government to be exercised"; and that "wherever the increase or diminution of powers proceeds with least commotion, there is the healthiest public conduct, provided it is always done for sound political reasons." This, it must be admitted, is not very clear, and, in so far as we understand it, is not much more useful than the old plan for catching birds by putting salt on their tails. The chapter contains one remark of some originality—that we in this country are apt to forget that "our churches, political parties, chambers of commerce, and corporations" are part of the governmental machinery. On the subject of individual self-government the author is still less clear; for he tells us that "the two qualities through which the universe rules itself are omnipresence and omnipotence," and that, therefore, "whatever approaches nearest to an omnipresent and omnipotent guidance of individuals will be the best control over man," and that this thing is "self-government," under "the various names of religion, morals, ethics, etc." The "et cætera" in this case must cover a great deal. In fact, the book is a mass of loose thought, very obscurely expressed, with a large intermixture of pure commonplace, and we are entirely unable to detect any good reason for its appearance. We suspect that the author is a rationalist, and in the matter of morals a utilitarian, and that if he had his way he would model a state on the basis of suggestions drawn from John C. Calhoun, with the assistance of Bentham, Mill, Von Holtzendorff, Virchow, Buchez, and other writers, whom he seems to have perused in a diligent but not orderly manner; but what kind of state it would be we cannot guess.

Mr. William Giles Dix seems to be a very excitable and despondent person, who takes a very dark view both of the American state and of the American statesmen; but he says some things worth saying and remembering, though many of his sayings, it must be admitted, are a little mixed, as where he announces that a "blazing, bitter star has fallen on our American waters and mountains, on ripening fields and happy homes, spreading lurid, blasting terror, like sparks from the furnace of perdition, and the name of that star is called Federalism." It will be seen from this example that Mr. Dix is not sober in his rhetoric, and that his mind is in a somewhat inflamed condition. One of his chapters is a glowing eulogy on Mr. Sumner; another is devoted to maintaining, apropos of Mr. Sumner, the thesis that a United States senator represents the whole Union, and not any particular State. Another is a poetic retrospect of the American Congress, in which he takes a gloomy view of the man who regards his election to Congress as "a successful political trick," and tries to reform him by calling up memories of the great men who have sat in that body before him, and advises him to look at the signatures to the Declaration of Independence, one of which, that of John Hancock, has, he says, "a fourfold character, being at the same time a pledge, a prayer, a challenge, and a patriotic appeal." If this be true, we presume that there is no other signature like it in the world. Mr. Dix considers Christianity "the inspirer of nations," and the only proper basis of civil society, in this agreeing with that other eminent political thinker, Edmund Burke; but he gives a Christian government a great deal to do, such as to "encourage and develop honorable industry in

* 'Treatise on Politics as a Science. By Charles Reemelin.' Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. 1875.
'The American State and American Statesmen. By W. G. Dix.' Boston: Estes & Lauriat. 1876.
'The Protection of Majorities and Considerations relating to Electoral Reform, with other Papers. By Josiah Phillips Quincy.' Boston: Roberts Bros. 1876.
'Nova Instauratio Reipublicæ. The Commonwealth Reconstructed. By C. C. P. Clark, M.D.' Oswego. 1872.

all its branches" and "all manly enterprise," and enforce Christian law and discipline respecting marriage and divorce. The chapter on this subject contains an account of the political position of the Devil in this country which is the clearest and most careful statement on this subject we have seen anywhere, and is evidently the result of personal observation :

"In Europe the Devil is an outlaw—so regarded, so treated in theory by all Christian governments, however much in practice they may follow his counsel. But in America the Devil is not an outlaw, but a fellow-citizen in good and regular standing, who goes to the caucus which he has already packed, and finally prevails on a political candidate to accept, very reluctantly and diffidently, his nomination, which has been made to his great astonishment and surprise—as he says—but which he may have been trying with all his might to get for ten years. Then the Devil 'votes early and often' whenever he can. He goes to the National Conventions for nominating and enjoys himself very much, because they seem so natural and home-like. He is petted and patted on the back by committees of both political parties, who make heavy bids to get his support, and he accepts both bids and pockets the money. He is told that large and influential numbers of American citizens define a free country as one in which the Devil has equal rights with Almighty God, and argue that laws should be made or applied accordingly, which, being told for news, makes the Devil chuckle, for it is no news to him. Then he is told that many Americans regard him as the victim of a rather exclusive administration ; that though it would not do to nominate him for the Presidency, because availability must first be considered and his nomination might offend some superstitious old bats who count nothing of themselves, though their votes do, yet that any special friend of his, and known to be such by the managers, would stand a good chance. Then they tell him that he can make the laws to suit himself, and then the Devil chuckles again, for he has already had a hand in making a good many of them, and then he winks and says, 'Indiana' ; then they all laugh. One says, 'That's a good one' ; then they all laugh again and take something. Then the Devil winks again and says, 'Connecticut.' Then another cries, 'That's another good one.' Then they laugh all round again and take something."

The rest of the book is taken up in working out, in a very denunciatory manner, theories of government which are those apparently of a very High-Church Episcopalian, with a deep hatred of Cromwell and serious doubts about the Puritans, considerable admiration for England and great devotion to national unity as opposed to State sovereignty, and gifted with a gorgeous rhetoric, which has apparently got the better of him, and rolls him through his volume as the surf rolls him along the beach in summer, if he ever ventures into anything so unbridled and unchristian as the sea.

Mr. Quincy's essay on the protection of majorities endeavors to deal, in the form of a dialogue between a Minister, a Merchant, a Journalist, and a Senator, with the great problem of getting rid of the tyranny and corruption of caucus nominations. He assumes that the majority in every American electoral division is honest and knows a good man when it sees him. The people of a town, for instance, find no difficulty in pointing out the best doctor, or lawyer, or grocer, or carpenter in the place. They would be equally competent to select the best legislator or administrator, but are prevented from doing so by the political managers, who, by organizing a caucus, take the work out of their hands and deprive them of all control over the nominations. He proposes, therefore, that the state should take charge of the nomination as well as of the election, and publish a paper called the *Nominator* in each locality, in which everybody should be at liberty to nominate, with a reasonable amount of explanation and commendation, any candidate he pleases, the suggestion to be adopted or not afterwards at the polls. This Mr. Quincy thinks would reduce the caucus to a mere debating-club, and make underhand arrangements impossible. The proposal is ingenious and yet simple, but it assumes, we fear, greater intelligence and homogeneity in the community, and greater influence on the part of local notables, than are to be found anywhere out of New England. We are afraid that in many parts of the country the caucus would flourish side by side with the *Nominator*, and that the "practical men" would make great fun of the sheet in their secret conclaves. The weak place in all the arguments about reform which assume the public spirit and intelligence of the majority, is that they assume them as constant quantities, whereas they are very variable. The truth is, and it furnishes the professional politician with his stock-in-trade, that the majority is sometimes, and at its best, what its friends take for granted that it is constantly and in its ordinary moods. The men who are willing to watch always are sure to get control of the ship, no matter what their character, and to get the better of those who are only willing to watch when it blows hard.

Dr. Clark's pamphlet has been in our hands for some time. It propounds a plan of reform much more complicated than Mr. Quincy's. He describes the existing situation very ably, though in sombre colors, and aims at the same object as does Mr. Quincy—the deliverance of the political community from the domination of the caucus. He says that what gives the professional politician his power is our practice of giving our political constituencies fixed geographical boundaries. This keeps him constantly informed as to the nature and amount of his work. Knowing exactly the area he has to "subsoil," he calculates his wants, distributes his forces, makes his combinations, lays his "pipe," and rolls his "logs." If, therefore, we can prevent his knowing what the constituency will be until the day of election, his occupation is gone. So Dr. Clark proposes that registered voters be drawn by lots, in constituencies of a certain number each, fifty, one hundred, or one thousand, as the case may be, and that these proceed forthwith to choose a representative elector, and that these electors then elect the various State or town officers or members of Congress—service as elector being made obligatory. It is difficult to say how the constituencies created by lot would work, but Dr. Clark supports his plan by many forcible as well as ingenious arguments. It contains, in any event, the idea on which any great reform in our political system must rest —that is, the provision for the citizen of some safe and simple mode of bolting "the regular nomination." Such essays as Mr. Quincy's and Dr. Clark's, whatever their practical value, are signs of a healthy interest in the undoubted defects of our political machinery, and nobody can read them without deriving from them a great many useful suggestions about the solution of problems which we all perceive staring us in the face, but which some of us would fain leave our children to solve.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*
Bancroft (G.), History of the United States, abridged. Vol. I.	(Little, Brown & Co.) $2 50
Browne (J.), Humorous Phases of the Law	(Sumner, Whitney & Co.)
Feuillet (O.), Marriage in High Life. A Novel	(Porter & Coates) 1 50
Frothingham (Rev. O. B.), Beliefs of the Unbelievers	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 1 00
Habberton (J.), Spectator	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 1 25
Huntington (Rev. F. D.), New Helps to a Holy Lent	(E. P. Dutton & Co.) 1 50
King (E.), French Political Leaders	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 1 50
Lilly (W. S.), Characteristics from the Writings of John Henry Newman	(D. & J. Sadlier & Co.) 1 50
Macmillan (Rev. H.), Our Lord's Three Raisings from the Dead	(E. P. Dutton & Co.) 1 50
Paul (C. K.), William Godwin. 2 vols.	(Roberts Brothers) 6 00
Plain Directions for Accidents	(Claxton, Remsen & Haffelfinger)
Taylor (R. W.), Stories from Ovid in Elegiac Verse	(Rivingtons)
Van Santvoord (Rev. C.), Memoirs of Eliphalet Nott, D.D.	(Sheldon & Co.)
Welch (Prof. F. B.), Faith and Modern Thought	(G. P. Putnam's Sons)
Wharton (F.), Commentaries on Agency and Agencies	(Kay & Brother)
Wolff (C.), Historischer Atlas, Part I., swd.	(E. Steiger)

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 9, 1876.

The Week.

ON the 29th ult. Mr. Caleb P. Marsh, one of a firm of noted contractors in this city, appeared on subpœna before the House Investigating Committee, and testified that in 1870 he had been offered a post-tradership at Fort Sill, in the Indian Territory, on the suggestion and at the request of the then wife of the Secretary of War, Gen. Belknap. On his signifying his willingness to accept it, he was told either by the Secretary or his wife that it would be well for him to see the actual holder of the office, one Evans, and make some arrangement with him. He did see him accordingly, and made Evans agree to pay him $12,000 a year out of the profits as a condition of leaving him undisturbed, and of this he (Marsh) paid half every year to Mrs. Belknap, and on her death in the fall of the same year the payments were continued to her sister and successor, the present Mrs. Belknap. There was a reduction made in the annual amount exacted from Evans two or three years afterwards, in consequence of his complaints and of those of the unfortunate soldiers whom he was fleecing in order to pay the bonus; but Mrs. Belknap received in the aggregate about $20,000. The rest of Marsh's evidence consisted of a recital of the efforts made by the Secretary of War and his wife to prevent his appearance before the Committee, or to induce him to make his evidence harmless. Considering the official rank of Mr. Belknap, and Mrs. Belknap's position in what is called "Administration society" in Washington, the whole story is revolting. As soon as Marsh had given his testimony, the committee apparently began to cry, and prepared a report for the House in which the damning tale was told, and which Mr. Heister Clymer, on the 2d inst., read in tears, or semi-tears, called by the reporters "tremulousness" or "agitation." Resolutions providing for Belknap's impeachment were then passed unanimously and with little or no debate, and the next day he was impeached accordingly before the Senate, considerable doubt, however, prevailing whether the Senate will hold that he is impeachable; for Belknap, on finding that the exposure was coming, promptly placed his resignation in the President's hands, who as promptly accepted it, showing that the Fire rule is put in force only for the protection of officers, and not for that of the public.

While the Committee were contending vainly with their emotions, the witness Marsh, finding how serious the matter was, packed his valise and departed for Montreal, where he is now residing at a hotel, but, the telegraph informs us, looking "haggard and anxious." His flight, it is said, somewhat endangers the proof of the case before the Senate, but it is to be hoped means will be found to bring him back in time. In the meanwhile, other frauds of Belknap's have been brought to light, and notably a fraudulent award of a contract for erecting headstones in the National Soldiers' Cemeteries, by which he is alleged to have pocketed $90,000. Other exposures, too, with regard to the post-traderships are forthcoming. In fact, Belknap appears to have prepared for traffic in the post-traderships by procuring legislation taking the appointments out of the hands of the General of the Army, under the approval of the officers at the posts, and giving it to the War Department. The public mind is, of course, greatly excited, and the air is filled with stories of fresh discoveries. We presume and trust that the Navy Department will now receive a thorough overhauling, and also the Department of the Interior. But when we consider that the War Department was less suspected by the public than any of the others except the State Department, and that the evidence which has destroyed Belknap came to light through a mere accident—the chance remark of an enemy of his to a member of Congress—the public can hardly be blamed for believing that there are still many dismal discoveries to be made on all sides.

General Schenck has sailed for home, but received the news of Belknap's fall before he started, and we trust it has furnished him with profitable food for reflection on the voyage. A full telegraphic summary of James E. Lyon's testimony was sent to the London *Times*, and this probably at last made London too hot for the ambassador. He was served with a writ in the MacDougall proceedings at the railroad station; but this, in true *bouffe* style, he sent to Lord Derby through his first Secretary of Legation. He says he is going to vindicate himself completely before the Committee. We hope he will at the same time explain to Mr. Fish how he came to say he "paid dollar for dollar" for his stock, and how he came to suppress his letter of resignation as director of the Mining Company from December 6 to January 8. Senator Stewart is in California, but says he is coming also to vindicate himself, and enquires innocently "when must he start," to which the *Evening Post* very judiciously replies that the time to "start" is now, at once. Park has not yet been heard from, as he is in Central America; but we dare say he will soon arrive also. When they are all in Washington, with the post-traders, and the gravestone men, and the Indian agents, and the whiskey thieves, and the borrowers of the freedmen's savings, the assemblage will be one of the choicest the world has ever seen, and we advise the Centennial Commission to try and get them lodged and exhibited in a separate building in the grounds, with Colonel Forney and Babcock as superintendent and purveyor. We venture to assert that no feature of the Exhibition would draw as well or prove as profitable. We have frequently enquired in these columns who the persons were so often mysteriously hinted at in the Republican platforms during the last ten years as trying to stop the pensions of the soldiers and sailors, and get the nation to prove generally ungrateful to them. It now appears that it must have been the War Department that was meant, for it was there that the arrangements were made to sell sutlers the right to rob the poor fellows who garrison the forts on the plains, and to make money even out of the headstones which mark the last resting-place of the men who died in the war. When we put this along with the cheating of the freedmen through a sham savings-bank set up by Congress, we feel as if it was a mockery to talk either of the defeat of the party at the polls or even of the consignment of some of the managers to the penitentiary, and as if a good shower of fire and brimstone was the only thing that would meet the case.

The mission to England has, at this writing, been offered to Mr. Richard H. Dana, jr., vice Schenck, resigned, which appears to indicate that "Administration circles" at last begin to guess what the present fuss is about. We earnestly trust that Mr. Dana may be able to accept even for the remaining year of General Grant's administration, for the appearance of a man of his character and reputation would, even during that short period, go far to clear the American name of the odium brought on it by General Schenck's conduct. Complete vindication will only come from thorough reform in the Administration at Washington, and the appearance at the head of the ruling party in politics of a higher type of men than those who have had charge of affairs during the last ten years. But, under the present deplorable circumstances, no man of Mr. Dana's standing can refuse a place except under the pressure of overwhelming necessity.

There are now some three thousand bills awaiting the action of Congress or the Committees; but the events of the past week have made the prospect of legislation on the currency and other questions of public interest seem further off than ever. In the Senate Mr. Sherman and Mr. Bogy have made speeches on the subject of finance. The Pinchback case has again come up, and again been postponed; important petitions from merchants opposing the repeal of the Bankruptcy Act have been presented; and a resolution passed calling upon the Postmaster-General for information as to "straw bids." The House has impeached General Belknap for corruption; has debated (not very luminously) the Hawaiian treaty; has adopted a resolution instructing the Judiciary Committee to enquire into the facts connected with the so-called Safe-Burglary trial (important evidence having, it is said, been discovered showing the complicity of high officials); and another resolution for the appointment of a select committee to enquire whether any official of the Government helped the defence in the recent whiskey trials in any way by communication of facts, papers, or other evidence, or by interfering with the prosecution, or in any other way. Mr. Randall has also introduced a bill, which has been referred, providing that evidence given by witnesses before Congressional committees shall not be used against them elsewhere.

The Democratic caucus finance committee, by a slight majority, has agreed on a measure to be called "a bill to provide for the gradual resumption of specie payments." It directs the Treasury to accumulate a coin reserve, to the amount of three per cent. each year (after July 1, 1876) of the outstanding legal-tenders; provides that the banks shall accumulate a similar reserve against their circulation out of "coin receivable" and interest on thier Governments; that this accumulation shall continue until the reserve in the banks and the Treasury amounts to 30 per cent. against legal-tenders and the same percentage against bank-notes, and requires this percentage to be retained as a constant reserve; repeals the requirements of the resumption act of last year for retirement of legal-tenders, and the fixing of January 1, 1879, as the date of resumption. The bill names no definite time for resumption. There is little chance of its passing, but its introduction into the House by a responsible committee, who bring it forward after months of reflection and debate as the best measure the Democrats are capable of offering the country, is a shocking exposure of the intellectual and moral condition of the leaders of the party. The bill is a gross act of bad faith, as it violates three distinct pledges given by the Government. Senator Sherman's speech on the currency question in the Senate puts measures like this in their true light. He declares—and this is now, indeed, the only position which can be honorably taken by any one—that the time for discussion about resumption has gone by, and the only question for the country is whether it will redeem its promises or finally repudiate them. He shows that in the first place the United States, in 1862, promised to pay dollar for dollar in coin for its paper, and that it has violated this promise for fifteen years; that this promise was renewed in 1869, "at as early a day as practicable," and again in 1875 a promise was given to resume in 1879. We must now either provide means for resumption or confess the country dishonored and disgraced in the eyes of the civilized commercial world. This view of the subject is that generally taken outside of Congress, and deprives all measures like that proposed by the Democratic committee of any vitality. The country understands well enough that if last year's promise can be broken now, the promise of this year can be broken quite as well twelve months hence.

The Detroit bar has presented a very strong memorial to Congress in regard to one of the defects in the bill to establish Federal courts of appeal. It may be recollected (*Nation*, No. 554) that the bill now before Congress embraces the precise elements of a measure previously suggested in these columns—save one. The lawyers of Detroit take up the subject and point out that this omission is certain to be attended with serious inconveniences. After acknowledging that "some intermediate appeal is necessary to relieve the Supreme Court," and that whatever is done "should aim to make legal redress prompt, easy, and at the least practicable cost," the memorial goes on to give some powerful reasons why each Court of Appeals should sit in every State, as suggested by the *Nation*, and not merely in every circuit, as provided by the bill. Among others:

"Each circuit embraces several States, and some circuits include an immense territorial extent. Thus, this circuit includes the large States of Tennessee, Kentucky, Ohio, and Michigan, from the south to the extreme north a distance of near one thousand miles.

"The saving and convenience of suitors and their counsel would be very great. In many cases it would be safe to say it would diminish the cost of litigation one-half. This will be obvious when the charges of counsel, called to go a long distance and to wait the uncertain progress of a heavy calendar, is considered.

"It would bring the court into personal and professional intercourse with a much larger circle of members of the bar, and give the latter the great advantage which the sittings of such a court would afford in many ways.

"Finally, it is obviously desirable that all appeals should, if practicable, be heard and determined in the place where the laws prevail under which the cases have arisen and been tried. Everything which pertains to the local practice can be better dealt with and applied in the forum of such practice than elsewhere."

It is to be understood that this omission is due to the fact that our representatives in Congress are ashamed to compel the judges to hold courts at distant points without paying them adequate salaries, but are also afraid to increase the appropriation bills so near a Presidential election. In other words, the Congressional idea of economy is that it will cost the people of the United States less for fifty suitors and lawyers to travel a thousand miles than for one judge, and that courts ought to be as inconvenient as possible in order that they may be as cheap as possible.

There is a reciprocity treaty with the Sandwich Islands before the House of Representatives which we trust there is wisdom enough in that body to kill incontinently. The whole foreign trade of the islands—*i.e.*, what the islands buy—amounts to about $1,155,000 per annum; what they sell amounts to about $1,400,000 per annum, six-sevenths of which (or $1,200,000) is represented by sugar. Of so much of this sugar or other products as the United States consumes it pays for as it pays for other things (in 1874 by products to the amount of $620,000). But the Sandwich Island planters, numbering about forty, now ask that, in addition to paying as in ordinary trade, the United States shall give a bounty, by specially remitting the duties imposed on all foreign sugars in favor of the island products, equivalent to an average of fifty per cent. bounty on the cost of the sugar at the shipping ports of the island. This bounty on the import of Hawaiian sugar for last year would have amounted to $540,000, and is certain to increase, under a guarantee of 50 per cent. profit on all that they can produce, to $1,500,000 per annum. Or, in other words, it is proposed that we carry on trade with the islands hereafter by giving a dollar's worth of American products for a dollar's worth of island products, and then making the island people the present of another dollar to encourage trade. This is called reciprocity, but it looks like buying trade and paying an excessively high price for it. For every dollar of revenue thus remitted an equivalent dollar must be raised by some other form of taxation to supply the deficiency. Neither will the American price of sugar be affected; for the amount the islands can produce under any circumstances, although in the aggregate large, is as nothing to the aggregate consumption of the United States.

The friends of the treaty use some arguments in its favor that border on the comic. One is that it would give us the carrying-trade with the islands; but as this trade is not a coasting trade, and as, therefore, we have no monopoly of it, it will go to the ships of whatever nation can carry cheapest, unless the sugar-planters are simpletons, of which there is as yet no sign. Another is that if we do not make the treaty Great Britain or some of her colonies will. But

Great Britain has not, since this treaty was last rejected in 1867, shown the slightest disposition to do anything of the kind; and why should she, for all sugar is now admitted free to her home ports? Nor are the Pacific colonies likely to do so, because they now get their sugar from another British colony, the Mauritius, which makes it cheaper than the Hawaiians can make it. General Schofield and Admiral Porter also say that the Sandwich Islands are "our only natural outpost for the defence of the Pacific coast." As these islands are 2,500 miles from the coast, this is very like saying that we need the Azores for the proper defence of the Atlantic coast, and is, with all respect for the army and navy, a little ridiculous. Civilians have some common sense about military matters. It would be easy to base on this theory an argument that we needed nearly the whole world for the strategic protection of the United States. We must remark in conclusion that when Mr. Fernando Wood reported to the House on this proposed treaty that we import sugar from Cuba to the amount of $77,000,000 a year, and that Cuba only took in return from us of our products $1,400,000, that statesman erred grievously. Our exports to Cuba for the year 1873-4 were $19,597,000; our imports, $86,272,000.

The fact that silver halves, quarters, etc., are worth much less in gold than fractional currency, and also that they are worth much less measured by the paper legal-tender standard, seems to be unwelcome to those who were getting ready to throw their hats in the air at the success of "silver resumption"; and the *Times* has found it necessary to come to the rescue. It maintains that a fractional note is less valuable than a piece of silver, which is one way for saying that it takes less gold to buy a pound of paper than it does to buy a pound of silver. By this kind of reasoning it could be conclusively shown that a piece of paper on which is inscribed a promise to pay five thousand dollars is worth less than the smallest silver coin. Evidently feeling doubtful, on second thoughts, whether this reasoning is altogether conclusive, the *Times* goes on to say that the silver halves, quarters, dimes, etc., being legal tender, "the law-abiding citizens of the United States who have for years taken little bits of paper" will take the silver coins, and therefore "it will be miraculous if their exchange value falls below that of the inflammable stuff" (Treasury notes). In other words, it will be miraculous if, being a legal tender, people refuse to take them in sums for which they are a legal tender. All of which, of course, proves conclusively that with silver at its present price, and with gold at its present price, a given sum of subsidiary silver coin is now worth more in gold than is a like sum of fractional notes. There is no doubt that subsidiary silver coins will now circulate; the danger is that there may be such changes in the paper legal-tender currency as will drive silver out of circulation, a danger which will not disappear until the only standard legal tender is gold coin.

In Wall Street there was little, during the week, out of the usual course of affairs except the heavy decline in one or two speculative stocks. Pacific Mail fell 11 "points," ostensibly because the Panama Railroad managers, acting in their individual capacity, determined to put on an opposition line to Pacific Mail, and sent out one of the steamers which is to run between Panama and San Francisco. The stock of the Western Union Telegraph was also depressed by the reduction in rates forced by rival lines, which must impair dividends. Railroad stocks were well held, and their earnings are increasing. Money was very abundant, and the change in the bank reserve was not important; although $600,000 less than the next preceding week, the surplus reserve is more than double what it was at the corresponding time last year. The exports of specie during the week were not large—$1,341,916, of which only $815,000 was gold coin. Sterling exchange closed with rates below the point at which gold coin can be shipped. The gold value of $100 greenbacks ranged during the week between $88 49 and $86 95.

A public meeting of some significance was held in Boston last week in response to an invitation to "all persons interested in the political aspects of the temperance movement, and those similarly interested in the claim of suffrage for women, to consider the propriety of taking measures to unite their political efforts to secure the success of the two movements." Mr. Wendell Phillips, the principal speaker, stated to the large audience present that a union of the friends of woman-suffrage and of prohibition in Massachusetts would form a political party able to command from 30,000 to 40,000 votes in that State, and thus to hold the balance of power between the two great political parties, thereby forcing the one or the other to accede to their demands. Judge Pitman, of the Superior Court, also believed that if women were allowed to vote, "the temperance (prohibitory) cause would be speedily successful." Another speaker, Mr. A. Bronson Alcott, thought that "the vice that was now sapping our public institutions was the impurity of men, and the voice of woman would be given in behalf of personal purity; women would enquire into the private lives of politicians"—assertions which read queerly in the light of the connection of women with the last great political scandal. Mr. Phillips advised also the union of "a third element"—the friends of "the labor cause." It cannot be doubted that a large number of people look for the coming of a political and social millennium through the establishment of a particular reform—woman-suffrage, prohibition, labor-reform, secular education, or some other cherished hobby. They take the same mental attitude which enables many people to read with gladness the advertisement of the patent-medicine vender who has discovered a new panacea for physiological ills; and the orderly development of genuine political progress is likely to be complicated and impeded for a long time to come by mischievous schemes analogous to the one thus favorably initiated in Boston.

Professor Egbert C. Smyth raises, on behalf of the Andover Church, certain objections to the provision made by the Brooklyn Advisory Council for the further investigation of any charges that may be offered against Mr. Beecher which strike us as having a good deal of force. He, in the first place, criticises the arrangement as not Congregational; but what he says on this point has not much interest for the general public. His strong point is that accusers are asked to bring charges before a court not yet constituted, and which cannot be constituted until the charges are made, and which, though it may be made up of five of the twenty persons put on the list, may, in case all these decline to serve, be made up of persons as yet unmentioned and unknown, as the Committee of Three has, in that case, the right to travel through the denomination in search of judges. It may be said that trials before courts-martial take place under somewhat similar conditions, but parties always know approximately what the composition of these courts will be—know, that is to say, that they will be composed of persons of a particular and small profession, and selected from a small portion of that profession. It must be admitted that this is, or is likely to be, considered a serious objection by any possible accusers of Mr. Beecher; but then his probable accusers are Moulton and Bowen, who are not easily daunted. Should the demurrer now pending in Moulton's civil suit be decided in his favor, he will be able to get all the facts before the court, without the encumbrance of Tilton's faults and follies which proved so distracting a feature in last year's trial. Bowen's statement has in the meantime been published, and contains stories told him by two women whose names he offers to communicate under pledge of secrecy; but the Examining Committee are stern and implacable with him, and will probably withdraw the "watch and care" which the church has hitherto exercised over his precious but peculiar soul. The most marked effect of the statements and counterstatements as they succeed each other is, we think, a deepened impression of the amount of lying done in and about and concerning Plymouth Church and its pastor, and of the amount of disingenuousness, short of lying, of which professing Christians can be guilty without loss of self-respect.

THE BELKNAP CASE.

THE LAW OF IT.

WE presume there will be little difference of opinion as to the wisdom of the course which the House has adopted in resolving to impeach in spite of Belknap's resignation. The Constitution, as Story says, appears to contemplate the actual holding of a place in the civil service of the Government as necessary to make a person liable to impeachment; but the point has never been settled in practice, and the present case affords an excellent opportunity for settling it. What the precedent ought to be, supposing the field to be open for making one, there can be little doubt. The Constitution expressly prohibits the pardon by the President of anybody convicted on impeachment, thus following the common law, and unquestionably for the same reason—that is, in order to prevent the chief executive officer of the Government from shielding, under the influence of sympathy or complicity, any of his subordinates from the penal consequences of gross misconduct. But if an officer can be protected against impeachment by placing his resignation in the President's hands, and getting him to accept it, of course the withdrawal of the pardoning power in impeachment cases becomes nugatory. The President can, under this view, always pardon before impeachment, and pardon much more effectively than if he pardons afterwards, because he can save the culprit the shame and exposure of a trial. In fact, the consequences of the doctrine that when an officer finds that he is threatened with exposure he has only to throw up his office in order to protect himself against proceedings before the Senate, would be almost farcical in their character; for it must be remembered that for the success of the trick it would not be necessary to have the President for an accomplice, or to take him suddenly and by surprise. An officer who saw unpleasant revelations impending, as Belknap did, several days or weeks before they came, would only have to plead ill-health, or domestic affairs, or weariness of harness, to secure in a leisurely way the President's formal and unsuspecting acquiescence in his retirement, and then the House would find itself powerless. This is therefore an excellent occasion for a precedent which shall render it impossible for any officer in the service of the Government to withdraw himself, or for the President to withdraw him, from trial before the Senate on the accusation of the House for any crimes or misdemeanors committed by him while in office.

There has been more or less ransacking of English precedents in this case, although it is admitted that they are not applicable to the civil service of this country. The one which has most application, if any are applicable, is neither Bacon's nor Warren Hastings's, but that of Viscount Melville, the famous Harry Dundas, so powerful in Scotch politics in the early part of the present century. He was First Lord of the Admiralty under Pitt in 1804, and was accused by a committee of investigation of having appropriated £20,000 to some other use than the service of his department. He said it had gone "to other services not connected with his situation as Treasurer of the Navy," but that he could not account for it "without disclosing delicate and confidential transactions of the Government." Pitt was convinced of his personal integrity, and resolved to defend him. Resolutions of strong censure were then introduced in the House of Commons by the Opposition, and carried by the Speaker's casting vote. Melville thereupon resigned his place of First Lord of the Admiralty. But this was not enough. A motion was then made for an address to the King asking for his removal from the Privy Council. Pitt tried to compromise by declaring that Melville would never return to power; but Melville asked him to stop the discussion by sacrificing him, and accordingly Pitt announced in the House that he had advised the erasure of Lord Melville's name from the list of Privy Councillors. But even this did not satisfy the Opposition. On the appearance of a supplemental report from the Committee of Investigation, a new motion for his impeachment was made, and before it was debated Melville was heard in his own defence at the bar of the House. The motion and an amendment for his criminal prosecution by the Attorney-General were then debated, and the latter was carried by 238 to 229. His friends, however, preferring impeachment to prosecution, carried a motion to rescind this vote and proceed by impeachment. He was accordingly tried by the House of Lords and acquitted; but he was a ruined man.

THE MORAL OF IT.

There are reflections enough of an unpleasant sort suggested by the Belknap affair, and we presume it has caused in all parts of the country a vast amount of shame and humiliation. But then it is of the utmost importance that we should be ashamed of and humiliated by the right thing. At present all our emotions run into wrath against Belknap, and we try to believe that by swiftly punishing him by all sorts of processes, we shall not only cure the wound which his fall has inflicted on the national pride, but prevent the recurrence of such wretched tragedies in the future. We sincerely hope that but few people will be tempted into such illusions. Belknap's fall is nothing but the symptom of a disease from which not he but the whole body politic is suffering; a disease of which the American people has had full knowledge for years, which its statesmen and moralists have been in vain imploring it to treat while it is yet time, but which it has thus far persistently refused to deal with. We tell those who are wailing over the spectacle now presented by our public life, and who are asking themselves whether honesty is dead among us, that Belknap and Babcock and Williams and Delano and Shepherd and Casey and Schenck and the rest of them are not the natural products of American life or morals, and that the scandals with which the papers are filled are not the necessary or even probable consequences of our political constitution. If the attempt were made to-day, in any civilized country in the world, to carry on the government by a civil service constituted and administered as ours is, the corruption and debasement would be as great in all societies as they are in ours, and in some much greater. The rascals whose presence in places of trust and emolument now afflict us would, under like circumstances, show themselves in England or Germany or France in even larger numbers and with greater enterprise and effrontery. There is nothing peculiar either for good or evil in the executive department of our government; we can no more carry on the business of the American people in total disregard of principles of human nature than we can carry on the business of a single American counting-house. There is no substitute for character in American affairs any more than in European affairs, and there is no mode of testing character but the old one, which was as well known to Abraham as to Secretary Bristow. We presume there is not in the history of superstition itself a more extraordinary chapter than the story of the conversion of the civil service of this Government from a corps of honest, hardworking clerks, living by good behavior, into a horde of adventurers, made up of the failures of commercial and professional life, and encouraged to rely for their bread not on diligence or honesty, but on falsehood, intrigue, and eye-service. It has been wrought openly, notoriously, and on a great scale, under the eyes of the nation, and wrought with so much impunity that politicians have at last acquired brass enough to defend it, as part and parcel of American polity; and wrought, too, in the presence of millions who have learnt through their own experience from what sources men draw the strength to bear their share of the cares and trials of life without cheating, lying, or stealing. There is no man who knows our civil service as it is at this moment—who knows by what arts places in it are procured and kept—but must, in spite of the presence in it of the small *cadre* of the honest and efficient who are necessary to prevent the whole machinery from going to pieces, pronounce it a disgrace to our civilization, and must admit that it constitutes a standing mockery of our religion and morality. The preaching which one hears in our churches in encouragement of honesty in private business is, in fact, made almost ludicrous by the fact that we all subscribe annually hundreds of thousands of dollars out of our hard earnings to keep a-going this great national reproach.

The reason why we are so unhappy just now, and so sad and despondent about politics in this hundredth year of the national existence, is not that the state has any more difficulty than it ever had, or than any state has, in finding men to serve it in singleness of heart, fearing God. As we had the honor to remark, when so many people were bleating out condonation of Butler's rascalities, because he had with a fleet and army held an unfortified, conquered city in subjection, the race of honest gentlemen, and gallant soldiers, and honorable merchants, and faithful lawyers, and just stewards is not dead in the United States, or dying. In fact, we have no doubt they form as large a proportion of the population as they ever did, and resist temptations by which the virtue of their fathers was never tried. But we have allowed a system to be built up under our eyes which actually has all the marks of having been framed for the express purpose of preventing their ever rendering the Government the service either of their character or their skill. That this system has not produced its natural results sooner has been due simply to the fact that, down to the close of the war, a series of accidents kept it under the control of the traditions and usages of a better time. Pierce and Buchanan, and Lincoln and Johnson all had their faults as administrators, but they were men who had grown up in office or in the forum, and who had sat at the feet of teachers in whom the original ideal of the Government was still strong; to whom offices were still trusts, and public opinion a power to be studied and comprehended; who felt bound by a custom which they had no thought of resisting to surround themselves in the high places of the Government by conspicuous, tried, and experienced men.

The crisis came when an ignorant soldier, coarse in his tastes and blunt in his perceptions, fond of money and material enjoyment and of low company, was put in the Presidential Chair. We blame nobody for this, and nobody was blamable The party did the best it could under the circumstances, but his real character as a civilian began to appear very early in his administration. It was fully revealed when he received his second nomination, and on the day he received it the Republican party assumed the responsibility for him and his followers which is to-day covering it with infamy. But the point to which we wish to call attention is, that he and his friends, bold as they are, could not have wrought a tithe of the mischief they have wrought had they been compelled to discharge their duties through a properly organized, disciplined, and honorable corps of civil servants. Instead of this they found themselves at the head of a herd of functionaries to whom the idea of duty to the country, as the consideration of their wages, is never presented, directly or indirectly, from the day of their appointment to that of their dismissal, and on whose honor and devotion no more call is made than on those of a band of robbers. The President when he took office began to do what members of Congress have been doing for forty years—use the appointments in his gift for the benefit of his personal friends; and the personal friends began to make money out of the offices because they naturally presumed that he could hardly have considered the simple bestowal of a small salary much of a favor. When charges began to be made against them, too, he received the charges not as a superior officer responsible for the enforcement of discipline, but as a member of Congress would receive charges against one of the best "workers" in his district—not, in short, as a magistrate, but as a "pal." From the levying of assessments for political purposes on meagre pay to the selling of offices is a short step, which ordinary human nature makes readily; and Belknap is suffering for having made it, not because he is worse than others, but because he is in a higher place. In other words, he is the most conspicuous victim of a rotten system which is gradually ruining public life and public men, and converting our Government into a robber's cave. Belknap is gone; but the system remains, and as long as it remains more Belknaps will appear.

We have been warning the readers of this journal for seven years that to this complexion it would come at last; that the régime under which we were living was so coarse and venal that it must end in some tremendous catastrophe that would cover us with shame and fill us with despair; that the Southern "outrages" were but a blind set up by thieves to throw the police off the scent, and that the great enemies of free government in this country were to be found not in Louisiana and Mississippi but in Washington; and that the chorus of adulation and apology which was addressed every year by Republican editors and Republican conventions to the President were only hardening a somewhat obtuse and selfish nature in courses and associations which were full of danger to the country. The mischief is, however, by no means irreparable. We have just one year more of this deplorable administration to bear with, and during that period we must, while pushing on the work of investigation and praying that the discovery of guilt may stop short of the highest place, possess our souls in patience. But it is still in the power of the American people to see that the affliction does not recur, by electing a President whose sympathies and associations connect him with the best social life of the country, who belongs to its men of honor and intellect and morality, who is familiar with its best political usages and traditions, and who is either content with the fortune he has got or whose character has been tried by temptation and resisted it, and who has the courage which is needed to head a revolution. For revolution there must be. The reform of the army of 80,000 civil officers must come, and it must come in spite of the Camerons and Mortons and Conklings and Boutwells and Chandlers, if the form of the government is to remain unchanged.

THE EDUCATIONAL INFLUENCES OF FREE SOUP.

SINCE the first week in January several of our large cities have been making a regular daily or tri-weekly gift of a dinner of beef-soup or fish-chowder to every poor person who might apply for it. In some places a nominal attempt has been made to separate the sheep from the goats—the deserving poor from the hungry loafers—by taking the names of applicants when they first apply, and making enquiries subsequently at their tenements; but practically, we doubt not, in all of these places every one who wished has been able to obtain food enough to keep body and soul together, free of expense, until the return of warm weather. There is undoubtedly a comfortable feeling of satisfaction connected with the idea that all the poor wretches of any large city can have a full stomach every day, or at least several times a week, which not only fully justifies, on sentimental grounds, this public feeding of the multitude, but which may well make even a Gradgrind reluctant to believe that the practice is almost wholly a vicious one, whether looked at from the point of view of politics, of morals, or of general social welfare.

The number of people, however, even in our largest cities, who are so completely destitute as to be actually in danger of starvation, is extremely small at any time; and this small number can be much more effectually relieved in some other way than by advertising the gift of a bowl of soup at a police-station. But, granting fully that good may be done occasionally in this way, we maintain, nevertheless, that the mischief wrought is so vastly preponderant that the practice entirely fails of adequate justification. It is not necessary to recapitulate the arguments by which it has been fully proved that the best-intentioned private charity is more likely to do harm than to do good, unless careful discrimination, supplemented by a considerable amount of knowledge of social forces, is exercised in the bestowal. We assume that the validity of these arguments will be admitted by every one who is competent to express an opinion about them. Using these arguments, therefore, as a stepping-stone, we wish now to examine certain educational influences connected with the public distribution of free soup which seem to us to have an especial bearing upon some of our most pressing political problems.

Closely connected with the discussion now going on with reference to our public schools, there is a fact of deep moment which we think has not received its full share of attention, the fact, namely,

that however the question of reading the Bible, of religious instruction, etc., may be decided, the decision will have no effect upon the political education of the great mass of our voting population. Indeed, no political education whatever is received in the common schools, for the very good reason that this kind of education is not to be acquired by the study of arithmetic, grammar, and geography, and may be utterly lacking, therefore, in the voter who has been compelled reluctantly to learn how to write his name or to read correctly a chapter in the Bible. Admitting ever—that which, as matter of fact, is of course untrue—that the graduates of our academies and colleges have received a thorough political education, yet all these graduates together furnish only a minority of our voters. In fact, the only political education which is possible to a large majority of voters, or which is likely to be possible for very many years to come, is the education of public opinion, of the social influences which are developed, in part at least, by the practical working of our political institutions. Now, without doubt, upon the very lowest class of our population—the worthless vagabonds and criminals who are rapidly crowding into our cities from every direction—these social influences produce a great part of their effect through the efficiency (or lack thereof) of the police and criminal courts. But the persons composing this class are the very ones who will devour the largest portion of the soup and chowder. If, therefore, they behold the dreaded baton of the officer changed into the wand which protects and conveys to them their daily food, we may feel assured that their political education, if small in amount, will be rapid in growth and very positive in direction. It will take no longer than the date of the next election for them to learn that one very important function of government is to feed them with hot soup and vegetables every winter; and they and their compeers will unanimously cast their ballots for that candidate for the common council who is likely to vote, or who has already voted, for the free distribution of loaves and fishes. And long before the date of the succeeding election, they will have become firm believers in their inalienable right to demand of government free subsistence for a certain portion of every year.

A step above the lowest class of our population is the common laborer, who has an amount of pride sufficiently large to forbid him to apply for free soup unless driven by great distress. Nevertheless, he is now out of work, and, if not destitute, is at least uncomfortable. Observing the vagabond provided with daily food by a beneficent government, he naturally believes that his desires are extremely moderate when he requests the same good government to provide him with work enough to enable him to buy the same food which is furnished free to his less ambitious fellow. This request is now often expressed in the shape of a demand which the politician is fast learning to treat with becoming respect. Already contractors and city superintendents of work recognize the rightfulness of the laborer's demand, and at least in one city, as we happen to know, the superintendent who has charge of the building of the sewers regularly "rotates" his laborers, thus giving employment for a certain length of time to each laborer residing in the district through which a sewer happens to be passing. The arrangement is well understood by the laborers, who are quite satisfied with it, and make no complaint at being discharged without cause, provided each man has had his full allotment of time. In illustration also of the present attitude of the laborer toward government, is the fact that only the other day a band of workmen paraded the streets of a large city bearing a banner inscribed with the legend, "Bread or Work," and when they reached the headquarters of government the mayor promised to give them work upon a new reservoir. It is evident that this demand for work, which grows more importunate each succeeding year, is only the demand for free soup in another form.

Passing from the common laborer, and omitting one or two intermediate grades, we reach the mechanic, who does not dream of asking government to furnish him with food, nor does he even ask for work. He demands only that government shall care for him—that is, furnish him with bread indirectly, by passing laws which shall enable him to make his work light, or to command increased wages for present work, or to protect himself against the competition of other workmen, etc. It is not necessary, however, to pursue the examination further, although we are pretty well convinced that a close inspection would detect the savory odor of free soup inhaled by the farmer asking for "Granger" legislation, or by the steamship or railroad director who is begging for a subsidy, or a land-grant, or a loan of the national credit.

We are not to be understood as arguing that free soup alone has actually produced all the harmful theories above indicated, or that there is any conscious existence in the minds of the other classes referred to of any logical process which, starting with the gift of soup to the poorest class, ends with a demand for government assistance in a different form. But we do maintain most earnestly that many of the national evils most to be dreaded at the present day belong to that political system of which free soup may be regarded as the index, or the initiatory step, or the logical outcome, according to the point of view of the observer. And, moreover, we contend that the daily gift of food to the most dangerous classes of our cities not only gives them a wholly erroneous conception of the relation which government should hold towards them, but that it also encourages analogous erroneous beliefs in more powerful and more intelligent classes—classes, moreover, the members of which are already in a numerical majority in many parts of the country, and the success of whose political or financial theories would immediately endanger our national existence. It is no morbid imagination which finds not only official corruption and financial ruin, but possible communistic horrors also, in the dregs of the bowl of municipal free soup.

The remedy for this unfortunate condition of affairs is not to be found in the education of the common schools, even if this should be made compulsory. The rhetorical aphorism of an English statesman, "Let us educate our masters," has no meaning here, for "our masters" are daily receiving an education of a very different sort from that intended, and their political principles (if we may use the word) are formed undeniably by the general tone of public opinion and not by the spelling-book. The mayors of one or two of our large cities have recently informed the laborer, in unmistakable terms, that a municipal government is in no way bound to furnish work to supply his necessities. Let declarations of this kind, coming from men who are filling responsible positions, be duly emphasized upon all suitable occasions by every man who understands their bearing and their importance, and a very few years would suffice to bring about a healthy change in the tone of public opinion. But even if the desired change should require a longer period of time than we now believe to be necessary, it must be made sooner or later if many things most precious in our national life are to be preserved. Free soup must be prohibited, and all classes must learn that soup of any kind, beef or turtle, can be had only by being paid for.

MOODY AND SANKEY.

A VERY short half hour spent at the Hippodrome will probably convince any one that any very subtle explanations of the success of the revival would be thrown away. When the revivalists were in England the English press (which persisted in regarding the whole movement as phenomenal and out of the course of nature) racked its brains, if the expression may be allowed, to account to an intelligent public for the extraordinary interest excited by the preaching and singing of Messrs. Moody and Sankey; and the *Saturday Review*, if we remember right, finally announced the true explanation to be that the audience were all women, and the manifestations due to hysteria caused by the overcrowding and overheating. But at the Hippodrome the building is not overcrowded or overheated, and the audience is to a great extent masculine, and yet the success of the movement is undeniable. The explanation of this success that we should be inclined to give is a very simple one, for it is nothing more nor less than that the Moody and Sankey services are an old-fashioned revival with the modern improvements. There is, we strongly suspect, no mystery whatever about the matter; and in order that we may determine whether this is so, let us examine in detail what the mystery is commonly supposed to consist of. In the first place, some

people think it very inexplicable that the revival should be conducted by a plain, uneducated man like Moody. There would be far greater cause for astonishment if a revival were to be set on foot by Dr. Hall or Dr. Washburne; but that we should find Moody at the head of it is exactly what might be antecedently expected. In the second place, a good deal of surprise has been expressed at the fact that there should be so little dogmatic theology or biblical exegesis in Moody's sermons; but a revival is not the place to look for these things. A revival preacher is no pundit, but an exhorter to a new life, and he is, by the conditions under which he works, constrained to make his exhortations simple and general. He does not appeal to the select few, but to the general mass, and he must be careful—if any care were needed—never to leave their level. The crowd that goes to the Hippodrome has certain religious feelings of a very vague sort, as a common property, and it is these that must be touched. If the Hippodrome were nightly filled with thousands of people listening anxiously to an examination by Moody of Matthew Arnold's views of the Fourth Gospel, we should certainly be astonished; but that they should go to listen to promises of happiness, of repose of conscience, and of life eternal, from a man whom they must instinctively feel is only different from themselves by the religion which he has "got," and of which he tells them they too may have the endless blessings for the asking, does not strike us as strange at all.

It would certainly be singular if, as has frequently been alleged, there were large numbers of highly educated and critical people who were coming under the influence of Moody and Sankey. But though this has been frequently stated as a fact, we have seen no proof of it, and the general character of the audience at the Hippodrome disproves it. There are, it is true, in the building a large number of such people, but most of them belong to one of two classes, the officially religious class (of all denominations), which sees in the revival a means of bringing religious influence to bear upon people who are ordinarily beyond their reach, or the curious. Of the latter there are a good many, and of the former there are many more. Out ide these two classes the audience is not in any way noticeable, except from the absence of the very poor. Roughly speaking, it looks like an audience able to pay its way, to ride in horse-cars, or even on rapid-transit lines, should there ever be any.

Perhaps the most noticeable thing about the Hippodrome services is the orderly simplicity which marks them. The interior presents the appearance of a large church well filled with regular attendants. So far from there being any hysteria or excitement, it is difficult to detect among the audience any trace of violent emotion. There is so little of it, indeed, that whole rows of the audience present the appearance that rows in the theatre or a regular church might present. In the old-fashioned camp-meeting all sorts of coarse devices are resorted to to induce a somewhat hysterical condition of mind, but these are conspicuous by their absence at the Hippodrome. It is clear at once that you are not in the backwoods, but in a large city which has made considerable progress in refinement, and has learned to insist on mildness in religion. The singing, the preaching, and the whole air of the place tend to a condition of sentiment somewhat akin to that which, if we may suggest such a thing, an orthodox admirer of Renan's 'Vie de Jésus' might think truly Christian, and believers of a sterner mould consider too sentimental.

It has been observed by some persons that the musical part of the Hippodrome performances is made very prominent; and so it is. But so it has also been from the beginning of time at every revival and camp-meeting in the country. At all such meetings the rebellion against the claim of the devil to "all the good tunes" has been very marked. Camp-meeting or revival music is always a protest against religious music as given in the regular churches. There are in the Moody and Sankey hymn-books a few of the old, solemn, gloomy, and grand tunes which are to be found in every Congregational hymn-book, and the contrast between these and the Moody and Sankey tunes is very noteworthy. Musically speaking, the time of the old tunes is slow and regular, and the expression in singing is of the simplest. Pure, well-trained voices are all that is needed for such music. But the Moody and Sankey hymns, while written to religious words, are made attractive by many secular contrivances. The time is now slow, now rapid, constantly changing, the notes of every variety of length, and the general effect of the whole designed to give pronounced meaning to the words. Determine the pleasure that you get from a circus quick-step, a negro-minstrel sentimental ballad, a college chorus, and a hymn all in one, and you have some gauge of the variety and contrast that may be perceived in one of these songs. Sankey's voice is a loud and distinct, though not a refined one, and he sings with expression. He is, in fact, a trained ballad-singer, and dramatizes the sinner's or the believer's situation as he sings.

Moody is a camp-meeting preacher. In his style he is perfectly straightforward and plain; he practises no arts of oratory, and even stumbles in his delivery. There is no thought, of any consequence, in what he says; it is perfectly obvious that thought is the last thing he aims at. What he is here for is to exhort the impenitent sinner to believe and repent, and his means of convincing him that he ought to believe and repent are not those which Jonathan Edwards would have considered the most appropriate, but simply consist of exhortation and appeals.

It has been observed that revivals are apt to occur after great commercial crises; and whether this be true or not, there has not been a revival of any importance in this part of the country since that which followed the panic of 1857. During these fifteen or twenty years people have become so unfamiliar with the phenomena of revivals that they are inclined to believe there must be some mystery in the present one. The only peculiarity that we have been able to detect in it is, that in the present case the revivalists, accommodating themselves to the spirit of the times, have left out of their programme the use of the awful warnings of future damnation which use to play such a prominent part in their appeals. In the services at the Hippodrome the sinner is not frightened or browbeaten. He is affectionately entreated to enter into the kingdom of heaven. It is represented to him to be an easy matter—a matter not of ritual or works, but of exertion of the will. The revivalists' God is not the just Jehovah of the Puritans, holding the scales even and meting out rewards and punishment with an impartial and unpitying hand—a God who keeps the fires of hell constantly replenished with brimstone, and whose scheme of the universe is not complete without devils as well as angels. He is, on the contrary, a mild and loving God, forgiving and pardoning to the last; a God who cares little for correctness of dogma so that the heart be pure—the God of the ignorant no less than the wise, and who is present at the overflow meetings at the Hippodrome no less than at the churches on the Fifth Avenue corner lots.

Whether such a revival does harm or good, is one of those questions which are often put about movements on a great scale without much reflection as to what they really mean. What is meant by "good" and what by "bad" in such a connection? If we mean, Does the revival really "revive" the people affected by it? there cannot be any doubt that it does. The question in this form is very much like asking whether the women's whiskey crusade in the West in 1874 left the West at the end as drunken as at the beginning. The success of a moral or religious revival must be its own best proof. But if we ask whether the revival has, on the whole, improved the tone of those affected by it, we must ask what it attempted to do for them. Now, Messrs. Moody and Sankey's attempt has simply been to arouse an interest and belief in the efficacy of religion—not any particular kind of Christianity, but of Christianity itself; and it is utterly beyond belief that this can do any one any harm. We have no hesitation in saying that any father of a family, no matter of what sort, may risk himself, and his wife, and his children, and his maid-servant, and his man-servant, and the stranger within his gates at the Hippodrome, without fear of the result. They may not be edified, but they certainly cannot be harmed. There is only one type of person likely to be injured by Messrs. Moody and Sankey, and that is the type which from time immemorial has got little good out of any kind of religious services: we mean the character known to the religious as the "scoffer." But the scoffer will always scoff, whether there is anything to scoff at or not, and his scoffing makes but little difference in the long run.

RECENT AUSTRALIAN EXPLORATIONS.

MELBOURNE, Christmas, 1875.

POLITICS are suspended for a time, and it is with a feeling of positive relief that I turn from our degrading faction-fights to chronicle the most recent of a series of remarkable explorations which have ended in giving us a new and fairly full knowledge of a country that two years ago was as little known to us as the South Pole. Those among your readers who have not followed the course of Australian discovery will probably be surprised to hear that a part of this continent, comprising nearly half a million square miles of area, or more than twice the area of France, Switzerland, Holland, and Belgium united, remained down to 1873, or more than eighty years after the first settlement of Australia, a complete *terra incognita*. But a glance at any map of Australia will show that from latitude 20 to latitude 32, and from longitude 119 to 132 within the same parallels, there is scarcely a name to tell that civilized man has explored the country. Most wonderful of all, the country thus unknown was surrounded by settlements, and seems to form the natural highway from west to east across

the continent. We now know that in all likelihood it will remain uninhabited and undeveloped to all time.

Why we were so long baffled in all attempts to penetrate the western half of the continent is more and more easy to understand in proportion as we know the country better. It is, for the most part, a hopeless desert of sandstone and sand plains, resembling the Lybian desert more than any other known part of the world. Water is only found at rare intervals ; there is scarcely a trace of animal life for long stretches ; and the kangaroo, who can travel great distances to water, and the black, who can detect it beneath the soil where no white man would suspect it, are ominously absent from this region. Accordingly, every explorer for many years (except Eyre, who skirted the coast in one of the most wonderful marches on record) has been driven back by want of water for his horses; and if Leichardt, as some suppose, really penetrated into this region, he came to die in the desert. That it is now possible for explorers to succeed, as Warburton and Giles have done, where they themselves failed at first, is due to two causes. In the first place, a line of telegraph has been carried across the continent from Port Augusta, in Spencer Gulf, to Port Darwin, near the mouth of the Adelaide River, and the telegraph stations between parallels 132 and 136 afford convenient starting-points for explorers. Stuart's great discovery of a belt of comparatively fertile land bisecting Australia from north to south has thus had remoter fruits. But even more directly important has been the natural ization of the camel by a wealthy South Australian merchant—Mr. Thomas Elder. The history of the introduction of the camel is a little curious. Mr. Elder owned some important sheep-farms in what is known in South Australia as the Far North—the country from two hundred to six hundred miles north of Adelaide. Some twelve years ago this district was visited by a severe drought, and the ordinary means of transport failed altogether. I remember being there myself when cartage was ten pounds a ton for less than two hundred miles, and commonly could not be procured even at this rate. The natural policy would have been to construct a railway in such a country; but the South Australian Government offered such inadequate terms that no contractor would even look at the country. In this difficulty Mr. Elder saved his property by importing camels, chiefly from Afghanistan. The experiment was a success in every way. The camel flourishes in Australia ; and there is now abundant proof that no other animal can travel across a great part of the continent. Accordingly, Mr. Elder's co-operation is the condition of success just now in all exploration. Fortunately he is a public-spirited man, who, having no family, is well disposed to spend part of his great wealth upon enterprises of national interest.

The first of the three expeditions that have crossed our Terra Incognita owed its beginning to accident. The South Australian Government had resolved to explore from about the MacDonnell ranges (lat. 24, long. 133), and appointed Colonel Warburton, a veteran in such matters, to conduct the party. Objections were at once raised in the press and among the public. It was said, not unreasonably, that a man of over sixty was too old for the work. It was whispered that Colonel Warburton had failed on previous occasions from inability to take his bearings correctly. Not very gracefully, the Government cancelled his nomination, and appointed a Mr. Gosse to take his place. Mr. Elder resented the slight to a friend and old colonist, and decided to fit out an expedition at his own expense, which Colonel Warburton should command. I confess, at the time, I thought it a cruel kindness, and believed that an old man like the colonel, seconded by a son whose health had been very infirm, must either return ingloriously or perish in the adventure. But just as we had begun to despair of him, news came that Colonel Warburton had actually reached the De Grey River in Western Australia (lat. 22). The journey had been a triumph of sheer pluck. Discarding horses, lest they should retard the camels, the party had pushed doggedly on over wastes of dreary sand, or at most sand and scrub, and had just struggled out into good country in time to escape death by starvation. It was a splendid triumph ; but having studied Colonel Warburton's journal, I still feel that the doubts of his fitness for such an enterprise were justified. Like Burke and Wills, who died of starvation in one of the most fertile parts of the interior, the colonel was no true "bushman." We give this name a secondary sense in Australia. It meant originally, and still often implies, a man who lives in the bush or unenclosed parts ; but it means also, and pre-eminently, a man who has acquired the instincts and second sense of the savage, so that he can shift in a country where a townsman would be hopelessly lost. Such a man will never lose his way in common or forest or town ; will remember to all time what he has once seen, and will take note of all that comes under his eye ; will know, for instance, the different tracks of every horse in a large party. Like a sailor—and he is, in fact, the navigator of the desert—he can turn his hand to everything by turns ; will be carpenter, saddler, or sportsman, as suits his need. Above all, he will find food wherever there is animal or vegetable life. Captain Horell, one of the fathers of Australian exploration, once lent me a MS. journal of his early wanderings, in which he had noted that no one need die for want of food in the bush, if there were trees near. At the roots of the young trees he would commonly find a succulent white grub, which he might eat, and by cutting off a few boughs of the wattle (our acacia), and letting the sap drain off into his pannikin, he would get water. Privations scarcely inferior to this are common accidents, even now, in the life of a frontier bushman, and he often suffers from scurvy through the want of vegetable food. Yet so fascinating is the wild life of the bush, or so inveterate is the savage instinct in man, that no one who has really graduated in bush-life ever returns willingly to the towns.

Since Colonel Warburton's success the unknown land has been twice traversed : first, by Mr. Forrest, setting out from Western Australia, and taking a line between 26 and 30 of latitude ; and, more recently, by Mr. Ernest Giles, who started from South Australia, striking up north from Lake Eyre, and keeping pretty much about the line of 30 latitude. Mr. Forrest was fortunate enough to come upon one or two oases of fertile country. Mr. Giles, whose first report has only reached us by this mail, has travelled 2,575 miles between the settled districts of the two colonies during five months of journeying, and has crossed two deserts, one of 325 miles in breadth, the other of 180, without water. The first, of course, was the most trying. The party had travelled sixteen days without striking water, were left with only twelve gallons in stock, and had resolved to kill six of the camels, when they came suddenly on a small lagoon, fifty feet in diameter, described characteristically enough as a "fine sheet of water." Here birds appeared again, and during the last month of their wanderings the party lived very much on the eggs, variously aged, of the lowan, a kind of pheasant. So admirable was Mr. Giles's management that only two camels died on the journey. He proposes to work his way back between the tracks of Warburton and Forrest from Mt. Gascoyne, in lat. 25, long. 117, to the country about Lake Amadeus (lat. 25, long. 130). He had explored beyond this from the east last year, when he was driven back by want of water, having at that time no camels with him. If he succeeds this time, we shall know the western desert pretty thoroughly. It is, of course, barely possible that he may find a belt or large island of good land in the heart of the stony and sandy wilderness. Such surprises constantly meet us on this continent. But the great probability is that all the country is of the same character as that already traversed.

The political results of these explorations are not unimportant. Till now it has been a question whether the position of Australia connected it more with Europe or with America. What little doubt there may have been is now thoroughly set at rest. The east, comprising Queensland and New South Wales, is by far the richest part of the continent ; Western Australia by far the poorest, while the South and Southwest, Victoria and South Australia, are of intermediate importance in the scale of natural wealth. It may surprise you that I should speak thus of Victoria, the Australia Felix of early explorers, the El Dorado of later times ; but though we are still the premier colony, our mines show signs of decline and our land of exhaustion; and our area is so small that we have not that chance of something turning up which our neighbors may naturally count on in a comparative estimate. Above all, we have not the priceless coal-fields of New South Wales and Queensland. Practically, therefore, I think it certain that power will gravitate more and more to the States on the eastern and Pacific seaboard ; and that our commerce and communications will be more and more towards New Guinea and Polynesia, with Chili and California. The consequences of this are too numerous and too remote to forecast, but one is, I fear, imminent. As we people up towards the northern and tropical parts, there will be a growing desire to introduce slave labor under some plausible and philanthropical name. Already the *Argus* has suggested that we must develop New Guinea as the Dutch develop Java, by accustoming the natives to the blessing of forced labor.

Correspondence.

THE BANK OF ENGLAND'S RATE OF DISCOUNT.

To the Editor of The Nation :

Sir : Professor Bonamy Price, in his new book on 'Banking and Currency,' as well as in his recent letters to the London *Daily News* and to the *Nation*, has very pointedly expressed his dissent from the prevailing practice of the Bank of England to regulate the rate of discount by the state of the reserve and by the influx or efflux of gold. He frankly con-

fesses that, in holding these opinions, he is ranked in Lombard Street among the unbelievers and "cast into outer darkness"; but he holds stoutly to them notwithstanding, and is ready to break a lance with all comers in their defence. There is not much probability that the question will ever become a practical one in this country, as there is no controlling bank to dictate rates to borrowers and lenders; but the principle is well worth considering by all nations which have, or soon hope to have, a convertible currency. I ventured, twelve years ago, in a publication relating to banking,* to express the hope that, after a return to specie payments (which I was then sanguine enough to believe not far off), the New York Clearing-House might have the power and the disposition to vary the rate of discount according to the state of the exchanges; but I am sorry now to feel that the necessary conditions of such co-operative action are still very remote.

It seems to me that Professor Price misconceives the purpose of the rule in question. He uniformly discusses it as if it were a rule for the regulation of *banking*, whereas it is obviously a rule designed solely to protect and regulate the *currency*. As it affects the banking business of the Bank of England, and through it all banking in Great Britain, it is certainly open to grave objections. Professor Price has pointed out how unnecessary and futile it is, for example, to raise the bank rate upon the efflux of a million or two of gold at a time when the demand for loans is so sluggish that the increased rate operates only to drive borrowers away from the Bank into the open market. This has happened several times during the last five years, when the operations of the German mint have drawn gold out of London. In November, 1871, an advance of this sort led for the first time to the suspension of the arbitrary rule under which the London joint-stock banks are accustomed to allow interest to their depositors, in accounts current, at one per cent. below the bank rate. When, in this instance, the Bank of England advanced its rate, the open market refused to respond, and the joint-stock banks found that they were paying more for deposits than they could get for them, and the arbitrary rule had to be suspended.

There is no doubt that the frequent fluctuations which are caused by regulating the rate of discount by the state of the reserve are a serious impediment to trade; and the French manufacturers, upon whose petition the Imperial Inquest of 1865–9 was set on foot, had good reason to dread its introduction into the established usages of the Bank of France. Nothing is truer than that trade demands a steady rate for the loan of capital, that being an indispensable element in the cost of production. Any sudden or serious change in the rate of discount disturbs calculations, and even the risk of change taxes the consumer with a higher rate of profit than would otherwise be thought necessary, in order to protect the manufacturer against possible loss. In this respect it operates precisely as a fluctuating premium on gold now operates on the importation of merchandise into the United States. All this was very forcibly pointed out in the testimony given before the French Inquest in 1865. Serious though the objections be, I think they do not, however, touch the real question, which is, whether the practice of raising the bank rate to check an outflow of gold is necessary to maintain the *currency* system of Great Britain as established by the Bank Act of 1844. Whether that system is the best possible is quite another question. If it is conceded that a sound currency cannot be maintained in England unless the issue of credit money is restricted to fifteen millions sterling, then the utmost caution is justifiable to prevent its going above that amount. At some point in an outflow of gold it will be necessary for the Bank to adopt measures to stop it; and all the ingenuity of the Messrs. Péreire in France, and of the opponents of the practice in England, has failed to point out any so effective remedy as to raise the rate of discount. But Professor Price seems to think that if the business of the country is sound the currency will take care of itself, and that gold exported will be sure to come back again as soon as it is really wanted. This is carrying the doctrine of *laissez-faire* to an extreme which even English free-traders would be unwilling to admit.

The Bank Act of 1844 is simply and solely an act to fix and regulate the currency, and to ensure the convertibility of bank-notes. Under it the Bank of England is more than a bank; it is a sovereign, endeavoring, by a system of complex machinery, to do what Lord Overstone and Sir Robert Peel insisted that, under the act, it could do—namely, cause a mixed currency of coin and paper to fluctuate precisely as a purely metallic currency would fluctuate if there were no paper. The assumption upon which the whole system rests is, that the paper currency can under no conceivable circumstances fall below fifteen millions sterling; and that, if gold is held in bank for every pound in excess of that amount, the whole currency is essentially metallic. Now, Professor Price has shown in his last letter to the *Nation* how it is possible, when the Bank Act is suspended, as it was in 1847, 1857, and 1866, to create an over-issue of paper—that is, an issue above the amount authorized by the act, in a manner altogether different from that contemplated or permitted by the ministerial letters by virtue of which the act was suspended. Those letters permitted the Bank to issue an excess of notes in the form of "discounts and advances upon approved securities." Professor Price now shows that such an over-issue might also have been caused indirectly by the withdrawal of deposits. He supposes the case of a large claim being presented which exceeds the amount of unissued notes; the Bank meets it by sending to the Issue Department for more notes, as it may do, while the Act is suspended, on deposit of securities. Having paid these notes to the depositor, the latter, desiring not notes but gold, takes them back to the Issue Department and gets gold for them, thus indirectly drawing out the metallic base of notes already in the hands of the public; and, as Professor Price plainly states, it is possible for this conversion of deposits into gold to go on till the entire metallic base of the currency is withdrawn, and the suspension of specie payments made necessary without a single note having been presented for redemption. Such an event is of course in the highest degree improbable, and he uses it to show that the *banking* credit of the Bank of England is never in peril, since it is possible for its creditors even to exhaust the bullion held in the Issue Department, which is essentially a Government office. His argument, however, establishes the fact, of which he seems unconscious, that the currency system is even now not impregnable, and it seems to me to justify rather than impugn the wisdom of the prevailing method for protecting the convertibility of bank-notes.

It is quite possible that the directors of the Bank of England may be too sensitively alive to dangers which menace this convertibility, and may sometimes raise the rate of discount unnecessarily; but when we consider the enormous *measuring* power possessed by the currency of a country, we can hardly be too sensitive as to dangers which threaten to impair its value. Professor Price seems to me, throughout this whole discussion, to consider too lightly this, the most important, function of money. He treats its influence as insignificant, because so little of it is needed for exchange purposes; but just in proportion as the exchanges effected without money increase in volume, so is the importance of its measuring quality increased, and any inferiority in the standard of value dangerously multiplied. Whatever changes, therefore, are made in the currency of any country should be in the direction of greater intrinsic value.

The current of educated opinion in Europe is certainly with Lombard Street, and against Professor Price, in this matter. A great majority of the witnesses before the French Inquest agreed in thinking that the metallic reserves of the Bank of France should be protected by a rise in the rate of discount whenever a drain needed to be checked. "They recognized that in principle and in fact, before all and above all, the bank-note ought to be at all times convertible into specie." Whatever differences of opinion prevailed among them as to the methods of attaining it, "the object of all was the same—*an impregnable bank-note, kept always convertible by means of a sufficient metallic reserve.*"

GEORGE WALKER.

* "The Banking Controversy in France," *Banker's Magazine*, March, 1864.

Notes.

MACMILLAN & CO. will shortly publish the third volume of Lanfrey's 'Napoleon I.'; 'Fifty Years of My Life,' by George Thomas, Earl of Albemarle, in 2 vols.; 'Dr. William Whewell: an Account of his Writings, and Extracts from Unpublished Papers,' by J. Todhunter, also in 2 vols.; 'The Zoölogy and Geology of Persia,' 2 vols., by W. T. Blanford; 'Mandalay and Momien: the British Exploring Expedition to Western China in 1868 and 1875,' by Dr. Anderson; 'Geographical Diffusions of Epidemic Cholera in East Africa,' by Dr. J. Christie; 'Circular Notes: Westward round the World,' 2 vols., by J. F. Campbell; and 'The English Bible: a History of the Various Translations of the Scriptures,' by John Eadie, D.D.——Robert Clarke & Co., Cincinnati, are to reprint in two volumes 8vo a monthly publication devoted to the early history of settlements about the head-waters of the Ohio, which was issued at Pittsburgh in 1846–7, under the title of the *Olden Time*.——Colonel Richard Irving Dodge has composed, from his personal experience, a descriptive work, with maps and illustrations, on 'The Black Hills.' James Miller will be the publisher. — Claxton, Remsen & Haffelfinger, Philadelphia, have copyrighted what they call "Napoleon Slips"—smallish sheets of note-paper, namely, with seven printed enquiries calculated to direct a train of

thought or to clear up and fix one's ideas—"thereby promoting habits of observation with mental discipline and growth in their purest form," and hopefully imitating, as is alleged, the daily practice of Bonaparte.——Dr. J. P. Thompson has begun in Berlin a series of lectures, free to a select audience, on the American Centennial. The grounds and motives of the Revolution; the doctrines of the Declaration; the adoption of the Constitution; the nation tested by the vicissitudes of a century, and judged by its self-development and its benefits to mankind; and the perils, duties, and hopes of the opening century, are the topics announced. These lectures will also be delivered in Florence, Dresden, Leipzig, and London, and probably in Stuttgart and Geneva.——G. P. Putnam's Sons publish separately from the volume ('Hampton and its Students') in which they originally appeared 'Cabin and Plantation Songs, as sung by the Hampton Students.' The note to the preface would have been misleading in 1874, and is still more so now.——The second volume of the American translation of the 'Manual of Universal Church History,' by the Rev. Dr. John Alzog, Roman Catholic Professor at Freiburg, has just appeared (Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co.) Another volume will be required to complete the translation. The character of this history was explained in our notice of the first volume. It stands midway between the condensed text-book, where there is no space for detail, and copious narratives like those of Greseler and Baur. The controversial passages are written, in the main, with good temper, and with more candor than is usual in these days among historical writers of the Church of Rome.——Mr. F. Gutekunst, who has long stood at the head of his profession in Philadelphia, sends us a highly-finished and very striking photographic portrait of the late Charlotte Cushman, which must commend itself to her many admirers.

—*Lippincott's* for March is readable and fairly entertaining. Lady Barker continues her South African voyaging, and is as lively as ever in describing ports and waters little known to the American reader. She is deposited, as we may say, at the last in Maritzburg, the lofty metropolis of Natal, and it seems certain that she will find in her new home an abundance of material for future letters to the magazine. The Centennial paper is taken up with a review of the several international exhibitions, and, in a sketchy way, of the eminence shown in each by the leading contributors, America's invariably meagre portion being not glossed over. The illustrations are of the exhibition buildings from the Crystal Palace down. "The Songs of Mirza-Schaffy" is based on the revelations of Bodenstedt as to this now famous scribe of Tiflis. As presented here, they can hardly be said to make him appear even remotely deserving of the reputation which his German pupil has won for him by transfusion rather than by reproduction. His one song, "Mullah, rein ist der Wein," is here rendered into English together with a number of Bodenstedt's own. In "Charles Kingsley: a Reminiscence," perhaps as notable as any part of the conversation reported is his saying, or the form of his saying: "I owe all that I am to Maurice. I aim only to teach to others what I get from him. Whatever facility of expression I have is God's gift, but the views I endeavor to enforce are those which I learn from Maurice. I live to interpret him to the people of England." Mrs. Rebecca Harding Davis follows up her previous article on our life-saving stations with another relating to the Jersey coast, written with her usual ability. According to one of her informants, "from Sandy Hook to Cape May it's innocent to what is done on Long Island." The remark was called out by an allusion to "Barnegat pirates," and the practices referred to are even a shade darker than those described in the cheerful motto to chapter xiv. of 'Daniel Deronda':

> . . . "wear gems
> Sawed from cramped finger-bones of women drowned."

"The Barnegat men never touch the body till it's dead." The same loyal Jerseyman admitted that "the life-saving service, like all other Government service, for a good many years fell into the hands of politicians." We fear he missed a point here against his Long Island brethren. Politics, if we are not mistaken, still interest them, and have an unfortunate effect on their discipline and efficiency. We are not aware that there are any "harness-makers" or "tavern-loafers" among them, but apparently some of the officers regard their tenure as dependent on their activity in caucuses and at elections.

—There is not much in the current number of *Scribner's*. Mr. W. P. McCarty gives an entertaining account of Truro Parish, in Virginia, and the village of Accotink, and old Pohick church; the indefatigable Mr. Albert Rhodes describes the character of Balzac, and reproduces a proof-sheet corrected by him, which is certainly illegible enough to be curious; and Mr. Bret Harte contributes another instalment of his romance, "Gabriel Conroy"—a tale which does not improve as it goes on. Mr. Harte has got beyond his depth, and, what with his mining law, and his dark-haired senoritas, and his abandoned villains, and his deserted heroine, seems to be gradually leaving daylight behind him, and making a Chinese puzzle of what promised to be an interesting if not improving story. We shall rely on a little cannibalism in the next chapters to relieve the tedium of the way.

—The *Galaxy* for March contains a poem on "The Ideal and the Real," by Joaquin Miller, which we have found great difficulty in understanding. Some critics may think that it is a waste of time to try to understand it; but it must always be remembered that Joaquin Miller, like Walt Whitman, though without much honor in his own country, has received the approval of a highly cultivated public in England, and that he is there thought to be a representative American bard. The theory on which his claim to this character is based is a very simple one, and may be stated in the following terms: America is a country which has cut loose from the traditions, social, moral, and literary, of Europe, and consequently American poetry must not be judged by the standards which have been considered correct in Europe, but by standards wholly different—in fact, by opposite standards. Now, in Europe, by common consent, the excellence of poetry has either been held to consist in the beauty or interest of the subject treated, or the beauty or skill of the versification, or in the clearness, directness, appropriateness, or force of the expression, or in a combination of some or all of these qualities. To determine, therefore, what the best American poetry is, we must search until we find some in which the subject has neither beauty nor interest, in which the versification is based on no rules, and in which the expression is neither direct, strong, appropriate, nor intelligible. Applying these canons, it is perhaps hard to say which is the best poet, Whitman or Miller. As to the interest of their subjects, it would puzzle anybody to tell which has least interest or beauty; for Whitman has taken a sort of cosmic chaos, a jumble of everything under the sun, as his theme, while Miller has exercised a principle of selection, and either taken the most ugly and repulsive materials, or else has in his treatment managed to make his good subjects so uninteresting by his maudlin way of dealing with them as to produce pretty much the same effect. In morality they may be said to be neck-and-neck. As to force, appropriateness, clearness, or directness, they do not recognize, so far as we can make out, any obligation. Whitman we have generally found the more intelligible of the two, while Miller's chief defect consists in the formalism of his verse, showing him to be at a lower stage of development than his rival. We have no space to criticise the poem of the *Galaxy* at length, and we should be loth to do so; but we must call attention to the innovation in the prefatory lines in the use of the word *real*, which we have no doubt will be much appreciated in England. The third line—

> "that the real is the ideal—"

shows that the poet of the Sierras makes "real" a word of one syllable, and the fact that he makes it rhyme with "steal" leaves little doubt as to his pronunciation of it. This number of the *Galaxy* does not strike us as being up to the usual mark. We should hardly have expected before the summer months the appearance of the article on "Hard Times and their Remedy," in which two business men are represented as meeting a friend who is "not a business man," on which one says to the other in a familiar way, "Let us obtain his views concerning the depression of business which is now creating such hard times." The reply of the third citizen was that the trouble all lay in the non-employment of laborers anxious to work, and that the only remedy was for Government to "launch out boldly in the direction of the enlargement of industry, start the wheels into brisk motion," etc., etc. We commend this article to the attention of the able author of the modern Æsop, now appearing in the columns of the *World*, who might find it to his purpose.

—Mr. E. P. Whipple concludes in the March *Harper's* his "Century of American Literature," and justifies our fear that he would not, in the space probably at his command, be able to handle his subject. In this second paper he appears for some time to have it under control, but towards the last he shows visible signs of "distress," as they say in the prize-ring, and, to carry the figure a little further, the mob of authors presently break through the lines and trample him under foot in the struggle for recognition. In fact, the two papers taken together are lamentably wanting both in definiteness and in breadth of treatment. The scheme of the present one we will not venture to describe. It deals mainly with living authors, and opens with the Unitarian poets, among whom, singularly enough, Emerson is not mentioned, apparently because he has already been disposed of as a leader of the "New England revolt against Calvinism." Yet it will hardly be questioned that Mr. Emerson's fame and estimation as a poet are

destined long to outlast his system—or, as it would be more accurate to say, his school—of philosophy. In passing judgment upon his contemporaries, may of them his townsmen and neighbors, Mr. Whipple makes it clear that his task should have been confided to anonymous hands. To be anything but "genial" and "appreciative" under such circumstances should not be demanded of a littérateur who signs his own name to his critique, least of all in his judgment of authors who, as conductors of the periodical press, have his reputation if not his literary success in some degree at their mercy. Some of Mr. Whipple's statements seem to us curiously wide of the mark. When he asserts that "in the political history of the country there only remain two 'families,' in the English sense of the term: these are the Adamses and the Hamiltons"—what will the Jays and the Quincys and the Lees feel like saying? Again, when he asserts of Everett that "he suffered exquisite mortification and pain at unjust attacks on his principles and character, whereas such attacks awakened in Sumner a kind of exultation, as they proved that his own blows were beginning to tell," he advances a view of Mr. Sumner's thickness of cuticle absurdly and notoriously at variance with the facts. One other passage we submit without comment to Dr. Fitzedward Hall. "In the *minutiæ* of English philology he [Mr. Richard Grant White] has rarely met an antagonist he has not overthrown. In these encounters he has displayed wit, learning, logic, a perfect command of his subject, an imperfect command of his temper. The positiveness of his statements, however, seems always to come from the certainty of his knowledge." Of the illustrated articles the most useful is that on "The Microscope." In some of his designs for his paper "The Baby" "Porte-Crayon" is at his best. Prof. Crane's précis of Gregorovius's life of Lucrezia Borgia will be news to most readers, and, allowing the latter part of her career to interpret or to excuse the earlier, will probably modify their opinion of this too famous woman. The second instalment of "Daniel Deronda" is not disappointing like the first.

—Mr. T. S. Perry has written for the *Atlantic* an article on Victor Cherbuliez, which gives a better account of his singular *mélange* of virtues and vices than we have before met with. Most people will probably agree with Mr. Perry that Cherbuliez writes rather for the entertainment of his readers and the display of his own wit than because he has any particular message to deliver to the world; but this is not, to our mind, so serious a blemish as the extremely melodramatic character of the incidents he uses to heighten the interest of his stories. Melodrama is good after its kind, and novels after their kind; but in such novels as 'Le Comte Kostia' or 'Le revanche de Joceph Noirel,' we feel as if we were almost before the foot-lights—as if the witty dialogue and sensational scenes had been designed with reference to adaptation to the stage. His whole use of incidents is theatrical rather than literary; the author exaggerates the importance of the physical facts at every crisis in his stories. In the theatre, the fact that everything is seen from a distance and under difficulties make this admissible, but the same thing cannot be said of literature. At the theatre—or at any rate the melodrama—we are all children, and may be tickled with a straw or pleased with a rattle, particularly if there is a change of scene, and music "to mark the points," when the rattle or the straw is brought forward; but when we read, instead of seeing, we revolt at the childishness of the means used to excite our interest.

"Midnight walks among chimney-tops, swinging in mid-air over an abyss—even on a piece of new rope—struggling with savage dogs, and all such sports are cheap, well-worn incidents, which lend factitious importance to the story, in very much the same way as raising the voice in anger adds to the soundness of argument. It is in the invention of scenes like these that Cherbuliez, when he is not at his best, delights. To this form of art he has bent much skill, so much indeed that it is easy to overlook the cheapness of some of these devices. Victor Hugo has no sooner created an impossible situation than he is out among the audience leading the applause; but Cherbuliez wears an easier air of being amused at his own ingenuity rather than profoundly convinced of its value."

Mr. Perry notices the theatrical turn of Cherbuliez's mind in the curious piece of "business" in 'Paul Méré'—the devotion of the young girl to the slippers of her mother (who had been a ballet-dancer), and mentions it as an instance of his "constant attempt to illustrate what he wishes to say by means of some outward and visibly glaring sign"—a tendency genuinely theatrical. All this does not detract at all from Cherbuliez's undoubted cleverness at dialogue and character (his women are excellent, though his men can hardly be considered very real), but it makes us wonder that none of his stories have—to our knowledge, at least—been turned into plays. There must be a mine of wealth in store for any manager who puts Joseph Noirel (with a few slight emendations, to suit the taste of the audience) on the American stage.

—Admirers of the late Dr. Francis Edmund Anstie will find in the *Practitioner* for January (Macmillan & Co.) a most interesting account of his career from the pen of his brother-in-law, Dr. Buzzard. The steel portrait of him prefixed to the article both reminds one by its youthfulness of his untimely death, and bears most expressive testimony to his goodness and earnestness. One seldom sees, indeed, a more pleasing and intellectual countenance. Dr. Anstie, it appears, got all his non-professional education at a small private school in his native town of Devizes, in Wiltshire, where he seems to have been well grounded in the languages, and began his medical apprenticeship in his sixteenth year (1850). Three years later he entered the Medical Department of King's College, and came under the powerful influence of Dr. Robert Bentley Todd, whose peculiar views as to the use of alcohol in the treatment of acute disease found a disciple in Anstie, and determined the leading line of his original investigations in after-years. His first paper on "The Alcoholic Question" was contributed to the *London Medical Review* in 1862, and was shortly followed by two in the *Cornhill Magazine*, in which the question whether alcohol was food or not was discussed in a popular manner. A work on 'Stimulants and Narcotics' next engaged his attention, and his labors of literary research and laboratory experimentation were most arduous and unremitting. "He would spend whole days in the reading-room of the British Museum, and then sit up till three and four o'clock in the morning working again, and utilizing the material which he had acquired, and this merely for the sake of giving completeness to the historical part of the subject upon which he was writing." "Some of the experiments which he performed were attended with considerable personal risk. On one occasion he fastened to his face an inhaler containing an ounce of ether, placed his watch before him, took a pencil in hand, and began to make a mark upon a piece of paper on the lapse of every fifteen seconds. He soon lost consciousness, and when he could again distinguish his watch, he found that thirty-five minutes had elapsed, and that he had made but two marks on the paper. He was alone during this experiment." The various forms of Dr. Anstie's activity cannot even be enumerated here; most dear to him, perhaps, was the subject of public hygiene. He overtaxed himself enormously, and his system would probably soon have broken down if he had escaped the immediate occasion of his death—a school epidemic which he was investigating. Socially as well as publicly he was a great loss. He had a natural gift for music, and knew more about it than most amateurs. He was, as his biographer lets us see, a good fighter and ardent advocate; but those who, like ourselves, knew him only through the *Practitioner* must have thought him for one of his profession singularly moderate, candid, unpartisan, and liberal.

—The *Renaissance* frequently alludes to the significant proportion of Protestants who rise into prominence in public affairs whenever France is left to act freely. Lately it has been counting the Protestants in the new Senate, and discovers 15 out of 300, or one out of 20; whereas in the country at large there is but one Protestant to every 48 or 50 inhabitants. In the little senatorial minority MM. Léon Say, Scherer, Waddington, and De Freycinet are the most distinguished names. They should have had as colleagues at least three other Protestants among the candidates, Gen. Chabaud-Latour being the most conspicuous. The *Renaissance* consoles itself for the defeat of these gentlemen on the ground that they were supported by the Clerical and Ultramontane wing of their co-religionaries, and were opposed by the Liberal element. The same paper asserts that the figures in the last *Almanach de Gotha*, by which the French Protestants are set down at 500,000, is a third too small.

—"Every art-lover is, as soon as he has any chance of becoming so, an art-collector." It is, therefore, on his own showing, a pretty numerous class for whom Herr Wessely has prepared his 'Guide to the Knowledge and Collection of Prints' ('Anleitung zur Kenntniss und zum Sammeln der Werke des Kuntsdruckes'), which has just been published in Leipzig by T. O. Weigel (New York: L. W. Schmidt). It is an open-faced volume of 280 pages, plus an appendix stuffed with bibliographical lore which few experts can affect to despise. The main body of the work is equally divided between the art-lover and the nascent connoisseur. In the first section the nature, worth, history, and varieties of wood and metal engraving, of lithography, the manufacture and water-marks of paper, etc., etc., are sketched in a lucid and orderly manner, and this is supplemented with a statement of the criteria of the value of prints, whether artistic, mechanical, or commercial. The second section is wholly occupied with instructions, what, how, and where to collect; how to restore, preserve, arrange, and catalogue prints; and with some suggestions as to the object of public collections, and how this object may be realized. As specimens of the manner

and the good sense of Herr Wessely we may refer in the first section to the chapters in which the old question is again discussed as to whether the famous artists of the sixteenth century actually engraved the blocks which bear their names, or merely drew their designs upon them; and the more recent question—Will photography injure the engraver's art (*Kunstdruck*)? The relations of photography to art are very clearly distinguished by Herr Wessely, and he draws the line between them with no uncertain hand. He does not allow them to be competitors, but he is not too prejudiced to admit the utility of photography as ancillary to art, and that nowadays collectors cannot wholly dispense with photographs. He gives a striking proof of the failure of cheap heliotypes or heliogravures to affect the price of rare prints, by citing the high prices obtained at the sale of Galichon's effects for the very Mantegnas and Marc-Antonios from which the heliogravures had been taken. We have not space in which to enumerate the contents of the third section, or appendix as we have called it. It indicates the vast number of works to which the connoisseur must look for his training and for his guidance from time to time; it gives alphabetically the addresses of the principal art-publishers of the last three centuries; in like manner, all the important auctions of copper-prints known to the author; and, finally, two plates of monograms and marks of famous collectors, with their interpretation.

SIDGWICK'S METHODS OF ETHICS.*

I.

THE 'Methods of Ethics' is a weighty contribution to the theory of morals by a writer whose perfect command of his subject is equalled by the originality and freshness with which he treats it. Mr. Sidgwick's work possesses, moreover, that rarest and least appreciated and the most important of all merits, of being throughout an appeal to reason, and to reason alone, by one of the most careful and logical of reasoners, who never forgets himself or lets his readers forget that truth is to be attained by sound reasoning, and cannot be arrived at by the short cuts suggested by rhetoric or sentiment. The primary duty of a critic in handling such a work is clear. Censure and eulogy are, in the strictest sense of the word, impertinent. A reviewer's first and most important task is in such a case the duty of exposition. His aim (and it is the only aim with which the present notice is written) should be to force on the attention of his readers the main characteristics of a book which, whether its conclusions be accepted or not, cannot be overlooked by any one who in future examines ethical problems, and will interest and instruct every student who cares to investigate the questions presented by ethical science.

The following sentences describe Mr. Sidgwick's estimate of his own work: "The present book contains neither the exposition of a system nor a natural or critical history of systems. I have attempted to define and unfold not one method of ethics but several. At the same time these are not studied historically as methods that have actually been used or proposed for the regulation of practice, but rather *as alternatives between which the human mind seems to me necessarily forced to choose when it attempts to form a complete synthesis of practical maxims and to act in a perfectly rational manner.*" These words contain in a compressed form a description of the peculiarity both of aim and of method which is the original feature of a book every page of which contains more thought than would by most writers be held sufficient to supply substance for an essay. But the compression of Mr. Sidgwick's language will lead persons who have not studied the whole of his book to miss the full bearing of the sentences cited, and it is therefore of consequence that their point should (so to speak) be emphasized.

The aim of Mr. Sidgwick's speculations is summed up in the words which we have underlined. The problem he proposes is, How far and by what course of reasoning is it possible to establish a rational system of rules for the regulation of human conduct? Every one, he assumes, wishes to act if possible "rationally." But when the idea of "reasonableness" or "rationality" is analyzed, it will be found that conduct cannot be considered in a strict sense rational unless it conform to some principle which can itself be shown or be seen to be itself ultimate and beyond a doubt. The scientific character, that is to say, of ethics depends on our being able to establish the existence of fundamental axioms or principles, conformity to which gives validity to the minor maxims which immediately regulate conduct. There are at least three different systems, or, as Mr. Sidgwick prefers to term them, "methods," professing to lay the basis on which a science of ethics or a coherent body of maxims for conduct may be erected. The first, which Mr. Sidgwick terms "egoism," assumes as its fundamental principle that it is "rational" for a man to seek his own happiness. The second, termed by Mr. Sidgwick, not perhaps very happily, "intuitionalism," or the system of common sense, makes "rationality" to consist in the doing what is right; whilst the third method, "utilitarianism," makes the rationality of action depend on its being conducive to the general increase of happiness. Each of these systems has its adherents. By the ordinary man of the world the truth of each is (paradoxical as the assertion appears) at once admitted and denied. The fundamental axiom, that is to say, of each school is admitted; but the very person who concedes the principle will generally start back from the conclusions which flow from it, and does not feel the difficulty of admitting in words the truth of axioms which are not only different but fundamentally inconsistent. Whoever doubts this should read Macaulay's attack on James Mill. He will soon perceive that the assailant of utilitarianism was at bottom a utilitarian, and that what Macaulay objected to was the systematic expression of deductions from premises with which he had no serious quarrel.

Now, if ethics can be made into a coherent system or, to use Mr. Sidgwick's form of expression, if it be possible to "act in a perfectly rational manner," one of the following results must be attained with regard to the three existing methods: You must show either that they are all unsound, and that there exists some fourth and true method of ethics, or that some one of them is sound, or, lastly, that some more general principle will include the fundamental maxims of at least two of the three methods. To ascertain, if possible, by fair enquiry whether any of these methods be sound, and, if not, whether any sounder or more rational method can be suggested, is the problem taken up by the author of the 'Methods of Ethics.' His immediate object is, as he well states it, "not practice but knowledge." His attitude is best understood by making use of a fancy which found favor with writers of the last century. They frequently tried to imagine how our world would look to the eyes of the inhabitant of another planet, and thus in imagination gazed on human affairs from the outside. Mr. Sidgwick is the intelligent stranger from Mars or Saturn. Study and sympathy have made him acquainted with the facts of human nature. "Disinterested curiosity" leads him to study the problem, What, if any, are the rational principles which should guide the conduct of mankind? This mode of viewing morals is best understood by contrasting Mr. Sidgwick's attitude with that of other moralists. As an intelligent looker-on he has neither the call nor the wish to be the expounder of a system. His calm investigation leads indeed to more definite results than he has perhaps made apparent either to himself or his readers, but his object is investigation, not exposition. In this respect his position is entirely different from that held by even the most candid of ethical writers. Mr. Mill, for example, is, as far as intention goes, as fair an exponent of utilitarianism as can be found; but he avowedly writes as a utilitarian. His object, which is a perfectly fair one, is to put forward the strength of his own creed and to confute the dogmas of rival schools; and what is true of Mr. Mill is, of course, equally true of the best of his opponents—such, for example, as Mr. Martineau or Mr. John Grote.

Mr. Sidgwick, again, is the critic of moral theories; he is not the historian of ethical opinion. Two or three passages in his book show that he is fully capable of using the so-called "historical method." By assuming the critical rather than the historical attitude he has deliberately run counter to the fashion of the day, and has damaged the popularity of his book. It is, therefore, only just to him to state our deliberate opinion that the course he has taken is the right and the wise course. Historical investigation has an important part to play in the field of ethics, but it is time to protest against the one-sided devotion to the historical method which is leading the world to forget that truth is the end of investigation, and that to show how an opinion grew up is a different matter from proving its truth or falsehood. Indolence and sentiment are so apt to suggest the illusion that a fallacy is respectable because its growth was natural that too much honor cannot be paid to an author who insists on testing every dogma by the criterion of truth or falsehood. If Mr. Sidgwick is neither the exponent of a system nor the historian of opinion, still less does he play the part of a preacher. Filled with the thought that the "predominance in the minds of moralists of a desire to edify has impeded the real progress of ethical science," he resists with singular self-restraint the temptation, of which ethical enquirers are the ready victims, to pass from the domain of careful argument to the province of hortatory rhetoric. Writers whose form of expression continues strictly argumentative are constantly in sub-

* 'The Methods of Ethics. By Henry Sidgwick, M.A., Lecturer and late Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge.' New York: Macmillan & Co.

stance slaves to what may be termed the idols of the pulpit. No author, for example, has stated the case in favor of intuitionalism with greater success and clearness in a popular form than Miss Frances Power Cobbe. Her 'Intuitive Morals,' which has won deserved reputation on both sides the Atlantic, may compare, and favorably, with Mr. Mill's 'Utilitarianism.' In one respect there is, unfortunately, too great a resemblance between the two books: the effect of each is much diminished by the obvious though unconscious desire of the author to write for the edification of readers. This tendency (which has made the name of "moralist" almost a by-word) can be avoided only by clinging to the conviction that the progress of ethical science can only be promoted "by an application to it of the same disinterested curiosity to which we chiefly owe the great discoveries of physics." This belief gives the tone to the whole of Mr. Sidgwick's book. It fixes the aim of his speculations. It no less governs the method in which they are pursued.

Mr. Sidgwick's mode of procedure is the necessary consequence of his position. His object being to ascertain which if any of several methods are true, and, if not, what if any other method or system can be ascertained to be true, he is necessarily led to criticise existing views at once with the utmost fairness, and also with the most searching strictness. It would be fatal to his object if he did not place the views criticised in their strongest light. He is also bound to subject them to the most rigid criticism. It is further, as he points out, by no means enough to show the strong points of one system—*e.g.*, utilitarianism—and the weak side of opposing schemes. It is equally necessary to show the relation between the strong side of utilitarianism and the strong side of intuitionalism. A conscientious enquirer must also trace each system into its results and face all the difficulties with which each scheme may be met. It is in the extraordinary impartiality and thoroughness with which he goes through this dialectical process that Mr. Sidgwick's power and originality are shown. No maintainer of a system is likely to be satisfied with Mr. Sidgwick's results. His desire not to evade a difficulty, and morbid dread of expressing greater certainty than his premises warrant, lead frequently to something which may best be described as innocent casuistry, and conceal the amount of certainty which he in reality obtains; but candid intuitionists who will to the end of the chapter feel that Mr. Sidgwick has unintentionally done their case injustice, will not deny that he has driven home with the utmost force the arguments against utilitarianism. It is as though our imagined inhabitant of Saturn were good enough to state for the benefit of rival philosophers the case for and against each of their favorite schemes. The whole work may be described as a long charge delivered by an impartial judge to a jury summoned to try the questions at issue between utilitarianism and its opponents. The charge is long, laborious, painfully candid, and thoroughly exhaustive. Careful attention is given to every point which advocacy can suggest. Irrelevant questions are conscientiously set aside. The insoluble riddle, for example, of free-will is reduced to its simplest terms, and proved to have little bearing on the point for decision. The long dispute over the origin of moral ideas is shown scarcely to touch on the validity of moral intuitions. It is freely conceded to intuitionists that the distinction between right and wrong is one which, whatever its origin, is now as natural to the human mind as that between beauty and ugliness. On the other hand, objections to Benthamism which arise simply from the fact that popular language was not framed by Benthamites are brought down to their true proportions. The fluent plausibilities of Mr. Lecky are answered with a completeness which their importance hardly deserved. And the most fanatical Benthamites will probably acknowledge that bigoted utilitarians have often failed to find anything like satisfactory replies to objections which Mr. Sidgwick's acuteness disposes of once and for ever.

This scientific criticism would be of inestimable value even if Mr. Sidgwick arrived at no conclusion, since the destruction of error is the first step to the ascertainment of truth. But Mr. Sidgwick's charge, though perfectly impartial, distinctly suggests a verdict in favor of one form of utilitarianism. The inhabitant of Saturn is not absolutely certain that a rational system of ethics is possible, but observation and reason lead him to the conclusion that the one maxim of intuitional morality which may pretend to be an axiom is also the fundamental principle of Benthamism. For the ingenious train of argument by which this result is established our readers must be referred to the 'Methods of Ethics.' Our present concern is neither the defence nor the criticism of Mr. Sidgwick's dogmatic conclusions, but to press on the attention of all interested in moral problems the extraordinary skill of Mr. Sidgwick's dialectics, and the immense service he has rendered to truth by his dispassionate enquiry into the nature and value of the actual or possible methods of ethics.

SYDNEY SMITH.*

SYDNEY SMITH was one of the favorites of fortune. He lived at a lucky time for himself, and had a very fair slice of what cake was going in his line. No doubt he would not have objected to exchange his canon's stall for an episcopal throne had such been the good pleasure of Providence and the Whigs when they disappointed Byron's prophecy by "coming into place." But, if he had hoped for such a possible return for his fidelity to his party when it had fallen on evil times and evil tongues and for his services to it, the disappointment did not turn the milk of his human kindness sour, nor inspire the *sæva indignatio* which scorched the heart and brain of Swift when Queen Anne could not be prevailed upon by Harley and Bolingbroke to place a mitre on the head of the author of the 'Tale of a Tub.' And we imagine the merry Canon of St. Paul's would have found it hard to have restrained his festive humor within the limits becoming the episcopal dignity. It would have been a suffocating effort, we should judge, to confine his more uproarious laughters to his sleeve, even if that sleeve were of lawn. A dignified position in the church, a sufficient income, a good house in London, the run of the best society, the friendship of wits, poets, and statesmen, and an unending cycle of good dinners, must have been a fitter ante-past of heaven to one of his mould than the solemn splendors of an episcopal palace, and the labors and quarrels which ever wait about an episcopal throne, could have afforded him. The half was more than the whole in this case, we believe, whether he did or not.

We have said that Sydney Smith lived at a lucky time for himself. It was a lucky time for him as an Anglican clergyman. It came after the days of the laxity of the higher clergy and the sordid poverty of the lower which prevailed in the last century, when clergymen figured in divorce cases and fought duels on the one hand, and when Parson Trulliber buffeted his pigs with his own ordained hands and Parson Adams had to copy Æschylus for himself, lacking means to buy one, on the other. And his clerical life was chiefly past before Ritualism on one side and Evangelicalism on the other began to make the gate straiter and the way narrower for his less fortunate successors, who find that it craves wary walking to combine an honorable ambition with the testimony of a good conscience. In his happier day, a dignified clergyman could follow the hounds without Low-Church cavillings; Doctor Portman could hold Shakspere to be the fortieth article of his creed and go conscientiously to the theatre at least once a year as an evidence of his faith, while he could maintain the orthodoxy of his rubber of whist by the example of the anointed head of the English Church. Perhaps there is a remnant left of these sound divines even to this day; but we fear that they hold fast to that which is best in the face of the frowns of Low-Church and the groans of Dissent. We wonder whether the younger clergy of the day are allowed to dance, as the Henry Tilneys and Edmund Bertrams were two generations back. Sydney Smith, however, began his professional life at the very foot of the ladder. Parson Adams himself was hardly poorer than he when he served his first cure of souls on Salisbury Plain, and often dined on potatoes, like his predecessor, the Shepherd of that ilk, in Hannah More's tract, who pitied "those poor people that had no salt to their potatoes!" *He* had *ketchup*. It is a genuine pleasure to follow the bettering fortunes of the stalwart divine as he proceeds from Salisbury Plain to Edinburgh, to London, to Foston, and so forward till he casts anchor in every sense for good in London again.

Sydney Smith was a fortunate man, again, in the circumstance that he had his good things in his own lifetime—the best of all possible times for having such. From the time of his establishing the *Edinburgh Review* forward he was a well-known personage, a favorite of the Whigs, whom he served well and faithfully, and a writer that everybody read and whose good things were in everybody's mouth. We rather doubt whether Prince Posterity will fully confirm the patent of immortality which his contemporary admirers have sued out for him. He was an exceptionally clever and a very witty man, but perhaps hardly so fully head and shoulders above all his competitors mentally, physically though he were, as to be seen very much further or for a much longer time than they. We incline to the belief that his strong personality—what we Yankees call magnetism—had a good deal to do with the impression he made on his contemporaries. Judged merely by his writings and his bon-mots, we think he will not stand out so very prominently from the ranks of the noble army of ephemeral writers and wits as his personal friends hold that he should. His reviews and political writings were keen and bright and polished weapons of offence and defence, but, like the arms of other bygone fights, when collected and hung up for monuments, they appeal rather to antiquarian curiosity than to living

* 'Works of Sydney Smith, etc.' New York: R. Worthington & Co.; London: Longmans & Co.

interest. His topics were essentially temporary in their character, and it is only to a particular class of minds and not to the universal human heart that they appeal, now that the immediate occasions of them have long passed away. In short, though Sydney Smith was, as we have said, a man of great wit and extreme cleverness, he was not a man of genius, and it is genius only that seizes and holds possession of men's minds in perpetuity. We have no room to argue this point, if argument it needs. We will merely illustrate what we mean by a single example. During the time of Sydney Smith's highest reputation and influence, when great parties were diversely but powerfully stirred by his poignant wit and bitter sarcasm, there was a queer clerk in a public office who eked out a petty salary by writing odd essays for magazines now only remembered through him. It is quite probable that Smith never heard of him till late in his career. But Charles Lamb has taken his place among the immortals, and his works have incorporated themselves with the mind of the English-speaking race, never to die out. Sydney Smith could hardly have hoped for an immortality like this. He certainly will not gain it. It is the reward of genius only, that undefined and undefinable gift of which we all feel the charm, though we may not be able to describe the magic that creates it.

We are not sure that it was generally known at the time, that Smith was the writer of most of the savagely contemptuous articles about America in the *Edinburgh Review*. Jeffrey had usually the credit or discredit of them. But Smith it was that penned the famous query, "Who reads an American book?" which so stirred our patriotic bile. These articles of his are full of ill-natured gibes and jeers at us and matters pertaining to us. It is a little odd that the *Review*, which wore and still wears the buff and blue of Washington's uniform, and which represented the ideas of Fox and Burke and our strongest friends during the Revolutionary war, and which was striving to bring about the political reforms that were already in practice here, should have diverted itself with making fun of us and our doings, instead of making the best of us as practical examples of good constitutional government. But there was little malice in it all. "They that have good wits will be flouting," as Touchstone says. It was the frolicsome outburst of high spirits which makes a big brother tease a little one for his amusement, but meaning no harm. But it was a grave error, for more of the ill-will which has been felt towards England here has been owing to wounded sensibilities caused by the wits than to the political injuries attempted by George III. and his ministers. We are too big ourselves now to care about these things. We have outgrown the sensitiveness of our youth, and our national cuticle has thickened and hardened marvellously with our growth. The articles of Sydney Smith in question will be found in one of three volumes which have suggested this prolusion. They will excite small sensation now beyond amusement at their wit and dexterity. One of the three volumes contains his 'Wit and Wisdom,' and consists of a collection of his brightest things. We cannot but think that this was the act of an ill-judging partiality. It is very amusing reading, but it palls a little on the palate from its very quantity, and rather suggests a question as to whether the quality of the dainty dish is quite equal to its pretensions. We think the pudding would have been better if the plums had been left where they belonged, instead of being picked out and put on a plate by themselves. We doubt whether the famous Jack Horner himself would have been aroused to the height of self-laudation which has made his name immortal, if the plum which excited it had been pulled out for him instead of being the trophy of his own triumphant thumb. The three volumes, though they contain all the writings of Sydney Smith, are not parts of a set, one and indivisible. They can be had separately or together. They contain all that was left behind him of the most famous Canon of Saint Paul's. The publishers have done a good thing in giving them to the public in these cheap and handy volumes.

RODERICK HUDSON.*

THE readers of Mr. James's other writings, who rightly appreciate them, are justified in looking for a great deal of pleasure in the reading of this new novel, and, after finding this pleasure, they will recur with all the keener enjoyment to his earlier stories; for while the qualities connected with thoughtful and elaborate observation have here more complete expression than Mr. James has given them before, their very excellence makes them serve as an admirable foil for the greater simplicity of his earlier work. In saying this we are thinking especially of those stories of Mr. James's of which the scene is laid, as for the most part is the case with this, in Europe—that charming series which began with the 'Passionate Pilgrim' and ended with 'Madame de Mauves,' including among others the plaintive tale of the young French girl, pretty, graceful Gabrielle, and the more passionate sorrows of the Italian woman at Isella.

Though the scene of 'Roderick Hudson,' as we have said, is laid in Europe, with Rome for the background of its sombre incidents, which succeed each other in an unbroken file, and with the precipices and storms of Switzerland causing the closing catastrophe, the *dramatis personæ* are all Americans, and each one—it would almost appear, as if unconsciously to the author—is in his or her individual way a constant reminder that Americans lose much of their rightful charm and interest when transplanted from their own habitat and exhibited among the more cultivated growths of foreign life. The bare plot of the story is this: Rowland Mallet, the hero *de facto*, meets at Northampton, in the State of Massachusetts, Roderick, the hero *ex officio*, and, discovering in him an unrecognized genius for sculpture, transports him on the wings of his own large fortune and Rowland's enthusiasm to Rome. On the eve of leaving home Roderick engages himself to a certain Mary Garland, in whose serene solidity Mr. Mallet, in a very few interviews, has on his side felt that charm which is but love, while Roderick's love is but the flower of that other charm which lies in familiar companionship. In mid-ocean, Roderick's careless communication of his relations with Miss Garland reveals to Rowland a future of self-sacrifice—of self-sacrifice, as he despairingly hopes, for her sake. But the self-sacrifice becomes mingled with poignant self-questionings for poor Rowland when the young artist plunges through dissipation into passion—a very headlong and headstrong fall—and becomes the slave of a certain very uncertain Miss Light. Miss Garland and Mrs. Hudson, the sculptor's mother, are summoned to the scene, but they are, of necessity, powerless to aid, and after a time Roderick's death brings an end to one period of unhappiness for his friends and at the same time imposes on them the misery of endless regrets. So it is still compassion and not congratulation that is felt for Miss Garland and Mr. Mallet, though the wonderfully complete mental training which the ever-improving Mary has received, first from love and then from sight-seeing, must somewhat break the force of the blow to her and the force of the sympathy felt for her sufferings.

Poor Rowland we leave comfortably wretched, but how could one be otherwise who had already given ample evidence of the vein of insanity which runs through every man's brain in the madness which leads him to carry a Northampton boy to Italy as a lump of fine potter's clay, to be shaped according to his unforeseeing will on the wheel of fate? The anomalous relation of these two young men, who are sometimes comrades on the footing of good fellowship, and sometimes separated into a modest and most conscientious and responsible patron, and a ward now wholly self-surrendering and endearing, and again obstinately resisting and repelling, is so strange a flaw in the story as to damage it throughout. Even Americans, with all their pliability, do not twist themselves into such odd arrangements as these.

The odd arrangements and circumstances which surround Miss Light's career are (all but an insufficiently accounted for Cavaliere) more in keeping with what has been observed before of human nature. Miss Light—Christina Light—is the *beautiful* heroine; and one looks to Miss Garland to take the rôle of *ingénue*, and to Miss Light to be *première amoureuse*; but, when all is said and done, Miss Light stands revealed in the passionless feebleness of successful, self-scorning worldliness, while the highly-educated Miss Garland poses as a very stalwart Truth.

We may jest a little, for our jests play on a very solid ground of admiration. The serious intention to do the author's best is everywhere felt in this story, and it produces most excellent results. The simplicity and directness and quietness of the plot make the interest of its gradual development a matter of very considerable artistic skill, since it relies wholly on the phases and transformations of the characters involved. No small amount of delicate strength of purpose and power of vigorous execution is to be perceived in the life given to the subordinate characters—Sam Singleton, Mrs. Hudson, Madame Grandoni, Mr. Leavenworth, and especially Miss Blanchard—each of which is to a very unusual degree self-existent, independent of its author; not at all pulled by puppet-strings as part of a show, but walking about actively on legs of its own; and, at the same time, the subordination of these characters to the two principal personages, Christina and Roderick, is always cleverly, and more than cleverly, managed.

It is one of the noteworthy points in considering the artistic construction of the story that Roderick's character is seen wholly through the eyes of others. The author never gives us his own interpretation of Roderick's actions, but only that of the bystanders. We have only an outside view of him from the first page to the last, and the success of his portraiture is less

* 'Roderick Hudson. By Henry James, jr.' Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 1875.

likely to be recognized than if the workings of his mind were more boldly revealed. We know him chiefly through Rowland, and Rowland does not always understand him.

The figure of Rowland himself is perhaps, on the contrary, over-elaborated, or at least it seems unnecessary to acquaint us with his prehistoric loves, or to trace the line of his qualities through the biographies of his parents and grandparents in a work not intended to set forth the doctrines of heredity, and not written by Balzac. And we must remonstrate against his name. Why should Mallet be anybody's name in a story of which the hero is a sculptor; and if anybody's, why not the sculptor's own, after Thackeray's fashion?

Melinda the Cabooceer; or, Sport in Ashanti. By J. A. Skertchly. (New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1876.)—Two young Englishmen—"Edward Fortescue, the son of a wealthy squire in one of the Southern counties," and "the narrator of these adventures, Arthur Danvers, a restless wanderer"—are supposed to start out for the Gold Coast in search of adventure and sport. Arrived at Assinee, they procure the services of "Aziza, the lion-hearted," as hunter, and about eighty powerful blacks as carriers. "A perfect giant in form, Aziza stood nearly six feet eight in his bare feet. A lion in name, his nature by no means belied his cognomen, for his equal in strength and courage we never met with on the coast." With this redoubtable hunter and his party they start for Coomassie in canoes, and in a few days overtake a chief "cabooceer" (officer in the Ashanti army) named Melinda, who is travelling in their direction. With him they journey on and arrive at Coomassie, where they are somewhat startled by the first object which meets their gaze—the grinning head of a thief fixed at the end of a long pole. They are received by the king's interpreter and installed in the most comfortable hut the village affords.

While awaiting reception by the king and his permission to continue their journey, they treat us to the romance of Melinda's life. He was the son of a powerful chief residing "far away to the northwest on the shores of the Niger," and had in his youth been married to the beautiful daughter of a neighboring chief. On his bridal night the village was attacked, and both Melinda and his bride Awoona were captured and sold as slaves. Awoona had not since been heard of; but Melinda was brought to Coomassie and sold to the king, who in turn presented him to one of his cabooceers. Following a custom of the country, on the death of this cabooceer Melinda became a free man and succeeded to his office. He had never abandoned his hopes of recovering his lost bride, and was now upon an important mission to the north, in the course of which he felt sure of finding her. Naturally, towards the end he does find her. It is difficult to reconcile our preconceived notions of the ignorant, superstitious blacks with the ideal sentiment and fine speeches which are attributed to Melinda; but the legend is very well told, and is the most entertaining part of the book.

After some delay, the travellers are received with barbaric pomp and splendor by King Kóffee, who kills a couple of slaves in honor of their visit. Subsequently they return the visit, and four corrupt tax-gatherers are decapitated before their eyes as part of the ceremony. Upon leaving Coomassie, they strike at once into the hunting-grounds, and their adventures succeed each other with a rapidity and a kaleidoscopic variety which must make Jules Verne envious. Chimpanzees, pythons, alligators, elephants, lions, hippopotami, panthers, rhinoceroses, antelopes, and buffaloes—of these they kill enough to stock a first-class museum of natural history, and are themselves in turn nearly devoured on several occasions by the driver-ants, which come "trooping along in a column an inch deep." In the course of their wanderings, they find Awoona, the long-lost bride, and, rescuing her from her captors, they return to Coomassie, whence important private business calls them back to England.

Mr. Skertchly's intention would seem to have been to write "an awfully jolly book," not overloaded with information, but full of "sport." His narrative and descriptions are very good, but his conversations are weak and unnatural, and he occasionally taxes the reader's credulity to the utmost. With his fondness for adventure and the peculiar fascination of a year or so of wild life we cannot but sympathize, but we grow weary of bad puns and of the incessant and stilted talk about the horrors of superstition and fetishism which reappears in every chapter.

Remedies and Remedial Rights by the Civil Action, according to the Reformed American Procedure. A Treatise adapted to use in all the States and Territories where that System prevails. By John Norton Pomeroy, LL.D., author of 'An Introduction to Municipal Law,' 'An Introduction to Constitutional Law,' etc., etc. (Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1876.)—Recent legislation both in England and America has made great changes in the practice and procedure required for the legal remedy of wrongs and vindication of rights—changes so sweeping and radical as to have attracted much attention, and called forth an amount of discussion perhaps greater than the comparative importance of the subject can justify. Changes in the legal procedure, however, are not unimportant; and the general theory of these changes in this country well deserves the thorough treatment which it now receives from Mr. Pomeroy. The object of all such alterations has been to attain simplicity and uniformity, merits which were entirely wanting in the old system. As the law stood for centuries, if a plaintiff sued to recover a piece of land, he was bound to state his case in a particular way, and with certain meaningless forms, required only by inveterate custom, but still necessary to be observed, at the peril of losing even the most righteous cause. If the action was to recover damages for a breach of a contract, the forms varied; if the contract were under seal, they varied again; and if the plaintiff, not content with his damages, sought to have the contract actually carried out, he was compelled to proceed in a form so different from all the others that he had to carry his case into another court before he could find judges who would undertake to deal with it. The rules as to the proper persons to sue and be sued were often arbitrary and complex; many separate proceedings were necessary to arrive at one result; there was little or no liberty of amending mistakes in the proceedings at any stage of the cause; and trifling mistakes were fatal. This state of things certainly called for reform, which came in various ways, and was at last attempted on a grand scale by the famous New York Code of Procedure, which has been freely copied and imitated in other States.

The Code, its imitations, and the comments on them, form already a new *corpus juris* and a beautiful illustration of Lord Bacon's saying that "there is a superstition in avoiding superstition, when men think to do best as they go furthest from the superstition formerly received." Many of its provisions are most excellent. The administration of justice in all cases by one tribunal, the giving of various kinds of relief in one proceeding, the simultaneous disposal of the rights of all the parties to one transaction, and the unlimited power of amending mistakes, are all useful reforms. But the legislators of the Code have gone further than this by the abrogation of all distinctions between different forms of action, and introducing one form for the maintenance of all rights; and pleading—that is, the parties' written statements of their respective cases—has become, in the words of Mr. Pomeroy, "a branch of the art of narrative composition." In former times, the narrative was the client's business, and it was for his lawyer to express in proper form, for the consideration of the court and jury, the legal questions presented and the relief sought. By the new system this labor is thrown on the court, the informal pleadings of the parties often failing to show what the cause of action or ground of defence really is.

Under the old system, a great and undue weight was attached to precedents. But it is by precedent that our law is built up, and the Code, by trying to relieve legal procedure from all the restrictions of former precedent, has only made it necessary to construct a new series of precedents on different principles. Formalism has been swept away, and the courts are busy in building out of the resulting chaos a new set of formalities. The explanation of the new system has become as voluminous within thirty years as that of the older did in six hundred, and Mr. Pomeroy's eight hundred pages are a necessity to the student of the reformed procedure. That procedure is fortunate in finding so enthusiastic a champion and so clear an expounder. His difficulties must have been great. The mass of material is immense, and the value of much of it small; for the new system, whatever its merits may be, is frequently found in very bad company, and its exposition has too often fallen into the hands of judges distinguished neither for learning nor integrity. The same reformers who have displaced law and equity by "civil actions" are the authors of other legal reforms which have substituted Barnard for Kent. It is only by treating the divisions of the courts without ceremony that it is possible to show the new practice as a uniform or consistent system. This is what Mr. Pomeroy has done, and done with a discretion that enables him to show his favorite procedure in a better light than it has yet appeared in. His work will doubtless be an authority wherever Codes prevail, and cannot fail to contribute to a more uniform and reasonable construction of them.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*
Art Journal. Nos. 13, 14, 15	(D. Appleton & Co.)
Baker (W. H.), Carter Quarterman. A Novel. swd	(Harper & Bros.) 20 75
Brachet (A.), Public School French Grammar	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Brock (Mrs. C.), Sunday Echoes in Week-day Hours	(E. P. Dutton & Co.) 1 50
Burges (A.), American Kennel and Sporting Field	(J. B. Ford & Co.) 4 00
Church (A. J.) and Brodribb (W. J.), Annals of Tacitus	(Macmillan & Co.) 2 50
Fitzmaurice (Lord E.), Life of William, Earl of Shelburne. Vol. II.	(Macmillan & Co.) 4 50
High (J. L.), Treatise on the Law of Receivers	(Callaghan & Co.)

Fine Arts.

MEISSONIER'S PAINTING OF "1807."

AFTER having been seen by cosmopolitan crowds at Vienna as a chalk-marked sketch, and more recently in the Place Vendôme by excited Parisians, who accepted its completion as a sort of triumph of the national arms, the noteworthy canvas of M. Meissonier has arrived and been placed in the private gallery in this city which will be its future resting-place. An unusual amount of attention has been paid to this painting for several years past. It has long formed the "battle-horse" in receptions at the atelier where it was in progress, surrounded by a cloud of preliminary cartoons and studies. Since the declination of Sir Richard Wallace and the sale by telegraph to an American gentleman, it has formed the staple with the Paris lady-correspondent. It has even received, on its late exhibition among the French, the condiment of a little abuse. The circumstances and terms of its sale to the present owner were industriously communicated to newspapers of several nations, so that a sufficiently large crowd was duly prepared to receive it on these shores with acclaim—a disposition which the owner promptly met by strictly interdicting visits to the gallery.

The composition during its progress was indifferently called "Friedland" and "1807"; but the picture is no longer named, but only numbered—the figures of the date being all that we see on the small plaque attached to the frame. In fact, the title of "Friedland" seems inappropriate, as no sign of Benningsen or the Prussians appears, and the wheat represented in the foreground is too ripe for a period before the middle of June, when the action on the Alle River took place. What seem to be represented are the results of Friedland, the dictatorship of Europe and ownership of France, caused by the triumphant campaign in Germany and Poland. A painter has perhaps never represented a composition of a general and his army in which the mind or feeling seems so homogeneous, in which the leader reposes in the sympathy of his troops so like a soul in a body. What is most perfectly represented by M. Meissonier is this flash of living communion from the reviewing general to his troops, who howl in a frenzy of raging triumph. But for the establishment of this unity of incident between the army that rushes and the head that reposes and thinks, the painting would resemble a mere ordinary sham-fight or review of cavalry. But the solution of continuity is very obviously made out, and in the harmony, not contrast, of Napoleon's calm and the army's madness, is established the picture's epical claim, besides its high technical one.

The dimensions of the canvas are quite uncommon for M. Meissonier. It is eight feet across by four and a half feet in height, and a human figure in the foreground is eighteen inches high. This, except as adding to the mere optical toil of microscopic touches over a given space, is of little account, the importance of M. Meissonier's work having never depended, strange to say, on either the dimension or want of dimension of his canvases. While the ignorant admired him for his minuteness of manipulation, the knowing always admired him for his breadth. What the judicious saw in the method of this master was in fact the largeness of style, which was inseparable from his delineation, a largeness which belonged to his art, which was only accidentally confined in a petty dimension and a piercing eyesight, and in which the measure of the canvas played about as great a part as the size of the type in a Venice edition of Virgil. It is hard for an untechnical spectator to comprehend the immense height at which artists place a little subjectless study by Meissonier over an anecdote exquisitely related by Zamacois, Vibart, or Plassan. It is because the painting by the inferior man is of the size of itself; while the Meissonier, within the unimportant incident of dimension, and in the minute mosaic of its touches, has the ease, purpose, swing, and habit of thought of a Tintoretto.

The greater part of the present picture is occupied by a charge of cuirassiers, who sweep across the front of the scene up to a given spot. They are intercepted at this point by four hussars, who trot gently backward and forward across their path to mark the period of the advance. In the background, against the sky, are Napoleon and a dozen maréchaux, with the cent-garde drawn up in line across the horizon. The Napoleon group, the hussar group, and the frieze of galloping cavalry in front make up the picture. There is a rush of artillery going on to the left, with cannons dragged about by four horses, which nobody pays any attention to. One of the gun-carriages has slipped its axle, and lies unlimbered at the left of the foreground, the brass gun being protected by the pacing hussars, and prevented from breaking some brave cavalry-steed's legs. The rushing pelt of the horses in front is the purpose of the picture.

The passage of more than one previous charge has torn up the wheat, which nods against the frame at the base of the painting, and the execution of this bit of still-life—if it be not wrong to call so what is a piece of maddened and almost sensitive agitation, expressing in itself the heat of preceding rushes across the field—is a lesson for painters. The eddies of tossed grain are designed with breadth and sense of motion, as if they were seawaves, while the distracted stalks, leaning this way and that, are true to the life, without niggling minuteness or botanic dissection; where the wheeling artillery-carriages have tracked them, they make a series of concentric curves, like breakers in a bay. With legs plunging through this ocean of grain, pass the horses of the cuirassiers. Along the front of the picture they are viewed in profile, but behind, across the innumerable ranks, they are seen coming on full-face. The direction seems to be a semicircle around the chief and his staff. It is impossible to notice the treatment of Napoleon and the état-major until these troops have been examined, for they are in fact the heroes of the scene. History used to paint the general always in the foreground, the soldiers suffering in the distance with a sense of agony repressed by modesty; the present age insists on having the men in front and the commander at a distance; and M. Meissonier seems to point to a sort of battle-piece of the future in which the cavalry-horses shall be the sole heroes, and the human element altogether subordinated; for, indeed, his horses are the chief thing in the affair, the men being all alike and all like Horace Vernet's. Two or three of the chargers, in this preponderance of the equine element, are quickly impressed upon the eye. The lieutenant's horse in front, with its very uncommon color, is defined with all the warmth and exactitude of a copper casting; it is in full action, and shows its muscles in such clean relief that it seems flayed—a Saint Bartholomew of a barb without a skin. The tendons attaching the humerus to the chest, in full salient action, are designed in a masterly manner; the knees and lower legs are well-drawn systems of knots and cordage. We are asked to take a *loupe* and inspect the eye; and, if we have ever sounded with the sight the depths of the eye-ball in a real horse, we cannot but recognize the same translucidity of clouded jelly. The neck is covered with a net of starting veins like a delicate lace; and the free, forward carriage of the head could only be assumed by a leader, and not by any follower, in a race. This animal is set in the midst of the picture, in full foreground, as solid as the bronze of Verrochio, and glowing with all the honorable pride of the painter who could achieve such a real thing. Behind comes the gray steed of the trumpeter; it is also in profile and quite as good: the rank and file gallop back of these conspicuous figures with individual action and expression. The peculiar movement or intention of each is so perfectly consistent and so interestingly expressed, that we study the whole cavalcade of beasts with separate interest, as a portrait-gallery of notable individuals. It is a family portrait-gallery, however; the steeds, howsoever colored and moved, are all of one strain, and obviously so many masquerades of M. Meissonier's favorite horse Tivoli. The type is good and serviceable, not heroic; the honest business way in which the brutes labor forward is exceedingly true to ordinary life, while it has nothing whatever of the exalted ambition of racing-horses. The only exception in this preponderance of a favorite type is the remarkably long-nosed horse at Napoleon's right. The choice of bay for a majority of the animals is also a piece of seeming favoritism, though the necessity for a united tone in the picture sufficiently explains it.

Not to be too oppressive in distinguishing the claims of such a large company of animals, the heads of two more horses may be pointed out as singularly true to nature. The steed bearing the maréchal at the spectator's left, in the group of staff-officers, lowers his head and snuffs at the invaders with a horse's true curiosity and suspicion; and the middle horse of three in the advancing group of hussars—all of them admirably foreshortened—is being checked as he designs to trot ahead of his comrades, upon which he raises his heavy skull and tosses it about with that superfluous air of insult and mighty agitation about nothing to be remarked in the scale of emotions of his kind. Here are steeds different from those of Horace Vernet and Alfred de Dreux, and, most of all, from those of the Parthenon. This style of painting is not interpretation, but representation. The pupils of Phidias, without falsifying anything about their animals, worked as poets and idealists; you see that the chariot games are a religious rite; but you are to look for nothing of the sort in the work of M. Meissonier. He gives us a rush of well-chosen cavalry-brutes of superior blood, as it must have looked after the hard training of a winter in Poland; if from this appearance of things we can evolve the grandeur of those historic hoof-prints that remodelled the face of Europe, it is ourselves that must bring up the poetry, and not ask it of the man-photograph. If we want a realization of something like De Quincey's mail-horses, flushed through the reins that guided them with the intelligence of Waterloo, and

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 16, 1876.

The Week.

MR. ORVIL GRANT, the President's brother, who has been frequently mentioned by the licentious and unbridled press during the last two or three years as a nomadic gentleman whose occupation would not bear examination, appeared on Thursday before the Committee on the War Department, and told his own story of his jobs as an Indian trader in a simple, artless way that would be diverting if it were not for the picture it presents of the views entertained by the Presidential family on "the science of politics." Mr. Grant appears to be an unsuccessful man, who, when all else failed, tried to get a living in some easy way out of the Government, and accordingly applied to his brother to license him as an Indian trader. The reply was very characteristic of the "simple-minded, sagacious man" at the White House. He did not say that it would be improper, or inexpedient, or likely to cause scandal to put one of his own family in such a position; nor did he even say that a certain post was vacant which Orvil might have, and in which he hoped he would earn an honest living. He told him of four posts at which the traders were going to be removed, and Orvil accordingly applied for licenses not for one, but for four, and obtained them. This was in 1874, and he at once put "partners" of his in all the vacancies, who were to pay him a heavy share of the profits; but in one only, in January of this year, did he invest any capital, and in this only $2,000. Of course, the traders in paying him profits paid him simply for his influence with his brother, the President, at Washington, and Orvil confessed to the committee in the plainest manner that what was regrettable in his eyes in the whole affair was, not his use of his "influence," but the smallness of the amount he made out of the traderships. The transaction differs from the Belknap affair, as far as the President is concerned, simply in this, that while Belknap allowed his wife to sell traderships and apply the money to his household expenses, the President allowed his brother to sell them and keep the money himself. We are not surprised to hear that General Grant is very much annoyed by these investigations, and says they are carried on for "partisan purposes." Orvil appeared before the committee to be a man entirely devoid of what is called a sense of honor in matters pertaining to public funds, and is well worth study as a product of recent popular education, and as an illustration of the moral tone of "Administration circles."

A correspondent of the St. Louis *Republican* calls attention to a singular statement in President Grant's deposition in the Babcock case, with regard to his system of appointments, which seems deserving of more than a passing notice. He was asked what was done on the death of Ford, the St. Louis collector, as to the appointment of his successor. He replied that inasmuch as Ford had died "suddenly and away from home," he told Babcock that he "should be guided largely in selecting his successor" by "the recommendations or wishes of his bondsmen"; and in reply to another question, he stated that he could not say "on whose recommendation exclusively" the successor was actually appointed, but that he was "well recommended and satisfactory to the bondsmen of Mr. Ford." This was all stated in a matter-of-course way, as if all appointments had been made in this fashion ever since the formation of the Government, and it is proper to enquire what it means. Now, the only interest the bondsmen of a collector have in the appointment of a successor is, to get a man put in who will cover up any frauds or irregularities their principal may have committed, and their interest is strong just in proportion to the probability of fraud. Their interest is therefore directly hostile to the Government, and they are the very people whom the Government ought most carefully to avoid consulting. So much for the abstract principle. The result of actually applying it in Ford's case was this: Babcock telegraphed at once to Joyce, who was applying for the office, to get the approval of Ford's bondsmen. Ford's bondsmen were the Whiskey Ring, and they agreed with Joyce to recommend one Constantine Maguire for the place. He was immediately appointed. It is hardly necessary to say that Maguire is one of the leading whiskey thieves found out by Bristow, and now, we believe, awaiting sentence of court. We hope Offenbach will be here soon.

More damaging facts in Mr. Pierrepont's case have come out in connection with the Babcock military court. When this court was called together Mr. Pierrepont immediately wrote to Dyer, the District Attorney in St. Louis, to send to the Judge-Advocate at Chicago "any documentary evidence bearing upon the case, and the names and residence of any witnesses whose testimony you [Dyer] judge important to make the investigation thorough"; and ended by reminding Mr. Dyer of what he (Pierrepont) had "so often said," that "we wish no innocent man punished, and no guilty one to escape." The reply which Dyer sent to this letter has not been published, but there is reason to believe that he at once wrote to Mr. Pierrepont asking whether he was in earnest, reminding him that it is not customary in this country in time of peace for civil courts to be put into the hands of the army; declaring that he refused to obey the order, and that, even if he were willing to do so, the court would not allow such a proceeding. This would unquestionably have been the proper reply to send. It will be noticed that the view Mr. Pierrepont takes of his duties is, not that he is bound to prosecute anybody whom he can find *primâ-facie* evidence against, but that he is a kind of wise and loving judge, whose business it is to prevent the innocent from being punished quite as much as to secure the conviction of the guilty. In fact, throughout the case we see Mr. Pierrepont in what, in a profession closely allied to politics, would be called his "Protean feat" of appearing at one and the same time in the three rôles of prosecuting officer, counsel for the defence, and judge. We strongly recommend him to read the fable of the Innocent Dog recently published in the *World*.

The Republicans in the Senate, not to be beaten at investigations, have passed a bill to investigate insects injurious to vegetation—the locust, the chinch-bug, the army-worm, the Hessian fly, and the potato-bug. The bill provides for an investigator-in-chief at a salary of $4,000 a year, the herculean labors of the head of the Agricultural Bureau preventing that official from giving the necessary time to it. The act, should it pass the House—which seems doubtful—will be a new application of the great principle of division of labor, for in future the Agricultural Commissioner will scatter the seed broadcast over the land, while the national entomologist will follow closely on his trail and exterminate the various bugs that may attack the ripening grain. We only want now another Commissioner to harvest the crops, and another to see that they get to deep water, and the husbandman will be entirely relieved from grinding toil. The Senate has also disposed of the case of Mr. P. B. S. Pinchback, refusing him his seat by a vote of 32 to 29; has had a debate on the excise service, which we have discussed elsewhere; has passed a bill to admit New Mexico; and has debated Mr. Morton's bill as to the counting of the Presidential vote. The House has refused to turn over the documents in the Belknap case to the District Courts, after an exciting debate; has brought before the bar a Mr. Wolff, formerly a book-keeper

for a firm of navy contractors and claim agents, who refused to tell the Naval Committee whether he knew of money being corruptly used by the firm. On being brought up, he fell down in a fit, and Mr. Whitthorne, the chairman of the committee, explained that he had already answered the question, and he was discharged. The precise facts disclosed by him to the committee yet remain a secret. The House has passed a bill for the protection of witnesses, exempting all witnesses who testify under protest before either House, or any committee, or the Senate sitting as a court of impeachment, from all criminal liability except impeachment, and providing, at the same time, that absconding witnesses shall be punishable by fine or imprisonment; the Legislative and Executive bill has been reported, with estimates cut down to the extent of $8,000,000; and the Hawaiian Treaty has again been discussed, and the conference report on the District of Columbia 3.65 bonds adopted.

The expected report of the Senate Committee against the confirmation of Mr. Dana, to the body which has just confirmed Billings in the judgeship at New Orleans, would be a wretched piece of business. We believe the agents who have contributed to this result are Mr. W. B. Lawrence, who accuses Mr. Dana of having pirated the notes of his edition of Wheaton, and Mr. B. F. Butler, who accuses him of having "bolted the regular ticket" on certain occasions, and being generally obnoxious to himself. As regards Butler's hostility, we had hoped that the Senate had learned enough to be indifferent to it. As regards Mr. Lawrence's charges, we shall only say that the matter is still before the courts, having been referred some time ago to a master to report on the rival editions. He has made no report because, we venture to assert, there is nothing to report that would not be almost ridiculous as a charge against Mr. Dana. We made a careful collation of the two books ourselves in 1866, and published the result in No. 66 of the *Nation*. The only basis for Mr. Lawrence's charges worth notice was that Mr. Dana's translations from foreign languages occasionally were textually like his own, to which nobody who has ever translated from modern languages will attach any importance in the case of a man like Mr. Dana, who was himself a master of international law and a leading practitioner in Admiralty cases when he undertook the work. As to identity in the illustrations cited of certain rules, since the illustrations were prominent events of modern history, it is almost absurd to base on them an accusation of bad faith offered to educated men. There is *one* case of literal copying of a quotation of four lines of Lawrence's from Blackstone, with the typographical error which it contained—over which Mr. Lawrence has been childishly exultant, but there is no doubt that this was due to an oversight of the printer, to whom, improperly as we think, Mr. Dana had left the task of striking out all of Lawrence's notes. That this error was not detected by him in the proof-sheets was natural enough. In fact, to attack Mr. Dana's character in this matter in ever so slight a degree is to give proof of a perverse and malignant temper, and if the Senate Committee is influenced by such attacks in making its report, without giving him a hearing, it will be guilty of a gross offence against justice and decency.

In his testimony before the House Foreign Affairs Committee James E. Lyon testified that, in 1872, a despatch was sent to England by Professor Silliman, Brydges Willyams, and Hussey, who had made an examination of the Emma Mine, to the effect that there were "eight thousand tons discovered since last report; sample assay, two thousand dollars per ton." Professor Silliman could not remember that he had signed such a despatch, and on going home he searched the files of the English mining journals, and came upon the following, which he admits he did send and wishes to have included in his testimony given under oath, and on which he relies for his professional vindication:

"Very great improvements since last report. On seventh floor drifted 120 feet, and tenth floor 40 feet, all in ore; at the bottom winze, 70 feet below old workings, drifted 40 feet, all in ore. Sample assays 28 per cent. lead and $2,000 silver. Reserves discovered since last report over 8,000 tons. Everything connected with the mine is highly satisfactory. Mailed supplementary report: Canyon road still bad. Shall forward 1,000 tons first-class ore forthwith. Have 65 tons bullion, worth $20,000; propose selling here. Arranged all other matters here. Will report fully on return.

"WILLYAMS, SILLIMAN, AND HUSSEY."

We have examined this despatch carefully, and cannot see what the difference is between the statement actually sent and that given by Lyon; though Professor Silliman says in a letter to Mr. Hewitt, the chairman of the committee, that "there is nothing in this despatch to justify the monstrous statement made in the garbled extract from it that those 8,000 tons of ore had an assay value of $2,000, or that the despatch above quoted gives to the reserves any specific value whatever." If the despatch did not mean that there were 8,000 tons worth $2,000 per ton, we cannot understand what it did mean, unless Mr. Silliman uses language in a way totally different from that in which other people use it. In fact, it seems to us that the meaning of the despatch was clearly just what Lyon represented it to be, and that it was intended to effect just the object he said it was intended to effect. Another point in the case not cleared up is as to the expert's payment for services. He was paid $5,000, he says, at the outset, and promised more afterwards. After the mine was floated, he got $20,000 more. He was employed by the vendees of the mine, he has always maintained, and yet the man who actually appeared as his employer was, he now says, General Baxter, one of Park's "pals" in the sale. As to the $20,000 additional which he got, he says it was in part paid for work on other mining property of Park's. Now the question arises, what was this other property, and what was the work, and did the Emma Mine pay for work done on other and disconnected mines? This witness evidently needs a good deal more vigorous cross-examination than he has yet been subjected to.

The Texas and Pacific Railway Bill has not yet been reported to the House, and the impression is daily gaining strength that its friends believe it unwise to urge it at the present time when its advocates would be intimidated by the approaching Presidential election. If the bill is one which, either from want of merit or through the means used to secure its passage, will not bear the daylight of an election year, it is difficult to see on what ground it ought to pass in any other year, while the character of the bill, so far as known, shows that the period of delay has also been a period of growth, and that the scheme has obtained a size during gestation which will probably strangle it in its birth. The Texas and Pacific Railway proper is 1,500 miles long, of which 1,300 only remain to be built, and there would seem to be no propriety in asking a subsidy for anything more than this 1,300 miles; but the bill, as reported from the sub-committee, would most properly be termed a "Bill providing for the construction of a Railway System in the Southwestern States." In addition to the main line it provides for a branch, at least 300 miles long, from Shreveport to New Orleans; for a branch, nearly 200 miles long, from the same point to Vicksburg; for a third branch, 300 miles long, from Jefferson, Texas, to Memphis; and for a fourth, 400 miles long, from a point in Western Texas to the present terminus of the Atlantic and Pacific Railroad in the northeastern part of the Indian Territory, forming with that line a route to St. Louis. The total length of these branches is fully 1,200 miles, nearly as long as the unbuilt main line, and none of them are demanded to accommodate business. The railway already has rail communication with the Texas ports and steamboat communication with New Orleans. Vicksburg is a point of no importance, while both Memphis and St. Louis are reached from its eastern terminus over the St. Louis, Iron Mountain, and Southern Railway, and its connections, by lines now in operation, nearly or quite as direct as the shortest which can be found. It is understood that the promoters of the railway have no desire to build these branches, but that they are accepted to secure the support of Congressmen. The bill in its proposed form finds a

parallel only in the story told early in the war of the young man who, on asking for a lieutenant's commission, was answered that his request could not be granted, but that he might, if he really cared about it, be made a brigadier-general.

Any moral authority the late Advisory Council in Brooklyn might have had may be safely said to have been destroyed by the address of Dr. Storrs to his church on Sunday evening last, and by the subsequent action of the church with regard to it. Dr. Storrs's arraignment of the Council follows substantially the same line as Professor E. C. Smyth's as regards the ecclesiastical defects of its action, but his exposure of the arrangement it made for the further trial of the charges against Mr. Beecher is still more damaging. He declares that under its rulings "no priest or minister in any other body of Christians ever known on earth was so entirely shielded from enquiry as to his character as is the pastor of a Congregational church, according to the statement of this assembly, so long as he succeeds in keeping his hold on his circle of local hearers." We cannot help thinking that this, if true, is due in some degree to the nature of the Congregational system itself, but we do not know what answer can be made to Dr. Storrs's account of the extraordinary machinery which the Council invented for a final and decisive enquiry into Mr. Beecher's case. In the first place, the Council had, under the letter missive, no authority to suggest or create any such machinery; in the second, the organization of the proposed tribunal was committed to three gentlemen whose confidence in Mr. Beecher is "express and complete"; in the third, the list of twenty persons from whom the tribunal can be chosen contains several names of those who believe in Mr. Beecher's innocence already and are eager for his vindication; in the fourth, if five of them cannot be got to serve, any three can make up the full number out of the denomination at large; so that, in short, the composition of the court would be unknown to the accuser up to the last moment, and it might be strongly hostile to him; in the fifth, the charges must be presented within sixty days, and to the church, who are to forward it to the commission; in the sixth, it is in the power of the commission to decide that the charges presented have been sufficiently tried already (*i.e.*, by Mr. Beecher's investigating committee), and dismiss the complaint; in the seventh, the commission can only act at the request of Plymouth Church, and if at the end of the sixty days no charges have been presented, the church may offer fresh *ex-parte* evidence, and ask on it a further vindication of Mr. Beecher.

Acting on Dr. Storrs's address, his church on Monday evening passed resolutions repudiating the decisions of the Advisory Council and refusing to hold Congregational fellowship with any church which adheres to the principles laid down by it; and declaring that whatever concerns the collective brotherhood of the churches may be judged by the brotherhood in a properly constituted council, and that whenever any church refuses to rid itself of a scandal, by appropriate ecclesiastical procedure, either instituted by itself or proffered by sister churches, it may be the duty of the brotherhood of the churches to institute enquiry on its own account, in order to rid itself of such scandal or of such church. On this, steps will probably be taken to bring about some thorough investigation of "the main question," or to expel Plymouth Church from fellowship if it refuses to submit to it.

The Stock Exchange was enlivened during the week by a "bull" speculation in Erie and a "bear" speculation in Pacific Mail. Each of these stocks has for years been a favorite football for speculators. It appears that Erie, encumbered as it is with financial embarrassments, has been fortunate enough to attract, for ultimate purposes of their own, the attention of capitalists connected with the Delaware, Lackawanna, and Western and the Delaware and Hudson Companies. They, through the Lackawanna Iron and Coal Company and the Cambria Iron Company, both of which are controlled by the interest named, have agreed to lay a third rail on the Erie, making it a narrow-gauge from Jersey City to Waverley, a station a few miles beyond Elmira. The Lehigh Valley, in the same interest, has agreed to continue this third rail from Waverley to Buffalo. The advantages of a narrow-gauge to the coal roads named are important, but the remote object was to benefit the Michigan Central, which is owned in good part by the capitalists who control the Delaware, Lackawanna, and Western Railroad. In the case of Pacific Mail, a month ago, when the stock was selling at 40 or thereabouts, the Company was reported to be in excellent condition, with a small floating debt and with an encouraging business. It is now by the same speculators, and they directors, represented to be wholly insolvent, with an alarming floating debt, with a poor business, and that soon to be divided with a rival line. To show the desperate condition of the finances of the Company the directors have authorized the issue of $2,000,000 bonds, which are needed, they say, to pay the floating debt. On such representations the stock has fallen to about 18.

The suspension of the Bank of the State of New York was directly due to the action of the Clearing-House Association, which, on notification from the Bank Examiner, ascertained that the bank was unsound, and accordingly excluded it from the privileges of the Association. This bank was organized in 1836, has a capital of $2,000,000, and has stood respectably, its stock last week having sold at 106. On investigation it was found that the capital was impaired about one-half—that is, that it could pay depositors and all other creditors in full, and have remaining about $1,000,000. The difficulties of the bank were in no way chargeable to the times, but entirely to bad management. A circumstance which strongly characterizes this was the appearance in the "cash" of an individual check of the Vice-President for $20,000. In addition to these bad eggs in the basket was $224,000 protested paper, among which was $70,000 of Duncan, Sherman & Co. It is but just to assume that such management is not customary in New York banking. Of course, Wall Street was ablaze with excitement when the suspension was first announced. Gold advanced to 115, but fell back to 114⅜. Speculative stocks fell from 1 to 5 per cent., but soon rallied. Money advanced to 1-16 per day, there having been a general calling in of loans. When the exact facts were known, and it was seen that no creditor of the bank would lose, comparative tranquillity was restored. The exposure of the bank was due to the vigilance of the Bank Examiner; its bad debts were of recent creation. The gold price of $100 greenbacks ranged during the week between $86 94 and $87 43.

The reports of the New York savings-banks for the year 1875 have appeared. There were at the close of the year forty of these institutions, one having since failed—the Security—which was a small concern. These banks report total deposits of $184,188,216, against $180,010,703 in 1874, and $170,998,796 in 1873. The total resources from which to pay depositors were, in 1875, $205,415,447; in 1874 they were $195,325,164; and in 1873, $184,414,895. The amount of deposits, including interest credits, which were made during 1875 was $80,900,863, while the amount of deposits withdrawn was $75,086,606; in 1874 these items were: deposits, $80,506,502, and withdrawals, $77,541,298; in 1873, deposits, $91,540,649, and withdrawals, $90,715,320. Out of the $205,415,447 resources in 1875, $46,184,887 consisted of United States bonds, while $65,388,887 consisted of bonds and mortgages. It would speak better for the management of these corporations if the investments in United States bonds were larger, as these securities excel all others not only in point of safety but of availability. The number of open accounts in 1875 was 468,562, against 494,086 in 1874, and 479,102 in 1873. This is not strange, considering that five banks, no one of them important except the Third Avenue, failed during the year, and that these failed banks had 19,000 open accounts. The statement shows a smaller decrease in the amount of deposits than was expected, considering the hard times and the extent to which labor has been unemployed.

"THE ECONOMY AND SIMPLICITY OF OUR FOREFATHERS."

THE fall of Mr. Belknap is generally ascribed, and with considerable appearance of truth, to his wife's desire, and doubtless also his own, to live handsomely. She was what is called a "leader of fashion" in that remarkable portion of human society called "Administration circles," and required considerably more money than her husband's income to reach the standard of gentility in the matter of meat, drink, clothing, and carriages set up by the people among whom she sought to shine; and she got it out of the sutlers, and they out of the soldiers and settlers on the Plains. Whether this is an accurate statement of the case or not, it is the one generally accepted by the public, and the moral drawn from it, by a somewhat sweeping generalization, is that extravagance in living is the main source of our political corruption, and that if we would reform the Government we must go back to the simplicity of food and attire and the accompanying personal integrity supposed to have been common in the year 1776 or thereabouts. We confess there is to us something almost as depressing in this kind of talk as in the practice in which many of our newspapers indulge, of drawing consolation for the present corruption of this Republic from the reflection that the corruption of the English monarchy one hundred and fifty years ago was just as great; because both one and the other have a tendency to turn people's minds away from real remedies and throw them back on quackery.

There is, in the first place, always something childish in calling out in times of public danger and distress for things which are clearly unattainable, and nothing is more clearly unattainable than a return to the manners and customs of another age. This would be true even if it were certain that there was any necessary connection between the plain living of the early Americans and their good morals. There is no such connection. No man or woman is kept from knavery by wearing homespun and living on pork and molasses. If we had only to change men's clothes and put them on short commons in order to make them good, we might dispense with religion and law, and the saints of every community would be found in the penitentiary. It may be said, too, with confidence that the people of every age have lived about as well as they could afford. The men and women of the last century wore plainer clothes than we do, and ate plainer fare, because fine clothes and rich diet were harder to get, because, in short, they had less to offer in exchange for them. The steam-engine and the power-loom and the spinning-jenny had not been invented, and nearly everybody had to trust to the produce of his farm for a livelihood, and the difficulties of travel and the absence of periodical literature kept his imagination in a state of virtuous quiescence. He wore homespun, then, not because he was good, but because he could not help it. "Plain living and high thinking" even in our time often go together, but the thinking is not high because the living is plain; more generally the living is plain because the thinking is high. In order to go back to the manners of 1776, we should have to get rid of all the material progress which separates this year from that—that is, all the industry, art, and means of locomotion which the discoveries and inventions of the last century have placed at our disposal. In order to get very much advantage from living like the forefathers, we should have to reduce the number and power of our temptations to the level of theirs. If we dressed all our modern legislators in serge, and fed them on grits and hominy, it would profit us nothing as long as we allowed Jay Gould to assail them with thousand-dollar bills or railroad stock or bonds.

There are, however, some characteristics of the men of the last century which we can imitate and restore, and which in our present plight may do us much political service. First and foremost among these is their thorough practicalness, and freedom from the kindergarten tendency to shape in your own mind the way you would like things to be, and then to make your arrangements as if that was the way they would be. The Rousseau whey had not made its way into their veins. If we look through their speeches, debates, political treatises, and constitutions, we find that the animal they are thinking about and working for is man as they know him and see him, and not man as they would like to see him and as it would be convenient to have him. Jefferson had some of the true Red dreams about the probable effect on human nature of certain political contrivances or material conditions, but on the whole his contemporaries were politicians of the true Anglo-Saxon type, who saw no visions, and did not expect from human nature any extraordinary displays of self-denial in the ordinary work of life. If we run through the volume which is perhaps on the whole the best example of the political thinking of that day, the 'Federalist,' we find the writers occupied anxiously from first to last in the construction of a government which should put the least possible strain on human nature, and offer it fewest temptations, and take most account of its weaknesses. They tried to set up, not something to which truly good men would do well to adapt themselves, but something which the average man—a being who is neither saint nor devil—would find it easy to live under. For instance, when they were fixing the salaries of the high officers of the Government, they did not, as we do now, evolve from their own moral consciousness the sum which an ideal President *ought* to need annually. On the contrary, they found out what the Presidents of Congress under the old Confederation had spent in the year, and they made such additions to it as they thought the new President would require to enable him to live with ease and dignity. In like manner, when they came to fix the salaries of the judges of the Supreme Court, they did not thrust one hand under their coat-tails, and run the other through their hair, and pour forth a stream of blatherskite about the way an ideal judge *ought* to live, and about the smallness of the sum for which good lawyers of their own acquaintance could be got to fill the place. They said: "The Supreme Court ought to contain the best lawyers in the country, and in choosing the judges for it we ought not to be restricted to men of accumulated fortunes. Therefore, to get the best lawyers we must pay as much annually as the leading lawyers actually earn in the centres of the largest practice." Having ascertained that this was about $3,000, they fixed the salary of the Chief-Justice at $4,000 a year, and that of the associate Justices at $3,500. They followed a similar course with regard to all the other offices of the Government. They offered, in short, such salaries as would in the market of that day command the best labor of the kind the public service required, and made absolutely no extraordinary demand on the virtue of the candidates. They no more thought of treating the public service as a monastery, and exacting a vow of poverty from those entering it, than private bankers thought of it. They knew that men would serve the Government from ordinary motives; that good men would need good pay, and security, and the chance of living in the same style as the people with whom they naturally associated in other callings, and they acted accordingly.

Since that period Congress has raised the pay of the Supreme Court judges only one hundred and fifty per cent., although the remuneration of leading lawyers in active practice has increased five or six hundred per cent.; and the very same policy (we have no space for illustrative details) has been pursued through all branches of the service. The rate of pay has been kept far below the market rate, and the result is that in most of them we get the refuse of the market for Government work—that is, the helpless, the dissolute, the sickly, the lazy, the incompetent, and the knavish, and when they steal and cheat we implore them "to return to the economy and simplicity of their forefathers"; and when they refuse, we begin to weep and wail, and ask what is going to become of the country, and what would Washington say if he could see Belknap. There could probably be no better illustration of the darkened state of the public mind about the causes of our present political disease than the approbation with which the present rage for cutting down the salaries of public officers is regarded, as a measure of economy. Far from being a measure of economy, it is one more step in the process by which a middle wall of partition has been erected between the honesty, capacity, and energy of the American people and the Government which it dearly loves and would fain be proud of.

Apply all this to the case of the unhappy Belknap, and what do we find? The office of Secretary of War, putting aside altogether its dignity and its moral responsibility as regards the discipline of the army, is one of enormous commercial importance. The incumbent is charged with the proper disbursement of about $32,000,000 annually. He ought, therefore, to be sought in the ranks of that body of men who are called in this country to take charge of the greatest railroads or manufacturing or mining companies, or, in other words, ought to be the kind of man who finds no difficulty in obtaining from $20,000 to $30,000 a year for his services, and he ought to be one of the very best of them, because while the president of a railroad or manufacturing company has his conduct submitted every year to the sharp test of money dividends, and is kept up to his work by the watchful eyes of self-interest, the Secretary of War has, for the greater part of his work, no other auditor or supervisor than his own conscience. In Belknap's case he was, however, chosen in the person of an humble and obscure revenue collector in a Western town, where he earned about $3,000 a year, and he was suddenly charged with these enormous responsibilities, with a salary of $8,000, and in a position so conspicuous and surrounded by such social conditions that the temptation to live at the rate of $30,000 a year was tremendous. If he had been a man of Roman virtue, of incorruptible patriotism, of lofty aspirations, of refined tastes, of thrifty habits, and had had a monkish scorn for the good things of this life, and his wife had been like him, they would have returned to "the economy and simplicity of their forefathers," and have saved money out of their salary. But what reason had we to suppose that he was that kind of man? Why should we expect $8,000 a year to fill our Cabinet with saints and sages? Let us not flatter ourselves that Washington is wondering how this calamity overtook us. On the contrary, he is probably smiling sadly at our simplicity in expecting anything better.

TWO "FAVORITE SONS."

THE past fortnight has witnessed two events in Congress of more than ordinary importance—one in the Senate and the other in the House. In the Senate, the occasion was the delivery of an able speech by Mr. Gordon, of Georgia, on the excise service; in the House, the discussion of the Belknap impeachment. About a month ago Mr. Gordon introduced some resolutions instructing the Committee on Finance to ascertain what amendments to the laws are necessary to secure economy and certainty in the collection of internal revenue, and to prevent frauds in its collection. He desired to have the committee instructed especially to enquire whether it is advisable to "create a corps of excise to hold office indefinitely, removable only for incapacity or malfeasance in office." Mr. Gordon, in his speech, showed that Great Britain, whose excise system is always put forward as the model of our own, collected a tax of $2 in gold on every gallon of whiskey made, while we could not collect twenty cents per gallon in greenbacks, and when we attempted to collect $2 a gallon the whole was lost. He quoted from Mr. Fessenden's report, made in 1864, to the effect that the annual product of our distilleries was, even then, $100,000,000; and proved from Mr. Pratt's report of 1870 that, notwithstanding the increase of population and development of business since, a tax upon only $77,500,000 was paid in that year; or, in other words, $22,500,000, at the very lowest estimate, escaped taxation altogether. He asked why it is that one government can collect $2 in gold and the other cannot collect twenty cents, and insisted, what everybody knows to be the case, that the explanation is that the English system of appointments is a premium on honesty and fidelity, while our system of appointment for short terms, for reasons having no bearing whatever on fitness for office, combined with rapid rotation, is a premium on dishonesty and inefficiency. The speech was entirely non-partisan in its tone, and contained just the recommendations which any reflection on the whiskey-fraud exposures and the cases of Joyce, McDonald, McKee, and the rest, would be likely to suggest to the mind of nine out of ten honest and intelligent men. He was immediately replied to by a leading Republican senator, and the reply consisted of these three heads: 1st, a eulogy of the Republican party; 2d, a statement of a report that the Georgia election was carried by bribery and corruption; 3d, an enquiry why, if Mr. Gordon wished to imitate the English, he did not "come out at once in favor of a monarchy."

In the Belknap impeachment case, the House had been discussing the question as to the status of an impeachment pending at the same time with an indictment. In the course of the discussion Mr. Lamar of Mississippi spoke of impeachment as a process intended for "punishment," on which a leading Republican, himself a lawyer, immediately proceeded to debate the point with him, maintaining that impeachment was "protective" and not "punitive." Now, the peculiarity of the debate was that there was nothing to debate about. Mr. Lamar immediately produced the constitutional provision for total disqualification for office in cases of impeachment, and a decision of the Supreme Court in which disqualification for office in case of conviction on impeachment is referred to in so many words as "punishment;" on which the Republican leader was silenced.

It may seem to the reader that we have gone out of our way to rake up the rubbish of the *Congressional Record* in reproducing this monstrous reply to Mr. Gordon's sensible speech in the Senate, and this flimsy trifling with important subjects in the House, but the reason we have done so is that the reply to Mr. Gordon in the Senate, and the pettifogging about impeachment in the House, did not come from obscure and harmless Congressional fledglings, but from two of the leading representatives of the party now in possession of the Government—one of them the "leader" of the House and the other the head man in the Senate, and both being among the most prominent candidates for the Presidential succession; we mean, of course, Mr. Morton and Mr. Blaine.

We have selected these two "incidents" because they represent fairly enough what has been going on in Congress ever since the beginning of the session, and illustrate better than volumes of sermons could one of the worst effects of the present debasement of political life. We do not for a moment mean to compare Mr. Morton and Mr. Blaine in other respects. Mr. Blaine is a man of reputable standing outside of politics, a man of education, and, we believe, right intentions, while Mr. Morton is an unscrupulous demagogue and turncoat. But in one respect they are alike—they are both candidates for the Presidency, and it is important for them to put themselves before the country during the present session in the best possible light, and to lay up as much capital as possible against the autumn. This is quite right and natural, and we have not a word to say against it. It is for the interest of the country no less than the candidates that we should know as much about them as we can, and first and above all what sort of men they are, and what sort of measures they propose for our consideration and approval. It is a singular fact that these two leading candidates, taken from the opposite extremes of the party, should have thus far offered the country absolutely nothing. Mr. Blaine did, indeed, bring forward at the opening of Congress a constitutional amendment directed against the Catholics, but the anti-Catholic excitement was, as every one knows now, a mere flurry; and all that Mr. Blaine means to do or can do with his amendment is, not to pass it, but to use it in the campaign to catch anti-Catholic votes. His next appearance was in the Amnesty debate, in which he showed that Jefferson Davis was a traitor and a bad man, and succeeded, by the usual parliamentary tricks, in making a mess of the Democratic Amnesty Bill. Last year, when the Republicans had possession of the House, they voted, almost if not quite unanimously, for a bill almost identically the same, without any indication from Mr. Blaine that he was offended by the proposal to pardon Davis. Since then he has made a speech on the currency question, in which he has neither brought forward nor even suggested a plan to deal with the only question of importance connected with the subject—the resumption of specie payments; and he has now been dis-

tinguishing himself in the impeachment proceedings—of such solemnity as to involve perhaps the ruin of his party—by putting forward, to harass the Democrats, views as to the process which have no foundation in law or reason, and would be recognized as a quibble by a schoolboy.

We take it that there has never been a time in the history of the country when there was more deep discontent with the condition of the Government, nor a greater longing for the appearance on the scene of a new order of men in public life, capable not merely of giving expression to this discontent—for this has been pretty well done already—but of taking part in the actual government of the country and bringing some decent order out of the present confusion. The day of the fire-eater and of the abolitionist and of the "war-horse" and the "wheel-horse" has gone by, and everybody knows it has gone by, and the question is who are to take their places. It is a question which it is very difficult to answer, for it is one of the signs of the dry-rot which is eating out the life of our system that no new generation of politicians is coming to the surface capable of dealing with the questions which must be dealt with, and very soon too, if we are not to give up the attempt at self-government as a failure. The present dearth of new men in political life in France is one of the most noticeable results of the political decline in that country during the last thirty years, but the French never took the means we have taken to drive honest and intelligent men out of political life. They never made a practice of turning a man out of office because he was a faithful public servant and refused to devote his time to other objects than his official duty. That is exactly what "rotation" means, and that is what we have made the corner-stone of our Government. The result has been that the honest, industrious, respectable classes have been for more than a generation warned away from public life, and the management of affairs has fallen into the hands of the peculiar people that we now see in Washington. The theory of "rotation" is that it brings up new political men "fresh from the people," but it really does just the opposite. Every year the divorce between public opinion and the political class has been becoming greater and greater, just as it did for many years in this city between the Tammany politicians and the public, until finally a point is reached—and it looks very much as if we had reached such a one now—at which nothing short of a "clean sweep," or, in other words, a passionate movement for the rotation of all the rascals out of office at once, is the only resource or hope of good government left.

In the failure of Mr. Blaine to hold his own during the present session we see a curious effect of this wide divergence between public opinion and that of the political class. He is a shrewd manager, and as a shrewd manager he has for years been occupied, not in studying the condition of the country, or considering what questions demand solution, or what questions "the people" are thinking about, but in watching the "machine." He has mastered it completely. He can "spar" in the House, he can expose a Democrat, he can force him into a false position, he can make him introduce a bill that he does not want to introduce, and he can prevent him from introducing a bill that he does want to introduce—and this is all. He betrays no signs of thinking or caring for anything else, and acts as if there really were no questions to care for or solve, but as if we were all simply playing a game in which it was agreed that one side should be called Democrats and the other Republicans, and the side that "scored" the most exposures and the most successful parliamentary dodges should win the game and carry off the "pool." The difference between him and his playmate, Morton, is that he plays the game fairly, while Morton cheats. Politicians are merely the gauges of party sentiment and ability, and Mr. Blaine's failure is simply the failure of the Republican "machine," or, in other words, the failure to produce men equal to the demands of the time. It is no answer to this to say that the Democrats are equally incapable. They must be produced, if not by Democrats or Republicans, then by somebody else.

THE PROGRESS OF THE EXHIBITION.

PHILADELPHIA, March 10, 1876.

THREE months ago a visit to the Centennial was easy and pleasant. The buildings were comparatively few in number and easily distinguished, and the ground was in good condition and unencumbered with building materials. But at the present day the visitor speedily discovers that he has hard work before him. The multiplicity of buildings begins already to be perplexing, the ground is softened by the outcoming frost, cut up here and there with excavations, and dotted with piles of boards, laths, shingles, bricks, and unremoved débris. Everything betokens the last travail before the installation of goods. Not that I wish the reader to infer from these remarks that the Centennial is backward and the managers hastening to make up lost time. On the contrary, the work of preparation is far advanced, and we have the best reasons for expecting the 10th of May to be the opening day in fact as well as in form. But, as every one knows, the last stages in making ready a great enterprise always wear the mien of distraction. It is difficult for the inexperienced to detect the real order beneath all this seeming confusion. The very forwardness of the Centennial looks like the opposite because there are so many buildings rapidly approaching completion about the same time.

Let me run briefly over the principal features of the Centennial in order. The Main Building is done and awaiting its contents. Some boxes and cases from South America, Sweden, and Norway are already placed in position, but the contents not unpacked. The spaces and sub-spaces for all the exhibits are marked off by red lines on the floor. The Machinery Building was finished long ago, and also spaced off. The shafting is well under way and can be finished easily in four weeks. In the centre the huge Corliss engine (1,500horse-power) which is to supply all the motive-power is rapidly approaching completion. The bed is laid, the upright cylinders erected, and also the two walking-beams. The foundations of other heavy pieces of machinery throughout the building are laid. Back of the Machinery Hall is a new structure, 314 feet by 160, with galleries, to be ready on the 15th. This Shoe and Leather Annex is the work of private subscription, and will contain the most complete display ever made of articles of leather. The importance of the department is manifest when we consider that the aggregate annual business is computed at $230,000,000 (of which $90,000,000 belongs to Massachusetts alone). The annex will contain specimens of every kind of shoe and boot manufactured, every kind of leather prepared, and every machine used in the country. Horticultural Hall was finished some time ago. There is a little painting to be done inside, and the potting proceeds slowly, as it requires a good deal of care. But in general I should say that this hall, like the main building, is only awaiting its contents. Agricultural Hall, the most backward of all the large buildings, has made astonishingly rapid strides. The arches are up; the roofing is laid, except around the central cupola and over a part of one of the wings; and the greater part of the flooring is down. In all probability the building will be delivered by the contractor at the end of the present month. The art building (Memorial Hall) is likewise in the last stages. The plastering is done, except some ornamental work around the base of the rotunda, the wood-work is done, and the tiles in some of the rooms are laid. A delay in the delivery of the tiles from Connecticut has thrown the workmen back a week or more, but, notwithstanding, the building will be in readiness by the beginning of April. One hundred feet in the rear is a detached structure, altogether new—the Art Annex. This annex, which is even larger in superficial area than Memorial Hall, is not of a permanent nature, but intended to contain the overflow, as it is called, of pictures and statues. Even with this extra room at their command, the managers fear that they will be unable to gratify all the demands for space. Being projected suddenly to meet an unexpected want, the annex is of course behindhand. But it is being pushed with great energy, and will doubtless be ready in season. The outer walls are of brick; the framework is wood. In appearance it is rather squat and ungainly, especially if compared with the handsome façade of Memorial Hall, and will be found, I fear, to be hot in summer weather. However, it will be no worse than the *Exposition des Amateurs* at Vienna. Near by is the Annex for Wagons and Carriages, also backward. Piles of lumber and the constant buzz of a circular saw reveal the process of construction. It is little more than a temporary frame building, which will not be inelegant when finished, but which at present shows its ribs and joints too plainly. The U. S. Government Building was completed more than a month ago. The Women's Pavilion was handed over last week. The Southern Restaurant and the New Jersey State Building are finished.

But it will not be necessary for me to enumerate more of the fifty or sixty buildings now scattered over the grounds. Suffice it to state that all

the principal ones are now ready, or so nearly ready as to be practically disposed of, and that the buildings incomplete or not yet begun are of a kind that admits of very rapid work. The managers will probably issue an order in a few days to the effect that all building material must be delivered and *in situ* before the 1st of April. The object of this is to reserve the railroad tracks and roads in the grounds for the conveyance of goods. By the middle of the present month Belmont Avenue, a large public drive which intersects the grounds, will be closed to travel, and the enclosure fence will be completed. From the 1st of April, most probably, the public will be excluded rigorously from the grounds, and the work of installation begun in earnest. The more I compare the state of things at Vienna with the condition of the Centennial, the more I am convinced that the managers of the present enterprise have it perfectly in hand. In fact, there seems to be but one source from which to apprehend delay, and that is tardiness on the part of exhibitors in forwarding their goods. If manufacturers could be induced to begin at once the shipment of at least their heavier and bulkier articles, the Director-General and his hard-working associates would, I know, feel much relieved. They would then see their way rid of every shadow of a doubt. Circulars and messages have already been sent out urging haste. I feel it to be only my duty, therefore, to do what little I can in the cause, and to beg every exhibitor whom these words may reach to "hurry up."

It may seem inconsistent with the opening remarks of this letter to add that the grounds are already in excellent order. What I mean is this—that, although the grass and some of the walks are soft under foot, the frost is entirely out, and a fortnight of dry wind will remove all traces of dampness. Even now the main walks and drives leave little to be desired, and there is no real discomfort except when one tries to save time by short cuts over the grass. The artificial lake in front of the Machinery Hall has an almost finished look; the masonry is in perfect order, and the ground, having been highly manured, will soon begin to put forth a bright green. A swan or two on the lake would do away with the appearance of newness. The terrace around the Memorial Hall is in great part graded, and the stone steps leading up to it on the south side are laid. The statues to right and left of the steps are also in position. There is a good deal of work still to be done in this vicinity in the way of sodding, gravelling, laying-out walks, and removing unsightly débris. But assuming the labor of construction to be over by April 1, the six weeks to May 10 will be an ample allowance of time for the finishing touches. Around Lauber's Restaurant, Horticultural Hall, and Agricultural Hall scarcely anything more is required than the removal of some boards and the laying down of a few walks. If the present mild weather continues, the trees and vegetation here will be in a remarkably advanced condition by the opening day. The State Buildings near the United States Buildings are backward, but, on the other hand, the offices of the English Commission are almost ready for occupancy, and the Japanese have their house and bazaar far under way. In general, it is evident that the builders have been highly favored by the weather, and have worked very steadily, "without haste and without rest."

A Department of Public Security, as it may be called, has been organized, and will be placed in charge of Col. Starr as marshal. This department comprises the police (and detective) force, more immediately under Col. Starr's supervision; the fire brigade, under Mr. Atwood Smith; telegraphs, under Mr. Phillips; and medical attendance, under Dr. Pepper.

Concerning the Department of Education, which is doubtless of special interest to the readers of the *Nation*, I may add that the State of Pennsylvania will exhibit in a separate building, 100 feet by 100 feet; Maine, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Connecticut, Rhode Island, New Jersey, Ohio, Michigan, Indiana, Illinois, Iowa, Missouri, Kentucky, Tennessee, and Wisconsin will exhibit in the main building, chiefly in the gallery, 350 feet by 24, which has been laid out in sections of 25 feet. It is also possible that Massachusetts may decide to erect a separate building.

It may not be safe or fair to give an opinion of the Centennial in its ensemble at this early day. The next two months will probably develop a great many novel features of beauty and merit, and give the exhibition an air of finish which it does not yet possess. Nevertheless, I venture to say this much in advance of the season: The Centennial will not afford any one view so imposing as that of the Rotunda at Vienna from the southern entrance. It will not have any one building so unique as the Khedive's Palace—any one private exhibition so complete and artistically arranged as those of Prince Schwarzenberg and the Duke of Coburg. Neither will there be any one part of the grounds so perfectly attractive as the Mozart Circle and the upper end of Elizabeth Avenue. Yet the Centennial grounds, *as a whole*, will probably prove much more picturesque and less wearisome to the eye and foot, and the buildings will be more convenient of access, and will display their contents to better advantage.

I take the liberty of calling attention to one point of great practical importance. There will not be restaurants enough, I fear, for the large numbers of visitors confidently expected. On the map of the Vienna Exhibition are laid down eighteen restaurants, without counting soda-water stands, buffets, and lunch-counters. My impression is that there were three or four more, not entered on the map. Some of these restaurants were small, and some did not have a very profitable business. Others, again (notably the Liesinger Brewery), were larger than any at Philadelphia, and were uncomfortably crowded. The latest plan of the Centennial grounds enumerates only eight restaurants. These would not have sufficed for the daily attendance at Vienna. How they are to be made to accommodate the much greater attendance expected here is more than I can see. Besides, the three largest are rather close together in that part of the grounds near Agricultural Hall—in other words, remote from the chief centre of attraction. There seems to be a decided necessity for three or four good-sized restaurants, one or two at the eastern end of the Main Building, one at the western end of Machinery Hall, and one near the United States Building.

The programme for the opening day has not yet been settled in all its details, but will probably be as follows: The exercises are to be held in the open air and to be short and simple in their nature. There will be an ode by Mr. Bayard Taylor, a cantata by Mr. Sidney Lanier, some other music, instrumental and vocal, a very brief address of welcome to President Grant, and an equally brief response. In conclusion, a formal tour of inspection by the President and suite. When they reach the centre of Machinery Hall the Corliss engine is to be set in motion. The reader can judge how far we are ahead of Vienna in point of time when I add that the Machinery Hall there was not in running order before June. The time occupied in music and speaking will probably not exceed three-quarters of an hour. Altogether, the exercises will be plain, I might say democratic, and quite unlike the dress-coat and kid-glove affair of Vienna, which was a sort of court-reception.

MR. DISRAELI'S SURPRISES.

LONDON, February 22, 1876.

MR. DISRAELI prepared with some ingenuity a couple of surprises in the Queen's Speech, the one to dazzle the Philistines on whose active sympathy he confidently calculates, the other to get himself and his Administration out of a serious difficulty. The solemn announcement that the Queen deemed the present a fitting opportunity for making a formal addition to her style and titles in respect that the direct government of India had been transferred to the Crown some twenty years ago, has been received with acclamation by all the retired shopkeepers and villa-occupiers in England, and with regret by everybody else. Any trifle regarding royalty, even an unveracious scrap of news picked up by fashionable prints through the servants' hall, is read with interest by many well-to-do Englishmen and Englishwomen. A morsel of gossip about the precedency of the Duchess of Edinburgh, or the domestic doings of the Marquis of Lorne and the Princess Louise, is greedily devoured by these people. This sort of thing delights them and engrosses them more than the gravest piece of political intelligence. No one knows this better than Mr. Disraeli. Whether it be due to the insight of genius or to some obscurer cause, I do not know, but it is an undoubted fact that the creator of Mr. and Mrs. Putney Giles has a keener appreciation than most people of what will take with that numerically not insignificant class of Britons to which Mr. Thackeray has assigned the name of Snob. Years ago, when the present Prime Minister of England was a clerk in a solicitor's office, he displayed this peculiarity of his genius. He used to come down to his office, the story goes, day after day, and sit there listlessly reading Spenser's 'Faery Queen.' He had no turn for parchment deeds and musty documents, and, but for regard for his family, the head of the firm would have parted with him before his apprenticeship was over. But there came a turn in the tide of his fortunes. The firm was called upon to draw up prospectuses for companies, and by good luck it fell to the listless student of the 'Faery Queen' to try his hand on these. He acquitted himself to perfection. He turned the sentences and threw out the baits to catch the British Philistine of the day with an adroitness that charmed and amazed the head of the firm, who, no doubt, good man, was caught himself. And from that day to this, during a full half-century of time, Mr. Disraeli has been drawing prospectuses with an experienced hand, and dazzling Philistines with increased success. Just consider the various incidents with which Mr. Disraeli's name has been prominently associated during the last five or six years—the coining of the phrase, "Sanitas

sanitatum omnia sanitas"; the Bath letter; the reference to the "Straits of Malacca" in his address to the Buckinghamshire electors; the support of a "bill to put down Ritualism"; the telegram announcing that the Messrs. Rothschild had bought the "road to India"; and now the "formal addition to the style and titles" of the Queen. What are these but so many paragraphs or marks of exclamation in Mr. Disraeli's political prospectuses?

Analyze these emotional interjections, or analyze the whole of Mr. Disraeli's political life, and you will find it all of a piece—all tinsel, and spangles, and theatrical effects. Analyze his novels, and you will find the same ingredients. He is well aware that this artificial glitter, when applied to politics, acts upon the half-educated Briton who vegetates in a villa like a gaudy fly thrown over a sluggish salmon in a pool. The salmon cannot resist it, neither can the Briton. Sensible people in America must read with amazement, not unmixed with something like contempt, discussions in Parliament, like that of last Thursday, on the propriety of the Queen calling herself by this title or by that. The whole proceeding must have an air of unreality, almost of servility, about it in the eyes of your hard-headed, practical people. When the paragraph in the Queen's Speech upon the subject was read in solemn silence at one of the official dinners the night before Parliament opened, whether at the Duke of Richmond's or at Lord Granville's I do not know, a young peer was overheard to say in a loud whisper "Queen of England and Begum of India," amid the inextinguishable laughter of the assembled magnates. That light-hearted sally represents, not unfairly, the feeling of the majority of sensible people whom you meet. Mr. Disraeli, they say, having created three dukes, which is one more than any other prime minister ever managed, is insatiable. He now wishes to create an empress before he dies, and accordingly has taken the opportunity of making royalty ridiculous. The matter was unconsciously brought to its proper proportions in the discussion when Sir George Campbell suggested that the Queen should be regarded as the Great Mogul, and the Indian princes as the Great Maccallum. People feel that an error has been made in mooting the point at all, an error in taste which it is difficult to put right. The whole thing would be too silly if it were not for the certainty that the private feelings of a lady whom we all, as loyal subjects, love and respect must be hurt by the proceedings. But it is, to say the least of it, unfortunate that the Prime Minister should have been induced to initiate a discussion in which the name and dignities of the Queen could be held up to ridicule, both in the House of Commons and in the press—unintended ridicule, I do not doubt, but none the less unpleasing. And this manœuvre of the Prime Minister's is the more distasteful at the present time when we have, within a few days' sail of us, one of the greatest nations in the world glorying in its untitled grandeur; when our gigantic dependencies are flourishing without a shadow of these unmeaning formalities; and when, across the Channel, that nation which has identified imperialism with suppression of liberty, with profligate public expenditure, and with bloody and unsuccessful war, is struggling to emancipate itself from the dead weight of sham splendor which an empire imposed upon it. We all love our Queen. We respect our Queen's hereditary titles, which are associated with most that is great in British history, and we desire that these titles should be respected by foreign powers and foreign peoples; but we do not desire that she should add to these titles for no possible object but to gratify a whim, or please the vanity of one whom, with all his ability, we can never regard as a true-born Englishman.

The second surprise which Mr. Disraeli prepared for us was the announcement that a Royal Commission was to be issued to enquire into matters of international law on the question of slavery, which one would have supposed ought to have been within the cognizance of the Government of the day. I have hitherto refrained from mentioning those unfortunate slave circulars in my letters, because I have found myself at variance with most people about them. The motives which prompted the issue of some kind of instructions for the guidance of naval officers in the territorial waters of slaveholding states are intelligible enough. It is out of the question to suppose that British ships-of-war are to lie in friendly ports and act the part of cities of refuge for the reception of any natives who disapprove of the law of the land in which they unfortunately live. With all our national anxiety to set all men free, we have found ourselves compelled to bear with the institution of domestic slavery in certain states with which we have entered into treaty. How can we, with one hand, sign a treaty recognizing this institution, and with the other provide the means for its destruction, and employ our ships as slave-escapes? This country has taken a different view of the matter. The constituencies here got it into their heads that we are accepting slavery, and giving up the battle for which many good men at the end of the last and at the beginning of this century struggled nobly. Agitators and popularity-hunting members of Parliament and well-meaning philanthropists have fanned the popular excitement on the subject, and the Government have pusillanimously thrown over their law-officers and their under-secretaries and fled before the public wrath. They learned that the borough members who sit on their side of the House were alarmed, and were unable to give them their wonted support; and hence the appointment of this Commission, which will give the Government an avenue of escape. *Punch*—which, by the way, has of late been singularly happy in its political cartoons—has neatly delineated the situation. Mr. Disraeli appears as a mountebank conjurer—not the first time he has been represented as a mountebank—doing the "Extinguisher Trick." "Here," he observes, "you perceive 'Fugitive Slave Circular' number two, number one having disappeared already. I now take this cone into my hand. It resembles an extinguisher, and is called a 'Royal Commission.' I place it over the 'Circular,' and—hey, presto!—on raising it again 'Circular' number two *will have disappeared.*" Can you imagine Mr. Gladstone, or that fine old Englishman, Lord Palmerston, whose last twenty years of political life have just been published, acting the craven in this manner? I cannot, and I do not know the man who can. But be that as it may, the appointment of the Commission will stave off immediate disaster. The members have been named, and they are undoubtedly well selected. Their report will be looked for with much interest, especially by those who are out of harmony with the popular feeling on the subject. But the vacillating conduct of the Government in regard to these circulars cannot be too strongly censured. Mr. Whitbread, the member for Bedford, and a man of great weight with the Liberal party, has given notice of something very like a vote of censure, which comes on for discussion to-morrow night, and will lead to a protracted debate of several days. There will be some hard hitting on both sides and some powerful speaking. There will also be a good deal both of cant and rant. The Government will ride off on the Commission, and win a House-of-Commons victory with the half of their majority. But the debate will tell in the constituencies. It will not be difficult to show that the Government acted carelessly or ignorantly in issuing the first Circular; culpably in issuing the second, when their attention had been emphatically directed to the feeling of the country, to which they have now succumbed; and pusillanimously in shrinking from their own action, and shirking responsibility when they found that their supporters were as timid as themselves. So much for Mr. Disraeli's two "surprises." Perhaps it would have been better for the stability of his Administration if he had satisfied his soul with commonplace.

THE FRENCH REPUBLIC BEGUN.

PARIS, February 25, 1876.

YOU must not expect me to speak to-day of Dumas's new play, "L'Etrangère," or of the new American drama called the "Chevaliers de la patrie," in which I saw an Abraham Lincoln very different from the Lincoln whom I had seen in Washington. The new elections are the all-absorbing topic, and their importance for the future of France is such that it is impossible to think long of anything else.

Last night, while the various tableaux of the new American drama were unfolded before me, while I heard the pompous speeches of Abraham Lincoln receiving his visitors, I could not help thinking that the American Republic was as different from our new Republic as this actor Lincoln from the actual Lincoln. The actor may be some day a member of a "Comité central de la Commune," as many of his comrades were in 1871; he would only continue to play on another stage. There always seems to me to be a certain want of reality in all our political manifestations. During the two weeks which preceded the elections in Paris there were all sorts of public meetings. The men who appeared in them, were they not actors? Their bombastic eloquence did not seem to cover any deep feelings. You saw everywhere the same actors and the same people who wanted a little excitement and amusement. There was no platform to explain or to defend; all the candidates were republican, and the Republic has not yet lived long enough that there should be two parties equally ready to govern but with different and definite views. The last Assembly voted a republican constitution; it could hardly be discussed now in its details—the revision of the constitution can only take place after a certain time. There was, therefore, hardly anything to talk about, yet such a flood of turbid eloquence never rolled over the capital. In order to stir their audience, the popular orators had no need of promoting views of administration and of government; they all struck the same chord—the amnesty chord. The people whom they addressed were the very men who had cheered the Commune in 1871, and who, if they did not fight on the ramparts at Neuilly, received the pay of *fédérés* during the whole reign of the Commune. Amnesty in

their eyes is not an act of generosity and of pardon, it is the glorification of the Commune. It was always easy for a speaker at these public meetings to be applauded if he only abused the Versailles Assembly. Though the Assembly founded the Republic, it was always called clerical, reactionary, etc.; the real reason of its unpopularity lies in the fact that the Versailles Assembly vanquished the Commune.

This is also the real danger for Marshal MacMahon; he is now receiving the official marks of respect of those who must bow before the President of the Republic. But he is the man who reorganized the poor prisoners coming from Germany, who formed them into regiments again, who would not lend himself to the timid counsels of the men of the 4th of September, who re-entered Paris by force, and crushed the Commune with his strong hand. Can he like this word amnesty? He lost eight thousand of his men—good, honest French soldiers—in the long siege of Paris. Will they be amnestied? Will the hostages be amnestied? I was always of opinion that too much severity was exercised towards the foolish and ignorant instruments of the Commune, and too much leniency shown to the wicked men who were its chiefs and instigators. I can quite conceive that the Minister of the Navy, who has supreme authority over New Caledonia, should pardon as many unfortunate insurgents as possible; but individual cases of pardon are not what Victor Hugo, what our Radicals ask for. They want a general amnesty, an unconditional surrender of the Government and of MacMahon before the survivors of the Commune; they want Rochefort to be seen in Paris and to carry his *Lanterne* on the boulevards. Under this word amnesty lies a very deep question, which is only one of the formulas of the problem of the day. Will the Republic be conservative, or will it be radical, socialistic, communistic? The problem is all the more formidable inasmuch as these words are themselves vague and elastic. Every man is always a radical for one and a moderate for another. What is going on beneath this war of words is a dangerous war of instincts—what Mr. Darwin would call the struggle for life. It is the eternal war of the Revolution against the past. It seemed as if there was nothing more in France for the Revolution to destroy. It has destroyed the traditional monarchy; it has destroyed the old aristocracy; it has destroyed the influence of the church; it has destroyed, by the articles of the Civil Code, and sometimes by confiscation, the "grande propriété"; it has established the most absolute equality that the world ever saw anywhere; it has, finally, given the political power to direct universal suffrage; but it seems as if all this was not enough. There are still some poor among us, and still some rich. The fields of the country are cut up and divided in every generation; but there are still large fields and small fields. The socialistic ideas which have long pervaded the towns have, it seems, made some headway in the rural districts. Some of the men who made this last electoral campaign tell me that it is surprising to find what the one-sou papers have done in the country. They have been astonished to find that the poorest servants on the farms now take an interest in politics; the peasant who has increased his small piece of land with borrowed money is jealous of the peasant who owns a few more hectares. My friends tell me that there is much jealousy in the smallest village between those who have more land and those who have less; and that by some natural instinct of mankind all the malcontents vote the Republican ticket.

Now, if this be so, it will be always, and even under the most favorable circumstances, very difficult for a republican leader to form and constitute a conservative party. If adhesion to the Republican party has ever been the outward expression of discontent, disappointment, and envy, so soon as the Republican party shall be thought to have a quiet tenure of power the malcontents will be ready to give ear to some new tempter. And the danger of the future lies in the fact that this tempter exists. There is a party which professes as much love as even the Republicans do for the people, for universal suffrage; which professes contempt for the so-called privileged classes, for the old nobility, for the egotistical bourgeoisie: it is the Bonapartist party. The Bonapartist deputies will in the Senate as well as in the Lower Chamber assume the position which was held in the National Assembly by the Right; and they will besides speak as the friends of the people, the representatives of the democracy. Their minority will be the focus of the Conservative party. This result is much to be regretted, for the Bonapartists have so far found no favor at all with Marshal MacMahon. He said to one of the Bonapartist leaders some time ago: "You reproach me with my indifference to your cause, but I know only my duty. I am mounting guard for order. All the traditions of my family, all my own personal inclinations, drew me towards the cause of the legitimate monarchy. Still, at the very moment when the cause of the Comte de Chambord seemed on the point of triumphing, when the legitimate king had but one word to say to be proclaimed the sovereign of this country, I remained perfectly quiet and neutral. I did not discourage, but I did not encourage, the fusion. I did nothing for the Comte de Chambord. How can you expect me to do something for the Prince Imperial? Can I forget Sedan, if everybody else should?"

Marshal MacMahon may not be a brilliant political genius, but he is an honest and patriotic man. What will he do if he finds himself unable to stop the tide of demagogy; if all the conservative laws passed by the late Assembly are repealed; if amnesty is proclaimed? At the present moment he is perfectly willing to try the Moderate Republicans and to give them a fair chance. It was the last advice given him by M. Buffet, whom history will judge more leniently than the irate parties which combined against him. M. Buffet, if I am well informed, said to him: "Go as far Left as you can conscientiously do; I am done for; I have not been understood; call the men who have represented me in the eyes of the people as the enemy of the constitution which I was the first to organize and to protect, and tell them to govern after their own fashion. If they can find a majority in the Chambers, if they can make a respectable government, I shall be happier than anybody, and from my retirement I will send them my best wishes." The Marshal has appointed M. Dufaure to take the place of M. Buffet, and the administration of M. Dufaure will soon be at work. It is said that Gambetta meant at first to support it: he says openly in his paper that he has no intention of upsetting Marshal MacMahon. He may be himself now in a moderate mood, and half afraid of his own triumph; but will he be capable of enforcing a moderate policy on his own party—will he be able to satisfy the rancor of M. Thiers, who wishes before he dies to take his revenge for the 24th of May?

Time will soon answer these questions. One thing is certain: the fair trial of the true Republic has now begun, and it will be for the Republicans to show that they are capable of conducting the affairs of the country. They will find no obstacle in the Legitimist party—the Legitimists are now out of the field; nor in the Orleanists—they have taken refuge in silence or have swollen the ranks of the Constitutional party. Their only open enemies will be the Bonapartists; and universal suffrage, which has always been the hope of the Bonapartes, has just loudly proclaimed its verdict against them. Whatever may be said of the government which France has had during the past two years, it must be admitted that this government, which was lately personified in M. Buffet, has increased the prosperity of the country and maintained material order. France has revived, and her finances have never been so prosperous. The army has been reorganized with a wonderful activity, and would now be much readier for new struggles than it was in 1870. It can also be said that liberty has, on the whole, been respected; the late elections were as free as any elections which ever took place in France. The state of siege had, to be sure, been maintained since the Commune in Paris, Lyons, and Marseilles, but the press was completely free, and the triumph of the Radicals in these great towns shows that they have been crushed nowhere and that they have been left at liberty to keep up a pacific agitation.

Correspondence.

CAN NOTHING BE DONE?

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The recent scandals at Washington are deplorable enough, but they will be still more deplorable if their only result proves to be the revival of the prospects of Democratic success, justly forfeited by the admitted incompetency, in Congress and elsewhere, of that party under its present leadership.

For several years each party has based its claims to power not on its endeavors to deserve public confidence, but on its efforts to prove that its antagonist is more dangerous than itself, and popular majorities have fluctuated not from conviction of the merits of the temporarily successful organization, but from well-founded dread of the other. Every intelligent voter has felt that he had but a choice of evils, and he has chosen the one which seemed at the moment to be the least. Should this continue, it requires no prophet to foretell the result in the near future.

The average voter is rapidly becoming independent to a degree unexampled in the experience of the present generation, and the demand for purity of administration is taking in his mind the place of the ordinary partisan war-cries. The Babcock and Belknap developments—to be followed no doubt by others equally flagrant—will intensify this demand enormously, and will present an opportunity which it would be insane to throw away.

The gravest public question of the moment is, What use will be made of it?

The fiasco of the Cincinnati Convention showed sufficiently, I think, the futility of an effort to construct a third party. At the same time, to do nothing is to invite the Democracy to offer some old "war-horse" for the suffrage of the disgusted Republican. Cannot, however, some movement be started to organize the independent voters of both parties into a body strong enough to turn the scale either way, which shall say emphatically to the Republican and Democratic managers alike that the only prospect of success lies in presenting candidates worthy of confidence?

I throw this out as a suggestion of what seems to me the only mode of bringing to bear decisively the healthy public opinion which unquestionably exists at present. Both parties just now would respect such a movement, and would exert themselves to secure its support or to avert its opposition.

Very respectfully, HENRY C. LEA.

PHILADELPHIA, March 6, 1876.

RESIGNATION AND IMPEACHMENT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The Constitution of the United States provides in article 1, section 2, clause 5, that the House of Representatives "shall have the sole power of impeachment," and in section 3 as follows:

"6. The Senate shall have the sole power to try all impeachments. When sitting for that purpose, they shall be on oath or affirmation. When the President of the United States is tried, the Chief-Justice shall preside. And no person shall be convicted without the concurrence of two-thirds of the members present.

"7. Judgment in cases of impeachment shall not extend farther than to removal from office, and disqualification to hold and enjoy any office of honor, trust, or profit under the United States; but the party convicted shall nevertheless be liable and subject to indictment, trial, judgment, and punishment according to law."

And the Constitution contains in article 2, section 4, this additional provision:

"The President, Vice-President, and all civil officers of the United States shall be removed from office on impeachment for, and conviction of, treason, bribery, or other high crimes and misdemeanors."

Before and at the time of the convention that framed the Constitution, an impeachment before the Lords by the Commons, in Great Britain, in Parliament, was a prosecution of known and established law, and had been frequently put in practice against persons *who had ceased to hold office*. Before and during all the time that convention was sitting the prosecution was pending against Warren Hastings, *although he had resigned his office*. His resignation was in February, 1785. In the House of Commons, on the 4th of April, 1786, charges were exhibited against him. The resignation of his office did not prevent the House of Commons from impeaching him, nor prevent the House of Lords from trying the issue of guilty or not guilty.

When Mr. Justice Story, in his commentaries on the Constitution, alluded to that case in Vol. II., sec. 795, he had not seen how it was mentioned in the convention, those commentaries having been published several years before the publication of the Madison papers.

These papers show that on the 8th of September, 1787, when the convention had before it the clause providing for the President's removal from office on impeachment and conviction of treason and bribery, Col. Mason said: "Why is the provision restrained to treason and bribery only? Treason as defined in the Constitution will not reach many great and dangerous offences. Hastings is not guilty of treason" (Elliot's 'Madison Papers,' p. 528).

This reference to the case of Hastings being followed by an amendment embracing "other high crimes and misdemeanors" (besides treason and bribery), it is difficult to suppose that with that case present to their minds, and made the grounds of action, the framers of the Constitution intended that a civil officer of the United States should by resigning his office take away from one house the power to impeach, or from the other house the power to try impeachments, when the resignation of Hastings had no such effect. Such a supposition is the more difficult in view of the fact that those framers introduced safeguards and limitations when they saw occasion for them—*safeguards* prescribing that when the Senate sit for the purpose, they shall be on oath or affirmation, that when the President is tried, the Chief-Justice shall preside, and that there shall be no conviction without the concurrence of two-thirds of the members present; and upon the judgment this important *limitation*, that it "shall not extend farther than to removal from office, and disqualification to hold and enjoy any office of honor, trust, or profit under the United States."

Though resignation of office should be regarded as attaining all that could be attained by a judgment of "removal from office," yet it does not attain all that could be attained by a judgment of "disqualification to hold and enjoy any office of honor, trust, or profit under the United States."

Though the party is "liable and subject to indictment, trial, judgment, and punishment according to law," yet the effect of such indictment and proceedings therein might be less than the effect of judgment in case of impeachment: the President has "power to grant reprieves and pardons for offences against the United States, *except in cases of impeachment*."

C. R.

March 7, 1876.

Notes.

A. S. BARNES & CO. have assumed the publication, by subscription only, of Mrs. Martha J. Lamb's new 'History of the City of New York,' in 2 vols.——James Miller will republish in this country 'Letters from Elizabeth Barrett Browning and the Author of 'Orion',' with recollections of contemporaries, by R. H. Horne.——J. B. Lippincott & Co. have in press 'Elementary Physical Geography' and 'Elementary Astronomy,' by Richard A. Proctor; and 'America Discovered by the Welsh, in 1170 A.D.,' by Rev. Benj. F. Bowen.——F. B. Patterson, 32 Cedar Street, will shortly publish 'How to Steady our Dollar,' by Dr. James C. Hallock, jr.——Following the example of *Harper's*, with its fifty-volume index, we are promised a ten-volume index of *Scribner's* by the publishers of the latter magazine.——'A History of my Life and Times,' by the veteran George Cruikshank, is announced as in preparation, and will be eagerly looked for on both sides of the Atlantic.——Geo. P. Rowell & Co., the well-known advertising agents, have undertaken to ensure "a full and complete exhibition of American newspapers" at the Centennial, at an estimated cost of $20,000 for the building and its equipment, salaries, and a catalogue of 300 pages in solid nonpareil type, which will serve both as a directory to the various files, and as a gazetteer, showing the importance of our towns and cities as gauged by the newspapers they sustain. The enterprise is as praiseworthy as it is bold, and will rank among the greatest novelties of this or any international exposition.——The lately published 'Proceedings of the American Antiquarian Society' at its annual meeting last October is made valuable by Dr. Charles Deane's account of the fortunate filling of a lacuna in the 'Records of the Council for New England' (June 28, 29, 1623), and by what we may call a memorandum on the criminal laws of Massachusetts, by Judge Aldrich. The aim of the latter paper is to show the amelioration of the penal code of the State, and to defend the present time against charges of unprecedented corruption and of a growing insecurity of life and property. This is so ably sketched that one is led to hope the author may find time to elaborate the subject.——Still another summer school is open to the student naturalist—a school of biology at the Peabody Academy, Salem, Mass. "Especial attention will be given to marine botany and zoölogy, as the advantages for dredging and shore collecting are most excellent." Only fifteen students can be admitted. Dr. A. S. Packard, jr., editor of the *American Naturalist*, will direct the school, and in particular the zoölogical instruction.——The Rev. Isaac Taylor's paper on the Etruscan Language has been reprinted from the Transactions of the Philosophical Society of Great Britain. Now that Corssen is generally acknowledged to have broken down with his Aryan hypothesis, Mr. Taylor speaks with the authority of a presumed "fittest survivor." Perhaps his argument savors something too much of authority and dogmatic assertion, but it is very ingenious, and one at least of his wood-cut illustrations—that of a Samoyed-like Etruscan warrior—lends weighty support to his view.——With the new year began the eleventh series (Heft 241) of Virchow and Holtzendorff's 'Sammlung gemeinverständlicher wissenschaftlicher Vorträge,' and the fifth of Holtzendorff and Oncken's 'Deutsche Zeit- und Streit-Fragen' (Berlin: Carl Habel). These two publications are among the most remarkable of the day. We have frequently had occasion to call attention to them, and we wish we could think that like selections from the best current writing—political, literary, and scientific—of our own country would find a popular acceptance. No healthier or less repulsive form of tract could be devised.

—It is announced that examinations for admission to Harvard College will hereafter be held in Cincinnati simultaneously with those in Cambridge. The advantage which this will give the college in attracting students, and

the great economy and convenience of it for candidates living west of the Alleghanies, are patent. But it will be perceived, we think, on reflection, that the proposed step has a much wider importance than a mere move in the competition of our colleges. Not only will Harvard, for example, become and be felt as a near instead of a distant rival of Oberlin and Antioch, but her examinations (which are published, together with the number of *rejected* as well as of successful applicants) will contrast with theirs in a manner which will inevitably set either their officers or the public, and probably both, to thinking. We apprehend, however, that these and other Western colleges will not be the first institutions affected by the innovation. A great and rather sudden change for the better may be looked for among the preparatory classical schools, of whatever name; and what has been observed in Michigan in this respect under the influence of the University at Ann Arbor, is certain to come about over a much wider area when a still higher standard is set up by Harvard. Parents will insist that their sons be fitted to pass her examinations, and the test of a good school or a good teacher will shortly be the percentage of pupils who do so pass. That the colleges will long lag behind the academies we do not think likely, and the level of education and scholarship throughout the West will thus be raised—insensibly it may be, but surely—by the simple attendance once or twice a year at Cincinnati of Harvard's examiners.

—If any one is sceptical of the results we have foreshadowed, we commend to him the perusal of a little pamphlet on 'The Influence of the Older English Universities on National Education,' by the Hon. George C. Brodrick, Fellow of Merton College, Oxford. It is a reprint of a paper read before the Social Science Congress at Brighton, last October. The author begins by offering some statistics to show that Matthew Arnold was in error when in 1868 he alleged that in England there was "but one matriculated student for every 5,800 of population," against one for every 2,600 in all Germany, while "Prussia alone numbered 6,362 students in its eight universities." Mr. Brodrick increases the ratio for England and Wales to 1 : 4500, exclusive of the students of academical age of theological naval and military, engineering, and other colleges. He proceeds to argue that the practical influence of the older universities is not to be measured merely by the number of their students. Even when their number "was much smaller than it is at present, Oxford and Cambridge virtually governed the whole course of higher education throughout England. . . . Every school of reputation professed, above all, to prepare boys for the Universities, and, notwithstanding that only a small minority of boys actually proceeded thither, the instruction of all the rest was limited and fettered by University requirements"—a remark which has an obvious bearing on the probable working of Harvard's examinations at the West. Now that the Universities have begun to broaden their curriculum and have undertaken "the office of Examining Boards on a very large scale, they have strengthened to an extraordinary degree their former hold on secondary education. . . . It is not too much to say that by forming this widespread network of examinations and occupying the centre of it, the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge have virtually made themselves arbiters of learning over the great mass of schools above the elementary grade, and assumed some of the most important functions exercised by the Ministry of Education in other countries." Mr. Brodrick further points out that the Universities supply the leading public schools with trained masters; that "the great body of clergymen and of barristers, all the bishops, and nearly two-thirds of the judges, are alumni of English or Irish universities." Even more than in this country, and *ex-officio*, the clergy educated at the Universities "are the sole representatives of learning in most country parishes," and manage the great majority of parochial schools not under school boards. The Education Office is almost wholly manned from Oxford and Cambridge; "out of 123 school-inspectors for Great Britain, all but two or three are university men." They predominate on the staff of the Civil-Service Commission, and in the "whole administrative and political service of the state we find graduates of the older Universities filling high positions in a ratio out of all proportion to their numbers." More than a third of the present House of Commons were educated at Oxford and Cambridge alone, as were ten out of Mr. Gladstone's original Cabinet of fifteen, and are ten out of Mr. Disraeli's twelve—he being the only minister who has not received a university education. What the press owes to Oxford and Cambridge men for its characteristics may be guessed but cannot be exactly determined.

—Mr. Brodrick next considers the nature and tendency of the influence of the Universities on national education. "So long," he says, "as Oxford and Cambridge were treated as clerical seminaries rather than as national seats of learning and education, it was not to be expected that any kind of attainment would be effectively encouraged within them except such as might conduce to success in the clerical profession." Consequently, as the schools followed the lead of the Universities, "the whole educational growth of the country was dwarfed and stunted by the dogmatic immobility of institutions which ought to have been foremost in every advance of knowledge." The spell of ecclesiastical ascendency has, within the present generation, been markedly weakened, but there is yet a "want of what the Germans call freedom in learning and freedom in teaching." "Students"—this reads like an extract from one of President Eliot's reports—"might be left at liberty to pursue a special line of study from their first entrance to the University, and yet be subjected to as much control, both intellectual and moral, as may be thought desirable without forcing their various tastes and abilities into conformity with any Procrustean model. In a word, there may be a common basis of university training with an inexhaustible variety of university teaching; a certain family likeness and freemasonry among university men, with the greatest possible individuality of thought and multiplicity of accomplishments." We are again reminded of Harvard when we read: "It is admitted on all hands that without an effective extrance examination to exclude those who have not mastered even the rudiments of a liberal education, and to defeat the conspiracy of bad schoolmasters with bad college tutors, neither University can discharge its proper functions." We can do no more than allude to Mr. Brodrick's plan of enhancing the influence of the older Universities "by affiliating existing local institutions, by founding local University Colleges, or by otherwise colonizing the provinces from Oxford and Cambridge." His views are not without interest and instruction for us, but their application is still rather remote.

—Anything is of general interest that casts light on the way of working of so famous a scholar and critic as Max Müller; and this is especially the case at the present time, when his threat to abandon England and move back his "German workshop" to its native soil is drawing out the renewed and heightened adulation of the English press. A recent incident, now, illustrates in a rather striking manner his critical method. Müller has repeatedly made and urged against the "editors and contributors" to the great Sanskrit lexicon, completed last year, the charge that they are a "mutual-admiration society." In order probably to help correct the evil effects of their mutual flattery, he breaks out, in the preface to his last 'Rig-Veda' volume, with the following reproach: "Why are not such technical terms as *gîtin*, *'sirahkampin*, etc., given in the Petersburg Dictionary?" To this the editors reply, in their concluding preface: "In our dictionary a great deal is wanting, but these particular words are not wanting. They are in their proper place, properly explained, and each referred to the only known place of its occurrence. We might therefore ask on our part, How can any one find fault so wantonly?" In a late number of the London *Academy* (February 12) Müller explains himself, and covers the unsubmissive editors with confusion. He styles their answer a "petty remark," which they will hereafter sorely regret having made. He is sure that, if they had only studied carefully his criticism, they would have seen that nothing was farther from his thoughts than to intimate that *gîtin* and *'sirahkampin* were not to be found in their work. All the point of his objection lay in the "etc.," which was intended to inculcate three things—1, That certain other compounds occurring in the same treatise with the words mentioned ought, "though everybody would understand their general meaning," to be noted in any future possible edition of the lexicon; 2, That such words ought to be given more distinctly the aspect of technical terms; and, 3, That they ought to be invariably referred to the treatise in which they originally occur, instead of in part to an intermediate source. Truly a wonderful abbreviation, this "etc."! There are few living writers who can use the English language with such pregnant significance. Perhaps there is nothing in universal literature to be compared to it, except the Hindu *aum*, in the three letters of which the devout Brahman believes the whole of divine truth to be wrapped up. Only, to avoid such misapprehensions as this of which the editors of the lexicon have been guilty, Müller should, like some of the Hindu authors, accompany his text with an authoritative comment, pointing out that when he seems to say one thing he really means several other and very different things.

—A recent work on the 'Genuineness of the Moabite Antiquities,' by Professors Kautzsch and Socin, of Basel, has moved a writer in the *Athenæum* of Feb. 26 to commiserate to the length of a column and more the simplicity of the unfortunate individuals and government who have been duped by these "antiquities," and especially of the two writers named. He would not speak unkindly of their work, but at the same time he has "rarely met with so remarkable an instance of misapplied labor." The pity he bestows upon

them is somewhat misplaced. The work in question is not a defence but a most overwhelming attack, which seems likely to give the finishing stroke to a reputation which was always poor. The writers have thoroughly sifted—with needless thoroughness, many will think—Prof. Socin the external evidence, the circumstances, of the alleged discovery; and Prof. Kautzsch the internal evidence, arising from the supposed religious use, the palæographic and archæological character, of these "abominations of Moab," as they have been termed (see also Ps. lx. 8). The conclusion at which they arrive amounts to this: on the one hand the external evidence is so suspicious that only the most undoubted internal proofs of genuineness can save them; on the other, their internal character is so bad that even the best of external evidence would hardly suffice to prove them innocent. Their case, we fear, must be given over. Prof. Kautzsch has had the rare fortune to gain admission to the collection which is so closely and sacredly guarded in Berlin. We suspect he is the first "unbeliever" to whom it has been opened. It is possible that the writer in the *Athenæum* read the book, as papers are sometimes read before learned societies, "by title," and barely that, for the full title, 'Die Ächtheit der moabitischen Alterthümer *geprüft*,' should have put him on his guard. It is more than likely that his slender knowledge of German led him to translate *geprüft* "proved." He is now doubtless receiving back in contributions from his friends the pity he so foolishly squandered on Professors Kautzsch and Socin, who "have evidently no acquaintance with even the rudiments of archæology."

—The supplementary catalogue of the great Berlin circulating library has just been issued, and, taken together with the last complete catalogue (published in 1874), affords curious statistics in more than one branch of literature. We have found it especially curious as a list of the relative fame and worth of American authors. To appreciate the value of the test, it must be borne in mind that in Germany libraries for the general public do not exist, and that circulating libraries are very few and are the better patronized on that account. The catalogue is divided into the departments of "Belletristik" and "Wissenschaftliche Werke," and professes to embrace "die neuesten Erscheinungen und das Beste aus allen Zweigen der Literatur." The following is the American contingent in Belles-lettres: T. B. Aldrich, two works; H. W. Beecher, one ('Norwood'); Emerson Bennett, five; Brockden Brown, two; Alice Cary, one; Sylvanus Cobb, two; J. Esten Cooke, three; Cooper, thirty-one; Miss Cummins, four; Emerson, one ('Die Führung des Lebens'); "Fanny Fern," one; Bret Harte, three; Hawthorne, two ('Blithedale,' 'Das Sieben Giebel-Haus' [*sic*]); Holmes, one ('Elsie Venner'); Longfellow, three; Irving, one; Poe, two; Miss Sedgwick, one; Mrs. Southworth, twelve (51 vols.); Mrs. A. S. Stephens, eight (26 vols.); Mrs. Stowe, five; Bayard Taylor, two ('Hannah Thurston,' 'Kennett'); Miss Warner, eight; N. P. Willis, one ('Komische Geschichten'); Theodore Winthrop, one. As representing all other branches of literature, we encounter: Bancroft, three volumes of his history; Samuel Bowles, one; J. Ross Browne, one; H. C. Carey, one; J. W. Draper, two; Irving, two ('Granada' and 'Washington'); Dr. Kane, one; Prescott, one; Bayard Taylor, two. The library does not include works on natural science, but one wonders whether as regards the rest of our literature the German public is fulfilling the office of posterity. And again, are we to suppose that the German writers now so popular with the American public—the Marlitts and Werners and Hillerns, are held in the same estimation at home as the Cobbs and Southworths and Stephenses are here?

—Having recently spoken somewhat slightingly of the first two volumes of Reinwald's 'Bibliothèque des Sciences Contemporaines,' it is proper not to be silent when a volume appears which merits commendation. Such a one is the 'Anthropologie' of Dr. P. Topinard, which forms the third of the series (New York: F. W. Christern). The natural history of man from the physical point of view has made such immense strides in the last few years, and in one way or another its garbled results have become matters of such popular allusion (if not comprehension), that a compendium which shall accurately present the zoölogical, ethnological, and archæological facts and results, but which shall at the same time not be unwieldy, will prove a true public benefaction. We think M. Topinard's duodecimo fills this lacuna very well. All the important matters seem to be there, stated so concisely, and at the same time so conscientiously, that we are almost reminded of a piece of German labor. Any one who reads this book will be able to see the bearings of nearly any special investigation on the subject. It is pleasant to notice how already in France the lessons of the war are beginning to show themselves in the intellectual field. There is a distinctly new tendency to stick to matter and facts in scientific writing, even if general phrases have to suffer. Even the bugbear of appearing pedantic has lost its horrors, and we see polyglot bibliographic references starting up on every side in French writings which a few years ago would have scandalized the worshippers of classic form, who always preferred, even if they remembered perfectly, to *say*, "Je ne sais quel auteur a dit," etc. Of course this is, considering all the circumstances, an exceedingly healthy tendency, and one which we can cheer on its way with a good conscience; for we need not fear that in France it will ever run to pernicious extremes, as in some respects it has done across the Rhine.

SIDGWICK'S METHODS OF ETHICS.*

II.

MR. SIDGWICK'S "system" (to use a term he probably will repudiate) consists in maintaining that the utilitarian doctrine that it is reasonable to pursue as an end the greatest happiness of mankind, is in effect equivalent to the fundamental moral axioms propounded as intuitive truths by Clarke and Kant. The subtlety and skill with which this result is worked out and the utilitarian dogma is, so to speak, shifted on to an intuitional basis, can be appreciated only by those who have studied Mr. Sidgwick's work. It is apparent, however, at a glance that the position he occupies has some great advantages. It enables him to do ample justice to the strongest and practically the most important of the doctrines of Benthamism, viz., that the tendency to produce happiness is the test of virtuous action. The amount of cumulative proof which can be produced in favor of this dogma, and the invalidity of the apparent objections to it, are exhibited by Mr. Sidgwick with a fulness and force which may more than satisfy the wishes of ardent utilitarians. Its importance consists in its leading to the result that when moral sentiments conflict, as they certainly will do from time to time, with views of general utility, it is the dictate of duty, no less than of reason, to train our moral feelings into harmony with our views of utility. Another advantage of Mr. Sidgwick's position is that he can give to utilitarianism all the support derived from the idea of duty and obedience to a moral law. The opposition, in fact, between Benthamism (as Mr. Sidgwick conceives of it) and intuitionalism vanishes away under his treatment, and the really fundamental opposition in ethics becomes that between "egoism," or the theory that it is rational for an individual to seek his own happiness, and the theory that the only course of action which approves itself to reason is that which aims at the happiness of mankind. On this point, which is to him a vital one, Mr. Sidgwick writes with unaccustomed indecision. "Against any identification or blending of Egoistic and Universalistic Hedonism, and even against any representation of their differences as secondary or subordinate, it seems very important to protest. . . . The contrast between Egoism and Altruism is at any rate one of the most fundamental that morality exhibits."

In one point of view this is a self-evident truth. No two rules of action, considered as advice for the conduct of an individual, can be more different than the rule "seek your own happiness" and the rule "seek the happiness of mankind"; and it does not need half Mr. Sidgwick's dialectical power to bring this fundamental contrast into a clear light. It is, however, impossible not to feel a misgiving that this central point of Mr. Sidgwick's position, which involves this opposition of "Egoism" and "Utilitarianism," may be liable to damaging attack at the hands of professed utilitarians who are prepared to maintain what may be termed the orthodox utilitarian doctrine, that every one seeks and must seek his own happiness. One fact is clear: utilitarians in general have not attempted to dissever the "egoistic" and the "universalistic" view of utilitarianism. Mr. Sidgwick's own complaint is that they have identified or blended the two methods. It is of course possible that the teachers of the utilitarian school have mistaken their own positions; still, that they should have done so is *prima facie* improbable, and the necessity that Mr. Sidgwick is under, so to speak, of breaking with his natural allies, suggests the idea that he may have to fight hard for his position. No man is more capable of maintaining his ground against all comers. His diffidence of expression, his studied fairness, his persistent maintenance of the attitude of a mere enquirer, conceal from careless critics his amazing aptitude for logical fence, and his extraordinary power of analysis, and above all his boundless argumentative resource and fertility. It is scarcely an exaggeration to say that if you will approach ethical problems from Mr. Sidgwick's point of view, you will find that scarcely a single train of reasoning which bears upon his topic has escaped his attention. The enormous number of arguments which crowd his pages in fact considerably injures the general effect. Of no writer is it more true

* 'The Methods of Ethics. By Henry Sidgwick, M.A., Lecturer and late Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge.' New York: Macmillan & Co.

that the "half" of his work would have been "more than the whole." The argument is constantly concealed by the mass of arguments. You cannot, as the saying goes, "see the wood for the trees." There is therefore not the least danger that he should not make a good fight for the ground he has taken up, and none but a very rash critic would venture to pronounce Mr. Sidgwick's position untenable. We, at any rate, have no wish to pronounce any decision on the subject; our object is simply to point out one of the lines of attack to which he seems to be exposed.

Let us suppose for a moment that a Benthamite who, like Austin, represented the narrowest but certainly the most consistent form of utilitarian doctrine, were to criticise Mr. Sidgwick's attempt to sever "Egoism" from Utilitarianism. His argument would, we conceive, take something of the following form: The opposition (he would urge) on which you dwell between the fundamental maxim of Egoism and the fundamental maxim of Utilitarianism arises from your treating the latter precept as if it were addressed primarily to an individual. It is in reality a maxim for the guidance of that mass of individuals which we call the state. Admit this, and there is no opposition between the two rules. "Seek your own happiness" is the rule which reason imperatively impresses on the individual. "Seek the greatest happiness for the greatest number" is equally the rule which reason suggests to a mass of individuals acting together. Reason suggests it just because each individual desires his own happiness; since there is no other course which secures to the mass of individuals an equal chance of securing the greatest lot of pleasure or happiness for each. Examples best exhibit what is meant. A hundred shareholders have equal shares in a joint-stock company. Each of them would like to get the greatest possible profit for himself; but just because of this the only rule for their collective action is to secure the greatest amount of profits for the company, *i.e.*, for all of them. A ship catches fire. Each member of the crew wishes to save his life. The captain shouts, Keep order and all or most of you will escape. The captain's advice is clearly the best which can be given, and based upon, not opposed to, each individual's private desire for life. Manifestly in each case the interest of individuals may conflict with that of the mass. The manager of the company tries to cheat the other shareholders, or a hulking blackguard attempts to force his way to the boats, crushing down his weaker companions. It were vain to call this conduct "irrational." The interest of the mass can only be protected by forcing individuals to conform to it. The manager is threatened with prosecution. The captain adds force to his utilitarian advice by giving notice that he will shoot any one through the head who breaks the ranks. This is precisely what on a Benthamite view is done by the state. The main object of legislation is by direct and still more by indirect means—which, it may be added, are infinitely more powerful than is generally conceived—to force individuals to pursue the general interest. But the ultimate motive for pursuing the general interest is that as far as the majority of men are concerned, the only mode of attaining the largest amount of individual happiness is to aim at the greatest happiness of the greatest number.

Of course no one would dream of putting forward these obvious considerations as thoughts which have escaped Mr. Sidgwick; they lie on the surface of the matter with which he deals. But they require attention because they suggest that, in order to effect a reconciliation between utilitarianism and intuitionalism, he has in fact altered the whole character of the utilitarian dogmas. A rational maxim of self-interest addressed to the state is transformed by him into a precept of self-sacrifice addressed to the individual. Unfortunately, what the maxim gains in moral elevation it loses in rational stability. Mr. Sidgwick, rejecting the support of "egoism," finds an admitted difficulty in pointing out to any one who does not admit the validity of a somewhat doubtful intuition the reasonable ground on which an individual is to pursue the precepts of philosophical utilitarianism. The last words of his book are "inevitable failure," and in its closing sentences he warns his readers—with a grandiloquence of which not a single other specimen is to be found in the 'Methods of Ethics'—of the peril that, if an unverifiable hypothesis be rejected, the "Cosmos of Duty" may be "reduced to a 'Chaos.'" This language recalls the tone in which certain political theorists announce that if their scheme of society be rejected we shall fall into the horrors of "anarchy." Anarchy, as represented by the unphilosophic prosperity of England or the United States, is a bearable condition of existence, and a hope suggests itself that the moral "chaos" which arises from the want of an absolutely coherent system of ethics may not greatly affect the moral prosperity either of mankind or of philosophers. There are, moreover, many steps between perfect order and chaos, and those who are not turned aside from the study of Mr. Sidgwick's work by the gloomy knell with which he quite unnecessarily gives melancholy to its close, will find that they obtain from it, if not a complete system, yet great help towards arranging their ethical ideas, and the still greater advantage which is always derived from the teaching of an author who sifts to the bottom a host of current notions, and devotes the whole power of a singularly original and subtle intellect, not to the maintenance of dogmas or paradoxes, but to the impartial pursuit of truth.

Le Nouvel Opéra. Par Charles Nuitter. With 59 woodcuts and 4 plans. 1875. (Paris: Librairie Hachette et Cie. Pp. 255.)—*Les Treize Salles de l'Opéra.* Par Albert de la Salle. 1875. (Paris: Librairie Sartorius. Pp. 315.)—*Histoire de l'Opéra.* Par Alphonse Royer. With 12 etchings. 1875. (Paris: Bachelin-Deflorenne; New York: F. W. Christern. Pp. vi.–238.)—The completion of an important national monument like the opera-house opened in Paris a year ago has naturally given occasion for the publication of entertaining monographs drawn from the annals of French musical drama. The scope of these different works can be seen in their titles. The first, by M. Charles Nuitter, who is now and has been for many years the archivist of the Opera, is a full account of the new building, from its inception to its completion, and may almost be considered official. The advocates of the paternal theory of government will be delighted to find it recorded in M. Nuitter's pages that the parental care of the executive went so far as to appoint a state commission to discuss the best method of scene-shifting. M. de la Salle describes the thirteen homes in which the musical theatre of France has been permanently or temporarily housed. The third volume, by the late Alphonse Royer, manager of the Opera from 1856 to 1862, is perhaps the most ambitious of the three. It is a history of the men and women who have succeeded each other upon the stage of the Opera; with an appendix containing lists of the managers and of the *chefs d'orchestre.* It is disfigured by etched portraits badly drawn, and printed upon thin, harsh paper, in marked contrast to the excellent woodcuts which illustrate M. Nuitter's text.

According to Voltaire, France owes her comedy and her opera to two cardinals. The assertion is not absolutely accurate, for while Richelieu was of material assistance to the earlier dramatists, credit is due to Mazarin only for suggestion. The success of a company of Italian singers imported by the cardinal to please Anne of Austria incited the Abbé Perrin to produce, in 1659, 'La Pastorale d'Issy,' with music by Cambert. Mazarin was disposed to encourage the new enterprise, but he died in 1661, and it was not until 1669 that Perrin received a royal patent according him a monopoly of the opera. This was soon revoked in favor of Lulli, the wily Italian, who is popularly believed to be the originator of French opera. Lulli, who had first attracted the attention of the king in one of Molière's pieces for which he had composed the music, opened the Opera in May, 1672, with a pastoral into which he had woven his musical interludes from 'Le Bourgeois Gentilhomme' and 'Georges Dandin.' The next year Molière died, and by royal command Lulli took possession of his more commodious theatre, thus supplanting Molière's company, as he had previously superseded Perrin. Lulli was versatile and industrious, and when he died, in 1687, he left behind him nineteen operas (not counting ballets and interludes) and six hundred and thirty thousand golden livres.

During the next hundred years there is but little of interest, excepting only the often-described quarrel between the partisans of Glück and of Piccini. But in 1781 there occurred an instance of royal generosity well worthy of record. The theatre in the Palais Royal, in which the Opera had been established for ninety years, was burnt, and, under the patronage of Marie Antoinette, the architect, Lenoir, by working day and night, built a new opera-house at the Porte St. Martin in eighty-six days. Rumors at once began to circulate at court that it was unsafe—that a building erected in such hot haste could not have been carefully constructed. The intimidated authorities therefore decided that, in order to test the strength of the new opera-house before permitting the Queen to enter it, a performance should be given gratis to the people of Paris. The beams having been thus tested by the common herd, their majesties honored the Opera with their presence.

In 1791, for the first time, the names of the singers appeared in the bill of the play. Previously it had been understood that the best singers appeared on Fridays only. Three years later, when the Opera was transferred to the building confiscated by chicane from Mlle. Montansier, the spectators in the pit were at last provided with seats. The year before this, under the Terror, on March 20, 1793, Mozart's "Marriage of Figaro" was performed for the first time. The vacillating Louis XVI., after absolutely interdicting Beaumarchais's piece, at length authorized its performance, and finally acted in it himself with his queen. His predecessor, Louis XIV., had danced in ballets, and his successor, Louis XVIII., when Comte de Provence, was the anonymous author of more than one opera-libretto, notably of the

"Caravane du Caire," set by Grétry. This composer did not long retain his royalist tastes. In the archives stored away in the capacious galleries of the new building are the scores of many revolutionary operas by Grétry, Méhul, and Rouget de l'Isle, in which representatives of the people, municipal officers girt with their tricolored scarfs, or sans-culottes curates replace the gods of Olympus as the *dei ex machinâ*. In these curious works we find the new-born Goddess of Reason dancing the Carmagnole or singing the Ça ira, a revolutionary song of particular interest to Americans, for it was suggested by a remark of Franklin's. The Goddess of Reason was the wife of the bookseller Momoro. The Goddess of Liberty was the beautiful Mlle. Maillard of the Opera, who had so often played the part in the "Offrande à la Liberté" that at last it became incarnated in her. The people, giving a local habitation to their ideal, no longer distinguished the actress from the goddess. In spite of her unconcealed royalist sympathies, she was constrained to personate Liberty in all the civic celebrations, and even to be adored in the "Temple of Reason" (formerly "Notre Dame"), together with Mme. Ducamp and Mlle. Florigny, also of the Opera, as Equality and Fraternity.

During the whole Revolution the stage of the Opera was prompt to reflect the shifting scenes of blood and iron; every victory over the foreign foe was at once set to music and represented before the footlights. Indeed, the Opera had a direct connection with the first great event of the Revolution: its property-room had been sacked of its sabres to assist in arming the populace for the assault on the Bastile. It was, perhaps, in return for this timely loan that, upon the spoliation of the churches, the Opera was presented with a chime of bells, unfortunately destroyed in the fire of 1873. M. Nuitter mentions a tradition, impossible to verify, that one of these bells came from the Church of St. Germain-l'Auxerrois, and after having been used to give the signal for the real massacre of St. Bartholomew, it had again tolled the alarm during the five hundred performances of Meyerbeer's "Huguenots."

Like everything else, the Opera felt the beneficent effect of paper-money issued by the people for the people. With the unlimited issue of assignats, the price of tickets was rapidly raised until a seat in the boxes cost 9,000 livres. On the 18th Prairial an IV. the receipts of the Opera were 1,071,350 livres! The real value of this million of livres was a little over two hundred dollars.

Under the Empire and the Restoration the Opera prospered. In 1822 it spent 188,260 francs upon the mounting of one piece, "Aladin, ou la lampe merveilleuse." In February, 1820, as the Duc de Berri was handing his wife into her carriage he was assassinated. In consequence, the Government razed the building and gave the ground to the public as the Place Louvois. A temporary home was found for the Opera in the rue Le Peletier, and there it remained for more than fifty years, until the night of Oct. 28, 1873, when the building caught fire. Within a few hours it was burnt to the ground. As M. de la Salle walked home from the fire he saw by the early dawn the wet and just posted bill of the Opera announcing the "100th performance of 'Hamlet' for this evening at 7½ o'clock."

England, Literary and Social, from a German Point of View. By Julius Rodenberg. (London: Richard Bentley & Son. 1875.)—Herr Rodenberg's book, though entertaining and worth printing, is rather disappointing. It is not, as its title seems to indicate, a study of contemporary manners, and it contains very little psychology. Neither is it in any especial sense written from the "German point of view." It is a collection of four long antiquarian essays by a man who knows and likes England so well that it is only to be divined from an occasional Teutonism of style that he is not an Englishman. It must be said, however, that the abundance of research and the paucity of personal observation are sufficiently characteristic of the author's nationality, and that only a German, probably, collecting impressions of a foreign country on the spot, would have looked for them almost exclusively in books. Herr Rodenberg knows his England perhaps better than M. Taine; but there is more of vivid portraiture—of the essence of the matter—in a single page of Taine's 'Notes' than in one of this author's long chapters. Herr Rodenberg writes upon "Kent and the Canterbury Tales," "Shakspeare's London," the "Coffee-Houses and Clubs of London," and the "Jews in England." To these lightly historic studies he affixes two chapters of inferior value, entitled "Pictures of English High-roads" and "Autumn on the English Lakes." These essays contain a great many curious reminders and allusions, and not a little unfamiliar information, presented in an easy, agreeable style, in which the "geniality" alone, perhaps, is a trifle overdone. Herr Rodenberg evidently knows English history and English literature with great exactness, and his manner of entering into them, the peculiar degree of his relish for the objects, persons, and places associated with them, are very remarkable in a foreigner. Beyond a certain point, generally, such facts become too minute for a foreigner's care; he is content to admire more in the gross. But Herr Rodenberg seems to feel a sort of intellectual birthright in the English past, and his intimate acquaintance with it may serve as an example to the English themselves, who certainly of all nations are, in the average, least acquainted with their own history and their own classics. For instance, it strikes us with a kind of respect for the thoroughness of a foreign observer that he should quote, apparently off-hand, some flat lines from the poet Akenside about Chaucer. How much must he have gone through, we reflect, before he arrived in the due course of things at drowsy Akenside! Herr Rodenberg, taking for his text the Kentish landscape and the streets of Canterbury, gossips very agreeably and eruditely upon Chaucer's life, and weighs one hypothesis against another as to certain contested points in it. The author's long prose synopsis of the contents of several of the Canterbury Tales might, however, have been profitably omitted from the work.

The article on "Shakspeare's London" contains a good deal of entertaining archæology and topography, and many curious details about the arrangement of the primitive English theatre. It is to be inferred, however, that the author's knowledge of the past is more exact than it occasionally appears to be of the present. After the play, in Shakspere's day, he says, the troupe of actors stood forth in a semicircle and dismissed the audience by a prayer to the queen—"a custom which is maintained to the present day in England, where no play, opera, or concert is left before the National Anthem has been sung." But Herr Rodenberg's most entertaining pages are those upon the London coffee-houses and clubs, into which he compresses the savor of the whole literature of the subject. He calls attention, properly, to the singular anomaly of the fact that though coffee-houses began to flourish about 1650, the coffee of England is still the worst in Europe, having usually a strange, barbarous, experimental flavor. It is also very odd that in a country where coffee is made with the least appreciation of its merits and has always remained a decidedly exotic beverage, the dining-room at hotels should invariably be dubbed the coffee-room. This often seems to the breakfastless foreigner like a wanton addition of insult to injury. "It is remarkable," says Herr Rodenberg in a note, "that the smell of coffee seems so unpleasant to the true Briton. Each of the above-quoted pamphlets [broadsides and satires of the seventeenth century] calls it a 'stink.'" We must thank the author for reminding us of one of the most characteristic and amusing instances of Dr. Johnson's conversational brutality. Garrick had been proposed for election into the Literary Club, and Johnson, who was supposed to be his very good friend, protested against the nomination. "Sir," he said, "I love my little David heartily, more than all, or many, of his flatterers do; but surely in such a society as ours one should not sit elbowed *by players, pimps, and mimes!*" Almost the only pages of contemporaneous allusion in Herr Rodenberg's volume are his descriptions of the great clubs in Pall Mall, "the almost overpowering splendor" of the Reform, and "those deep, handsome basins, in which it is a delight to bathe one's face and hands." We have mentioned the paper on the history of the Jews in England, which traces their varying fortunes up to their present highly comfortable condition, and is written, if we mistake not, from the "Semitic consciousness." We must add an extract from the chapter on the "English High-roads": "A universal shout of revolt went through the British nation when, at the beginning of the last century, the improvement of the roads began and post-chaises came into use. Some declared that the national courage would be destroyed if a man who had been in the habit of riding on horseback through the country, and of maintaining at any rate a struggle with a highway robber, should now allow himself to sneak along in coaches." These objectors, if they had been prophetic, might have held their peace; they would have foreseen a system of locomotion which was to be, in some of its ultimate developments, quite as effective a test of the national courage as the danger of meeting Dick Turpin and Claude Duval.

Tales and Traditions of the Eskimo, with a sketch of their habits, religion, language, and other peculiarities. By Dr. Henry Rink. Translated from the Danish by the author. Edited by Dr. Robert Brown. With numerous cuts drawn and engraved by Eskimo. (London: Blackwood & Sons. 8vo. 1875.)—In this new form Dr. Rink's classical work becomes available to many students who may hitherto have been deterred from attempting to master it in the original Danish. What is here offered us is

not merely a translation but a complete revision, in some parts slightly amplified and in others condensed from the original. As the foremost modern authority on the habits and traditions of the Greenland Eskimo, Dr. Rink's reputation has been long established, and the contents of the present volume can only extend still further, without in any way diminishing, this reputation. The most valuable portion of the work is its summary of the language, myths, distribution, and habits of the Eskimo, in which many old but still current errors are exposed in a quiet and scholarly manner which leaves nothing to be desired. As a matter of course the Greenlanders, as the best known and most studied of the groups of Eskimo, come in for the largest share of description, but in many particulars the details are also applicable to the whole Orarian stock. Were an equally careful study applied to the Western Eskimo, including the Aleuts, it is probable that many striking contrasts in habits and community-law, if not religious myths, would be brought out. Some remarkable coincidences in language and traditions between these widely separated branches of the same stock have been already made known, and we are aware of unpublished material which would largely increase the number. It may be mentioned that the Aleuts, the most specialized group of Eskimo people in existence, have certain traditions in regard to mythical "inland" people which are almost paraphrased by some of Dr. Rink's tales. The absence of other than family, housefellow, or communal ties in the different groups of Eskimo holds as good in the west as in the east. Their habits, of course, differ with their environment. The well-fed and warmly-housed Eskimo of Norton Sound, with his comparatively long and actually warm summer, his abundance of game and ignorance of glaciers and bergs, is a more joyous and keener-witted fellow than his cousin of Greenland. This difference extends to his myths and his temper. Many of his tales show close affinity to those of Greenland, but some of the fabulous animals seem to be wanting, and there is less of bloodshed, spite, enmity, and frostiness than in the legends from the east. Special modifications, induced by the environment, are noticeable in many of the western tales; and in not a few the sentiment of the lover, almost wholly wanting in the Greenland stories, lends an interest and a charm to legends otherwise rather bald and tame.

The translation is excellent, and the book will be a revelation to many of a strange and novel phase of human life, unlike anything afforded us by the Arctic voyages. The style is sufficiently attractive and clear to make it equally interesting to the school-boy and the philologist, and the illustrations seem as characteristic as they are quaint. The erotic element of the tales has been almost entirely expunged, so that they have not for students quite the value that they would have possessed if untouched by the scissors. This gives them, however, all the more value for miscellaneous reading, and does not detract from the incisive manner in which the other phases of Eskimo character are illustrated. A very brief summary of the author's views in regard to the origin of the Eskimo is given. This is the only specimen of really philosophical treatment of the subject which has come under our notice, and for that reason it is all too short. But the ground where this part of the problem must be worked out is on the northwest coast of America; and in the absence of exhaustive data the author's caution is praiseworthy. The book is edited by Dr. Brown, himself an eminent authority on Greenland, and printed in a neat and attractive manner.

Elements of English Grammar. By S. W. Whitney, A.M. (New York: J. W. Schermerhorn & Co. 1875.)—We are much in the habit of despising books of merely moderate size, and on this account the grammar before us will probably not meet with the reception which it deserves; yet the author gives sound reasons for shortening and simplifying his text-book. In the preface he says: "Grammar is but one department of the science of language, that which treats of the structure of speech. Some, from a misconception of its true province, have attempted to teach, under the name of grammar, subjects as foreign to its real nature as geometry and conic sections are to arithmetic." "Grammar is usually divided into four parts—namely, Orthography, Etymology, Syntax, and Prosody; but, properly speaking, it embraces only Etymology and Syntax. Orthography treats of spelling; Prosody treats of pronunciation and versification. These are taught in spelling-books, dictionaries, and rhetorical treatises." The 160 pages of which Mr. Whitney's Grammar consists are then divided equally between Etymology and Syntax. The former is subdivided into classification and inflection, to each of which 40 pages is devoted. We are particularly pleased with the neat and logical statements in which the parts of speech are defined and their subdivisions bounded. We wish we could quote and illustrate the seven and six classes into which nouns and pronouns are respectively divided. One class of adjectives compels notice: "A Pronominal Adjective is any adjective used as a pronoun"; as, "*Two* of the boys went," in contrast with "two boys," where *two* would be a limiting adjective. Under this class are ranked many words which are usually mistakenly termed pronouns. In fact, our author's is the first grammatical text-book we have ever seen which satisfactorily distinguished adjectives from pronouns. Our author boldly rejects the passive voice, and defends his position as follows: "Take the two sentences *I am glad* and *I am satisfied*. In the latter, *satisfied* would generally and unhesitatingly be coupled with *am* and called 'a passive verb,'" while *glad* is considered a modifier of *I*. "Why not be consistent and regard *glad*" and *satisfied* as construed alike? Neither of them modifies the subject; each of them supplements the verb *am*. Hence a new rule of syntax: "An adjective or a participle either modifies some noun or pronoun expressed or implied, or is the complement of some verb." The abstruse matter of the classification of subordinate clauses is condensed into the threefold division of such clauses into "pronominal, adjective, and adverbial," according as they act the part of pronouns, adjectives, or adverbs; as, *That fortune favors the brave* is cheering; I venerate the man *whose heart is warm and pure; Wherever I go*, I meet the same story.

Besides ample illustrations, the author has introduced frequent exercises by which a pupil's understanding of the text may be tested. The only points which seem deserving of censure are the omission of *because* and *therefore* from the list of conjunctions or conjunctive adverbs, the repetition of the familiar absurdity of calling *the* and *an* a different part of speech from *this* and *one*, and the hasty introduction of a tenth part of speech totally uncalled-for, including the three words *yes*, *no*, and *amen*, which our author terms "responsives"; we might ask wherein the word *no* in response to a question differs grammatically from *never*, *nowhere*, *hardly*, *scarcely*, *perhaps*, etc.; and wherein *yes* differs from *certainly*, *entirely*, *quite*, *indeed*, and a score of other adverbs of affirmation.

Presbyterians and the Revolution. By the Rev. W. P. Breed, D.D.—*Historical Sketch of the Synod of Philadelphia.* By R. M. Patterson, Pastor of the South Presbyterian Church, Philadelphia; and *Biographical Sketches of Distinguished Members of the Synod of Philadelphia.* By the Rev. Robert Davidson, D.D. (Philadelphia: Presbyterian Board of Publication.)—Presbyterianism and Calvinism can with full right assert for themselves the honor claimed by Dr. Breed of having been foremost in the great struggle for liberty, from the days of Coligny and William of Orange to our own Revolution. As representative of the denomination in this latter struggle, his book is largely devoted to a life and eulogy of Dr. Witherspoon, the only clergyman who signed the Declaration of Independence, and in all respects a leading statesman of his day. It was the Scotch-Irish Presbyterians again that have the credit of the Westmoreland County Resolutions and the Mecklenburg Declaration of Independence. Dr. Breed wholly ignores the disproval of the latter document; but, in truth, the credit of a series of patriotic resolutions was even greater than would have been that of the hot-headed secession of a single inland county. The Synod of Philadelphia deserves the special commemoration given to it by Dr. Patterson, from the fact that it at one time comprised the entire Presbyterian organization of America; this was its original seat in this country. An interesting note is found, p. 33, appended to the assertion "that it represents the largest and strongest religious denomination in the territory which it occupies." The note, in support of this assertion, examines the statistics of the Roman Catholic Church in the same territory, whose numbers, Dr. Patterson believes, are not so great as its adherents assert; they "seek," he says, "by the persistent array of the wildest claims, to carry by storm politicians who always want to be on the strong side." The Presbyterian organization in this district, he has told us, counts "256 ministers, 288 churches, and 45,737 communicants (p. 28)." Now, the Catholic "priests are largely clubbed together, two, three, and even more in a parish. . . . They report 'churches,' 'chapels,' and 'stations.' The chapels are generally apartments in the churches, which are reported as such, and are thus included twice in the returns, or little places of worship in their schools, academies, and theological seminaries; while the stations are spots also really connected with the churches, and visited by the priests in some cases (I quote the reports) 'monthly,' in others 'every six weeks,' 'every second month,' 'four times a year,' 'occasionally.' The figures in our bounds are two hundred and sixty priests, regular and secular, and two hundred and forty churches." No doubt, however, the Catholic churches will average more members than those of any Protestant denomination.

Fine Arts.

THE THEATRES.

THE theatrical season of 1875–6 is said to be principally distinguished for its pecuniary success. Last year there was a great deal of noticeable acting; this year there has been little or none, but at no less than three of the theatres the managers have brought out plays which have hit the public taste on the opening night, and have now been running each some three or four months. Last year we had in tragedy Ristori, in Shakspere (it is difficult to know how to classify "Henry V." except by the old term "History") Rignold, in low comedy Toole, *Col. Mulberry Sellers*, and Boucicault, to say nothing of almost continuous *opéra-bouffe* at the Lyceum, reduplicated in German *bouffe* at the Germania. This year we have had "Pique" for three months at the Fifth Avenue, "Rose Michel" for three months at the Union Square, and "Julius Cæsar" at Booth's. The Lyceum has been occupied for a short time by a very good French company (after a few nights of *bouffe*), but has been a great part of the time closed. The Park Theatre has experienced the vicissitudes of fortune, now making a success, as in the case of the "Mighty Dollar," and now a dead failure, as in the case of Mr. Oakey Hall; now collapsing altogether and closing its doors, and again suddenly reappearing with a broad comedy—distinguishable from a farce chiefly by its length—called "Brass," and apparently destined to have a long run. With the exception of Mr. and Mrs. Florence in the "Mighty Dollar," and Mr. Honey in his inimitable part of *Old Eccles* in "Caste," there can hardly be said to have been any actors of real note at the native theatres, and, nevertheless, the theatres have on the whole found the season a profitable one, and that is tantamount to saying that the audiences have not found much to grumble at.

The key to success in the management of a theatre in the present condition of the drama is the discovery (and in this term must be included not only translation and adaptation, but even writing) of a play which will run so great a number of nights as to reimburse the management for the enormous outlay a telling play now involves. When we say the present condition of the drama, we mean of the Anglo-Saxon drama. The amount of money required for the production of a pageant like "Julius Cæsar," as it is now given at Booth's, is so great that playing it for a short time must ruin the managers, and the same thing may be said of plays like the "Shaughraun," "Rose Michel," the "Two Orphans," or "Pique." The public taste demands fine dresses, gorgeous upholstery, absolute "realism" in the properties, and scenery constructed without regard to expense. This is sufficiently proved by the fact that the plays which have these peculiarities, and yet have nothing else in common, succeed. The taste may be said to be debased and material, and so undoubtedly it is; but the fact cannot be gainsaid, and the judicious manager is he who takes the most intelligent advantage of it. Instead of trying to make his theatre attractive by continual variety and change of bill, he sets to work to "establish" a play as he might a daily newspaper or a railroad. He is confident that if he only spends money enough on the "plant," acting that would otherwise be barely endurable will pass for excellent. If the candid theatre-goer, who has enjoyed—as we have ourselves enjoyed—the absurdities of "Pique," or the pageantry of "Julius Cæsar," or the "sensations" of "Rose Michel," will ask himself what the plays would have been without the accessories, the scenery, the dresses, the properties, he will, we believe, come to the conclusion that not one of the three would have run a fortnight. The true test of good playing is bare walls, cheap clothes, and the minimum of red and blue lights, practicable fireplaces, or other accessories. The actor who can create an illusion without anything more is a real actor; the more he needs to make the public believe he is acting, the less of an actor he is. These are rank heresies, but we will undertake to prove them truths to any one who, with even a very moderate equipment of German, will go to the Germania Theatre in Fourteenth Street and see a "Posse mit Gesang," or a "Schwank mit Gesang," or, on Tuesday night, a classical play, given by the company now playing there. There we are in a different country from that which has the "Union Square" and Daly's for its capitals; a country into which few Americans, for obvious reasons, intrude, and which keeps its traditions and canons of taste unchanged. There the great law regarding the "plant" is unknown, and the plan on which the theatre is carried on is that of perpetual variety. An admirable stock-company and a long répertoire of amusing and more than amusing plays are the German substitute for upholstery and tinsel, and we must say the substitute is a good one. The theatre, stage and all, is smaller than an ordinary New England town-hall, and has little to adorn its native, bare ugliness; the stage is extremely small, and the scenery, so far as we have observed it, of the simplest. But the acting is capital, and the company well drilled in every kind of playing. Looking, not at individual actors, who excel in particular parts—in this the native theatres make now and then as good a show as could be asked—but at whole plays, there has been better acting at this little theatre and the Lyceum, this winter, than at all the native theatres in the city put together.

Fechter is an actor who belongs to three countries, and his reappearance at the Lyceum was an event which was of almost as much interest to the American as to the French population of New York. But he has sadly fallen off within the last few years, and it has become almost painful to see him with such good-will and ardor attack the parts in which he won his fame, and in which he seems now determined to bury it. He is no longer suited in appearance to young parts, but this is a trifling matter which many an old actor has triumphed over; for some reason or other he has ceased to be interesting, and we are almost forced to ask ourselves whether his former success in this country was not a mistake, and whether the trumpet-blast from Dickens heralding his approach did not really overawe our theatrical provincialism and prevent us from exercising our own minds on the subject. The rest of the company made ample amends for Fechter's shortcomings, and while they were here fairly held their own with the *Franzosenfresser* beyond Fourth Avenue.

The "Mighty Dollar" deserves to be singled out from the plays of the winter as an exceptional success. Mr. and Mrs. Florence, always good actors, fairly outdid themselves, and the former in the character of an unsuccessfully corrupt Congressman, and the latter in the rôle of what we suppose we may call the Franco-American matron of the period, were capital low-comic characters. Perhaps they ought to be called burlesque, but as there are no less than two, if not three, living women of whom Mrs. Florence in this part is said to be a lifelike reproduction, this may not be a fair word for it. The *Honorable Bardwell Slote* is a real creation, not so delicately done as *Col. Mulberry Sellers*, but, like him, drawn from real life, and we regret to say containing a touch of nature that goes straight to the heart of an audience in New York; how it would be in the Puritan atmosphere of Massachusetts we cannot undertake to say.

Wallack's still continues to be the only theatre in the city which makes a point of keeping alive the traditions of English comedy, and for the most part strenuously resists the surging tide of sensational melodrama, of plays of "society," and of "contemporaneous human interest" which has carried everything before it in the other theatres. There is no stage in the city except Wallack's, probably, where the manager would dream of giving Mrs. Centlivre's "Wonder," now nearly two centuries old. Whether the attempt will prove a success or not remains to be seen. The play itself is a lively and entertaining comedy of a bygone school, and derives its interest now in part from the fact of its having held the stage so long. But a play must have intrinsic attractions to do this, and what these attractions are it is easy enough to see. The "Wonder" is a play of "situations," and the situations are very laughable. The jealousy of a lover, suggesting to him a suspicion of his mistress, and fed through four acts with all sorts of damning circumstantial proofs, which the audience meanwhile is allowed to see are no proofs at all, but derive their suspicious character from the fact that the lover's sister (escaped from the parental custody) is concealed in the house, while honor forbids any explanation, are the materials which furnish the play its life. It has something the effect of a practical joke played upon the chief actor with the connivance of the audience, and it is excellently carried out. The two principal parts, *Violante* and *Don Felix*, afford room for acting of a high order, and it is easy enough to imagine that Garrick may have found the latter well suited to him. The play is besides very well balanced, there being two "heavy fathers," two pairs of lovers in high life, and one pair in domestic service. The lover of *Violante* is the brother of the lady whom *Captain Briton* loves, and the servant of *Don Felix* is of course in love with *Violante's* maid. A Scotch retainer of *Captain Briton's* performs the necessary part of marplot, and the wit of his part is greatly heightened by a broad Scotch accent, and vigorous kicks administered by those in authority. The dialogue is rapid and bright, though without any distinct marks of originality, and the play is enriched here and there by one or two of those jokes which seem so very improper when made by the wicked Gaul, but when occurring in a standard English play fill us with delight, not unmixed with respect for the manly frankness of our sturdy ancestors of both sexes, who could make and laugh at them without blushing. The play requires better acting, or at any rate a very different kind of acting, from that which the market here affords, and though it may very likely succeed now, it is impossible to see it without feeling that the types it introduces are so obsolete that ordinary actors do not naturally take to them, and have to be forced into them, almost as the men and women of our day would have to be forced into the armor and dresses of mediæval times.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 23, 1876.

The Week.

THERE has not been as much *bouffe* as usual at Washington in the last week or two, but the Pinchback case ended in a scene which compares favorably with some which have preceded it. The occasion was a serenade got up by some of the colored inhabitants of Washington for the benefit of Senator Morton, whom the assemblage, in a series of resolutions, eulogized as fit for "any position in which law and justice may be equitably administered and defended by an honest and resolute person," while the Senate, for having refused to seat Pinchback, is denounced as having "bowed to caste, and aided proscription, rebellion, and anarchy"; on which Mr. Morton assured his hearers that "the great battle of human rights would be fought in the coming Presidential contest"—leaving it to be inferred that he does not intend to be found wanting when the firing begins. Benjamin F. Butler's appearance in the Dana-Lawrence case is, as might be expected, fiercely *bouffe*. General Butler spent, some years ago, a good deal of his valuable time in Congress in accumulating telegrams belonging to other people, which he used to hold *in terrorem* over the owners' heads, threatening publication if they did not do what he wanted. He now appears at Washington in the rôle of champion and defender of private literary property, while, by way of making his part perfect, he charges Mr. Dana with false swearing in a copyright case, and, in order to support his accusation, makes a statement as to what Dana swore to, which would, if made under oath in court, render him (Butler) immediately liable to indictment for perjury.

The Senate Committee have not reported against Mr. Dana's nomination, but they have requested the President to withdraw his name, which the President refuses to do. Mr. Dana at first intended to go on and ask for a hearing to defend himself, but on learning that the committee had practically decided the matter he refused to appear, in a very proper and dignified letter addressed to Mr. Boutwell. What is lamentable about the matter is not that the Senate should have even at this late day, and all of a sudden, set up so high a standard of character for foreign representatives that it will not confirm a man against whom charges of any kind may be made by anybody, but that they should reject a man of Mr. Dana's standing in the community without a hearing and without notice to him, on charges preferred by such men as Messrs. Butler and Lawrence. That charges, even from such a quarter, were sufficient to cause delay and fair enquiry, we admit, but they were not charges sufficient to carry conviction without fair enquiry and delay. In fact, Butler's character is so bad that his mere hostility ought to be enough to raise a presumption in a man's favor in the eyes of any right-minded tribunal, and his character, too, is notorious. It will be ludicrous indeed if his and the Committee's sensitiveness about copyright shall be displayed by a body whose treatment of the property of foreign authors, for long years, has given wholesale literary piracy the dignity of one of the rights of American citizens. It is quite true that the courts have decided that Mr. Dana has violated Mr. Lawrence's copyright in the notes to Wheaton, but the violation is well known to have been technical, and to have been the result of carelessness and not of intent, and to have been wholly and far removed from any taint of dishonor by the fact that his edition of Wheaton, as well as Mr. Lawrence's, was published for the benefit of Wheaton's family and not for his own profit. In fact, a milder, more harmless, more excusable case of "piracy" has probably never come before the courts; and that on account of it, and in such times as these, a gentleman of Mr. Dana's character should be rejected by the body which has confirmed Sickles and Casey and Billings is one of those things on which it is difficult to comment coherently.

The correspondence between General Schenck and the State Department cannot be understood without a little more reference to contemporary events than is made by Mr. Fish. Chronologically arranged, the correspondence brings out the following facts: On the 8th of February General Schenck telegraphed that he had just heard of the House enquiry, and begged the President, if he was embarrassed in any way by the malignant persecution to which he (Schenck) had been subjected, to accept his resignation; but declared that he should remain in London for a time, to vindicate his character in the courts. On the next day (the 9th) he telegraphed to know whether he might publish his telegram of the day before, and received a reply to the effect that the President did not think it necessary to act on the telegram, and that any publication of it was inadmissible. On the next day (the 10th) damaging testimony against the defence in the Babcock trial was given at St. Louis, to the effect that a witness had seen money mailed to Babcock; the next day (the 11th) the State Department, in the name of the President, asked Schenck to resign, either by telegraph or by letter, the resignation to take effect on the instalment of his successor. On the 14th, General Schenck telegraphed that he could not reconcile the two despatches of the 9th and the 11th, but was perfectly ready to resign, and would send his resignation by the next mail. On the 19th of February he mailed his resignation. On the 21st, he asked for leave of absence to appear before the Committee. On the 23d, he was given leave by telegraph to come, but was informed that the enquiry was as to the conduct of the State Department rather than his own. On the 24th, Schenck telegraphed that he would take his leave of absence if the enquiry into his character proceeded, and meantime would await the President's action on his resignation (did he hope for a reconsideration?) On the 28th, Lyon began his testimony before the Foreign-Affairs Committee, and on the 29th Belknap was found out, by Marsh's testimony. On the 29th, Schenck was informed by telegraph that the House Committee wished to investigate his conduct. On the 1st of March he telegraphed twice—first, that he would sail upon the 17th, and, second, that he protested against Lyon's statements as a tissue of lies, and would sail on the 4th. On the 2d of March he telegraphed that as he had resigned because the action of the Executive was questioned, he now begged, inasmuch as his own character was assailed, that his resignation might not be accepted. On the 3d of March he was informed that the President had taken steps to fill the place immediately, and on this and other accounts there could be no delay. On the 4th the resignation was received, and on the 6th formally accepted. The case, we must say, looks very much like a base desertion of a man under fire, on account of the opening of guns in the rear.

The work of the week in Congress may be summed up in a very few words. The Senate, by a vote of 26 to 20, has passed a bill putting the President's salary back to $25,000 a year, and the House has, by a vote of 108 to 109, refused to suspend the rules in order to repeal the Resumption Act. A two-thirds vote was required, so that the failure of the attempt does not show conclusively that the House may not be brought to pass a bill for the repeal at a later date; but every week of inaction makes it more and more certain that no bill can get through both Houses this session. Mr. Hallett Kilbourn, of the firm of Kilbourn & Latta, has been brought up at the bar of the House for refusing to produce his books containing the transactions of the District Real-Estate pool, and, still refusing, has been sent to the common jail, so that he may now be said by any one who cares to say it to be languishing in a Federal Bastile, though, according to the newspaper accounts, he is boarded and

lodged in a manner "fitting one of his antecedents and condition," or, in other words, in a manner fitting a member of a Real-Estate pool—a standard of comfort probably as high as any in the world.

The Senate has also devoted some time to exposing "newspaper lies," to wit, 1st, that "several senators keep private secretaries who are paid as clerks"; 2d, that the Senate Judiciary Committee are holding back the House Bill for the protection of witnesses, and that Messrs. Conkling and Logan are looking up authorities to defeat it and save their friends. The first lie was nailed on the head by Messrs. Cameron, West, and Logan, as far as they are concerned, by an emphatic denial; while the second lie was exposed by Mr. Conkling, who said that, though unaccustomed to "pay any attention to such paragraphs," he felt that he might lay himself open to misconstruction if he did not denounce it as false; and he added the cheerful remark that "the recent elections assured him" that the time "was passing, if it had not already gone by, when people will refuse to be gulled or deceived by such abusive articles." Mr. Logan said he had no knowledge that the bill had reached the Senate; that when it did he would do what his judgment dictated as best; that he was not afraid that any of his friends in the Whiskey Ring would get hurt, because he had no friends in the Whiskey Ring. Mr. Thurman said, what seems rather more to the purpose, that the committee were proceeding with the bill in advance of other business, and were hastening instead of delaying it.

Mr. A. S. Hewitt, on Thursday of last week, made a speech on silver resumption in the House in which he threw a good deal of curious light on some of the provisions of the Resumption Act of last year. The act, it will be remembered, directed the Treasury to buy silver to provide for resumption, but left it discretionary whether to issue it or not, and also provided for the coining of gold free of expense. Both these clauses were put forward as intended to assist in the process of resumption; but some of Mr. Hewitt's facts point to a strangely different explanation. At the date of the passage of the act, and for some months afterwards, the price of silver in London was on an average 56.99 pence, or practically 57 pence per ounce. At about the same time the well-known "Big Bonanza" mines began to deluge the market with silver, and it is a matter of common notoriety that these mines have very close connections with the Senate. What followed was this: The passage of the act forced the Secretary to begin buying the products of these mines, and, as it was impossible to do anything with the silver, to lock it up in the vaults of the Treasury, where, of course, it was effectually prevented from having any effect on the market. Up to the first of last October he purchased $12,658,054 68 at an average of 111.4 cents (or 56 pence) per ounce. Meantime the price in London fell 4 pence an ounce, and the "Big-Bonanza" capitalists accordingly, up to October 1, made about a million dollars, which, had there been no act in existence, they would have found it extremely difficult to make, inasmuch as the whole $12,000,000 would have been thrown into the market and broken the price still more. Since October 1 they have made another million in the same way. Besides this, these capitalists would, had there been no act in existence, have had to pay one-fifth of one per cent. on all gold coined for them. Their mines produce forty per cent. in gold. The act repeals the seignorage on gold, and makes coining free. Hence, while the mines secured the Treasury as a constant market for their silver, they at the same time got their gold coined for nothing, and then exported and sold at an advance of one-fifth of one per cent. over bullion. In fact, the act could hardly have been better for the "Bonanza" men if Congress had directed an outright purchase of the product of their mines.

The United States has still in its hands the sum of $10,500,000 of the *Alabama* award, which must either be distributed among claimants or turned into the Treasury, or returned to Great Britain. A Committee of the House has just made a report on the disposition of this fund which is a remarkable contribution to international and private law. The Geneva arbitrators, it will be remembered, decided that the United States could only recover damages for the acts of three vessels—the *Florida*, the *Alabama*, and the *Shenandoah* (after leaving Melbourne). All other cruisers were ruled out of the case by the judges, so that by no conceivable process of reasoning can any of this $10,500,000 be supposed to represent damages caused by any except those we have named. The committee accordingly conclude, 1st, in so many words, that "the most direct loss is that sustained by the persons who had vessels destroyed on the high seas by the cruisers *exculpated* by the tribunal of arbitration," and recommend that the ship-owners be paid first. In the second place, it is as clear as anything can well be that persons who paid "war premiums"—*i.e.*, who had to pay more insurance during the war than they would have done in time of peace—cannot be reimbursed, because, 1st, if we follow the rules laid down at Geneva, the increase of the premium caused by the *Alabama*, *Florida*, and *Shenandoah* cannot be separated from that caused by the other cruisers; 2d, even if we prefer the rules of a House Committee to those of the Geneva arbitrators, it is an absolute impossibility to determine how far those who paid war premiums were reimbursed by enhancement of price or otherwise. The committee accordingly recommend that these claimants be paid second. It is more than probable that these two classes of claims will exhaust the fund; and so the committee gravely proceed to consider last the only meritorious claims they had before them—those of the insurers. The underwriters, who had actually paid for vessels destroyed, were, by universal principles of law and justice, entitled to be subrogated to the rights of the ship-owners. There never has been any question as to the justice of their claims, nor any doubt that if the United States could have been sued by them in an ordinary court there would have been no defence. Accordingly, the committee recommend that if anything is left after paying everybody else who has invalid claims, the insurers, who have the only valid claims, may come in and divide what is left.

The Democratic party and the State of Ohio have lost a Favorite Son in the person of Mr. George H. Pendleton, owing to the recent revelation of this gentleman's rude and barbarous notions on the subject of the duties of trustees. Being President of the Kentucky Central Railroad, and also administrator of an estate belonging to his sister and her two minor children, and the railroad having an old claim against the Government for about $148,000, and the estate owning the greater portion of the stock of the road, he, as President, recovered the amount from the Government, pocketed one-half for his own trouble, and gave the rest to his wards. It is curious to see how the transaction gets blacker the more we turn it over. As President of the road he was bound, if the claim was a good one, to recover it without fee or reward; if it was fraudulent, no money ought to have been sufficient to induce him to assert it. That it was fraudulent was inferrible from the fact that it had been preferred in Mr. Stanton's day and disallowed, which legally killed it. Its renewal, therefore, in Belknap's time, coupled with Mr. Pendleton's intimacy with Mrs. Belknap before her marriage, warrants the belief that Belknap had been discovered to be more pliable. But even if Mr. Pendleton, as President of the road, had been unscrupulous enough to obtain the money corruptly and illegally, it became his duty as administrator when he got it to hand it over to his wards. But this duty he also violated by appropriating to himself half the amount. So that there is absolutely nothing gained for him by walking round him and looking at him on all sides. The Republican papers and politicians are highly delighted with this discovery, and apparently fancy that, if they manage to produce a match from among the Democrats for each Republican rogue, the country will have nothing to complain of. But the fact is that this only makes the situation more deplorable. If there was a respectable opposition ready to take charge of the government the Republican corruption would be a comparatively trifling

matter. As matters stand, it is a terrible calamity; for Pendleton's performances, far from palliating Belknap's, aggravate them.

The victory of the Republicans in New Hampshire by an unexpectedly large majority has been used to preach a good many sermons with, those on the Democratic side being mainly homilies directed against bribery and corruption, and those on the Republican side being mainly arguments to show that the result proves the intelligence, honesty, and discrimination of the voters of the State. As to the bribery and corruption, documents have been produced since the election which show pretty conclusively that there are those who do not spurn such means of getting votes. The Merrimac *Journal* has published two letters relating to the little town of South Hampton, which numbers no more than one hundred and forty voters. In one of these Mr. Natt Head—whose name our readers will remember as having been the cause of a terrible tumult in New Hampshire last year, which threatened to plunge the State into civil war—says he has put $25 into the hands of some "Democratic friends" in the town, who "say they can help me"; encloses $25 more, and promises additional assistance if he can afford it. The other is from one Hall, chairman of the Republican State Committee, and is addressed (as is that of Mr. Head) to a candidate for the Legislature. He says that he encloses $200 for the candidate's "political uses" in South Hampton, and adds that with this he ought not only to make his election "sure," but ought to "secure a better standing" on the ticket than he had done the year before. This, it must be confessed, looks very much like bribery. The usual reply made to the charge by the Republican newspapers is that it is unjust to suspect the purity and sturdy integrity of a New Hampshire citizen; that he would spurn the thought of taking money for his vote. This, however, is, we fear, a fancy-picture.

The excitement caused by the suspension of the Bank of the State of New York wholly died out before the close of the week. On the day following the suspension a new board of directors was chosen, headed by Mr. August Belmont, who was afterwards made president, with Mr. Lawrence Turnure, the business partner of Mr. Moses Taylor, vice-president. This board devoted several days to the examination of the bank's affairs, and on Monday began to pay depositors the sums which the books clearly showed belonged to them. The Comptroller of the Currency, taking into account the high character of the new board, did not appoint a receiver, but gave permission for voluntary liquidation. No official report of the result of the examination made by the directors themselves has been published; it is known, however, that there is ample to pay all the debts of the bank, and that there will be something left for the stockholders. On Mr. Meigs's examination, it was calculated that there would be, out of the $2,500,000 capital and surplus, about $1,000,000 left; it is now understood that there will be less, and it is a question whether the bank will be reorganized with a reduced capital. There were plenty of rumors about other banks, but none have proved to be more than stock-jobbing devices, and the week closes with no apprehension of further bank troubles. Bank shares have, however, been pressed for sale, and, with few exceptions, prices have fallen; the quotation for the stock of the Bank of the State was 30 @ 35. Money lent at higher rates than for several weeks; this was due to two causes—one, and that momentary, the disturbance to loans caused by the Bank of the State's suspension, the other the demand on New York banks for currency from their correspondents in New England and the Middle States, where the annual settlements are made on the first day of April. The surplus reserve of the banks last week was, deducting the figures of the Bank of the State, $12,800,000; a year ago it was $4,800,000. Domestic trade was dull during the week. There was, however, an active and strong market for breadstuffs for export. The imports of foreign goods were in excess of the corresponding weeks of 1875 and 1874, and amounted to $8,300,000. The exports of gold coin were about $1,200,000, and the rates for sterling exchange at the close of the week warranted further exports.

The value in gold of $100 greenbacks ranged during the week between $87 24 and $87 81. The value in gold of $100 subsidiary coin ranged during the week between $85 90 and $83 53. If the *Times* wishes confirmation of these figures, we advise it to take a business directory and select from the specie brokers or bullion brokers the names of such firms as it knows by common repute to be responsible. They will inform the *Times* that, while our figures correctly represent the gold value of subsidiary silver, it would be impossible to fill an order for $50,000 to $75,000 at any price, the stock being so small here; that these coins are worth 93 to 94 cents gold for small amounts to ship to the West Indies and South America, where they can be passed for 96 to 100 cents gold; that they can now only be obtained from the Treasury by paying gold for them dollar for dollar; and that, with a full supply in the market such as is contemplated by the Sherman Act, after having been issued at par in legal-tender notes, they would soon find their true value. The price of silver in London closes at 53*d.* per ounce, after having been, during the week, 54¼*d.* and 52¾*d.* The lowest price of silver last year was 55½*d.*, the lowest in 1874 was 58½*d.*, the lowest in 1873 was 59¼*d.*, which is the lowest average price for any year back to 1833, or as far as the record runs. The average price from 1860 to 1873 ranges between 60½*d.* and 61½*d.* These figures demonstrate clearly that if silver returns to anywhere near its average price for twenty years—and its decline was in large measure due to the action of Germany after the war with France—the subsidiary silver coin which it is proposed to issue here will leave the country as certainly as water will flow down hill. The more the silver business is discussed, the more apparent it becomes that it was conceived in jobbery. Considered in its most favorable light, it is a political rather than a financial measure.

An article on paper money in Italy, which will be found in another part of this paper, offers very important facts and suggestions for the consideration of statesmen in this country. The experience of Italy in the matter of paper money is more nearly analogous to our own than that of any other country, but with important differences. What is perfectly possible to us is at present impossible to the Italians, though they ardently desire to take the very steps to which neither political party in this country dares to pledge itself—steps, namely, for a speedy resumption of specie payments. Although the forced currency of Italy exceeds its former metallic circulation by only 25 per cent., the premium on gold is not much lower than with us. The reason of this is, that the finances of the country are still in a bad state. While our 5 per cent. consols are at 104½ in gold, those of Italy are at 71; while our national revenues yield a large annual surplus, those of Italy are heavily in arrears of the expenses; while we can redeem our paper money as rapidly as we choose, Italy cannot redeem hers without widening the annual deficit. Thus it is that, although she has the will, she has not the way; while we, who have the way, have not the will. The humiliating fact for us is, that while the people of Italy are unanimous in desiring to get back to solid ground, and are pushing on their public men to get there faster than they think it prudent to go, many of our people prefer to travel on a quagmire, at the risk, in case any national disaster should largely increase the public expenses, of sinking into it out of sight; and our public men dare not utter their true sentiments in favor of honest money for fear the people will not sustain them. Since our article was in type, the Cable reports the Budget speech of Signor Minghetti, presented to the Chambers on the 16th instant. Very unexpectedly, the deficit of 1875 proves to be only $5,000,000, against $14,000,000 estimated. Small surpluses are promised for 1876 and 1877. If these estimates should be realized, the time when Italy may begin to emancipate herself from the slavery of bad money is less remote than we had feared. Meantime, however, the Minghetti ministry has been driven out by a defeat on the grist tax.

THE CONKLING "MACHINE."

WE have hitherto refrained from expressing any opinion as to the resolutions passed a fortnight ago by the Union League Club, in the belief that they would have little or no immediate effect on the campaign in this State. What the gentlemen who passed the resolutions meant was well enough known to themselves and the public. They meant to prevent, if possible, the selection of Mr. Roscoe Conkling as the candidate of the Republicans of New York for the Presidency, and to send to the National Convention at Cincinnati a delegation composed of able, honest, and patriotic men, who would work for the nomination of a vigorous reformer for the Presidency. The resolutions, which expressed the opinions and feelings not merely of the Union League Club, but of nine-tenths of the Republicans in the city and State not connected with the "machine," declared that, "in view of the recent and repeated exposures of corruption and fraud," the common welfare demands "a searching and thorough investigation" of the "condition and conduct of every branch of the public service," so that all "who have abused and betrayed their public trusts" may be "exposed and punished"; that the "exclusive management and control" of the party in the State and city by "an organized machinery of office-holders" is an "intolerable grievance," to which the framers of the resolutions "refuse any longer to submit." They go on to demand a fair representation for "independent" and "disinterested" Republicans in the approaching conventions; denounce the practice of "pledging" as a "gross violation of the first principles of Republican institutions"; demand an unpledged delegation to Cincinnati, and, if this is not done, refuse to be bound by the action of the State convention; and, finally, declare the success of the party in the next election "not possible" "unless the candidate of the Republican party be a man who is not only identified with its great principles, and possessed by a proud appreciation of its past services, and who will be recognized by the common judgment of the country as fitted by ability and experience in public affairs for the responsibilities of his high office, but also a man who has had no connection, direct or indirect, with the errors and abuses which have brought reproach upon the fair name of the country and the party, who is above any suspicion of sympathy or association with those who have been guilty of these abuses, and whose name and career shall be in themselves a guaranty of a complete renovation of the public service, of a thorough purging of official abuses, and of an administration of the government upon principles of honesty, economy, intelligence, and fidelity to public trusts"—in a word, "who shall be deservedly recognized as a reformer as well as a Republican."

We say that these resolutions represent the opinions and desires of nine-tenths of the party in the State, but we might put it much more strongly. There is not a single quarter in which honest opinion has any opportunity of showing itself in which these resolutions were not at once taken up and warmly approved. Particularly was this the case in this city, where they were emphatically applauded by the whole press. No respectable newspaper had a word to say except in their favor. There was only one quarter in which opposition was to be expected, and even in that quarter everything was silent. The office-holders who run the "machine" are many of them members of the Union League Club, but they did not open their lips. They allowed the resolutions to be passed with absolute unanimity. They then went away from the meeting, sent orders to their henchmen throughout the city, and in ten days every Assembly district in the city of New York had elected delegates to the State Convention, and every single one of them was pledged to nominate Roscoe Conkling for President, and Mr. A. B. Cornell, the chief party manager and chairman of the State Committee, sent Conkling a despatch announcing this fact, and adding, "This is the answer of the Republicans of New York to the impudent declarations of the Union League Club."

Whatever may be the upshot of the convention, it is safe to say that the election of a unanimous Conkling delegation from this city, in the face of unanimous resolutions such as were passed by the Union League Club, is one of the most remarkable illustrations of the power of the "machine" and those who run it that we have seen for some time. Here we have, on the one side, in the leading commercial city of the Union, (the chief city, too, in a State which is very likely to hold the balance of power in the next election), the entire press, the entire body of respectable Republicans, and the entire moral force of an active political club, whose leading members are looked to to supply a large amount of the sinews of war during the campaign—on the one hand, we have all these throwing their weight against the nomination for President of a man whose only local qualifications for the place are that he has been the bitter partisan defender and apologist of every abuse which has sapped the sources of the commercial prosperity of his own State, and whose only recommendation to the country at large is that he is the next friend of an Administration which has made itself an object of universal public contempt. On the other hand, we have a small body of office-holders, headed by obscure men of doubtful or worse than doubtful reputation, without a particle of public opinion behind them; and the moment the contest begins these men call the meetings, get up the tickets headed "For President, Roscoe Conkling," organize, nominate, vote, and in every single case elect. Conkling's success at the present moment is the best possible illustration of the working of the system, for the very reason of his utter want of real merit as a candidate. If he were in any way a distinguished or able man, there might be some doubt about the true explanation of his rise in politics. But he is not. He has, since his appearance in Congress, done nothing that even his friends can bring forward, except make a number of windy speeches, containing no thought or suggestion of thought on any subject of interest to any human being. There is no profession, trade, or calling outside of politics in this country in which his manner of performing his duties would not in a month's time have brought him into general discredit and in danger of losing his livelihood. His success is, therefore, only attributable to one cause—the "machine." He has now for eight years been devoting his whole time to making the ten thousand, more or less, office-holders in this State his retainers; and he has succeeded. He has removed and appointed, punished and assessed, and encouraged and reprimanded, until they all feel, and feel rightly, that the Government which employs them is not that of the United States, but Conkling's government. They find that the herd of voters outside go on voting the "Boss's" ticket, while inside the "Boss" fixes the names on it himself.

There is a great deal in the present condition of national affairs that reminds one forcibly of the state of things in this city at the time of the Tweed exposures, and none more so than this election of Conkling delegates in the teeth of a unanimous public opinion, followed by Cornell's telegram speaking of the packing of the primaries by Bliss and Sharpe as the answer of the "Republicans" of New York to the "impudent declarations" of the best men in the city. Tweed, stuffing his plunder into his pockets, and asking what we are "going to do about it," cuts almost a respectable figure by the side of these engineers of "reform within the party." But it is not their shameless disregard of public feeling which is alarming: it is their success. We seem really to have reached a point at which, when there comes any contest between public opinion and the "machine," public opinion goes to the wall. The newspapers are unanimous for a good man or a good measure; so are the church-members, and the clergymen, and the lawyers, and the merchants, and all classes of the community who have anything to say on the subject at all. They hold meetings, they unite, they encourage each other, they get up petitions and pass resolutions, and no sooner are their backs turned than up jump Bliss and Sharpe out of their holes, put the "machine" in motion with a few turns of the crank, and we find that our pains were all for nothing. The utter futility of attempts on the part of honest men to get control of the "machine" by a resort to the arts of those who are "inside," has been now pretty well brought home to all of us.

Mr. Jackson S. Schultz, who knows more about the practical working of such attempts than any one in this city or State, has, within the past week, expressed his views on the subject to a reporter, and he says distinctly that he is not going to waste his time in going to primaries with Bliss and Sharpe and Davenport; that he finds by experience that when he does so, they get there before him, and the meeting is "fixed" when he arrives, or else if he gets there before they do, and attempts in his humble way to "fix" matters, they, as soon as they arrive, adjourn the meeting and hold another at some time and place where they know he will not be present. In fact, inasmuch as they devote their lives to politics, and their bread and butter depends on it, while he rarely has anything to do with it, and cannot afford the time to go into it morning, noon, and night, they always beat in the game.

We stand therefore in face of a serious difficulty, which, if we do not get the better of it, will certainly get the better of us. It is not Conkling, nor Conkling's friend Grant, nor Cornell, who is grinding us into submission with an irresistible force, while they laugh in our faces in our vain struggles for liberty, but it is a compact and drilled and disciplined body, who fill the custom-houses and the post-offices, the courts and revenue offices, who disburse and collect the public revenues, determine their own salaries, and fix their own tenure of office. They have no army behind them, neither foot, horse, nor artillery, and yet they ride rough-shod over us as if such a thing as the right of suffrage were unknown. What is it that produces this strange state of things? It is nothing but that the men who run the "machine" believe that no matter whom they nominate at Syracuse or at Cincinnati, the body of the party will "wheel into line" and support them. The gentlemen who passed the resolutions we have quoted declare that unless the delegation from Syracuse be left wholly untrammelled and free from all pledges, they "refuse to be bound by its action." But Bliss and Sharpe do not believe it. What they believe is, that no matter whom or what they put up at Syracuse, at Cincinnati there will be no bolt. We are not ourselves of their opinion. No free people will be content for an indefinite time with resolutions or newspaper articles as a remedy for political evils such as we are now suffering under; if they were, they would not only have some such "Boss" as Conkling to travesty government among them; they would deserve to have him.

THE LAST RAILROAD GRIEVANCE.

THE city of Chicago—the famous railroad centre of the West—has been loudly complaining of late of the very last thing of which it would have been supposed Chicago would ever have cause to complain. The railroad corporations have been discriminating against her and in favor of rival points. Singular and almost paradoxical as the proposition seems, it is nevertheless susceptible of proof. Milwaukee, Peoria, Cincinnati, and many other cities have, during the last few months, been able to exact from the railroad corporations far better terms on all shipments of produce to the East than could be obtained by the business men of Chicago.

The cause of this singular condition of things is obvious enough; the remedy is not so clear. The very prominence of Chicago as a shipping point for Western produce has brought the disaster on her head. The trunk lines leading to that city from the seaboard agreed upon a scale of charges, and, being few in number, they were able to hold each other up to their agreement. In other words, the corporations owning roads from Chicago east entered into a combination as to rates, and for once abided by it. Meanwhile, this agreement did not affect shipments from other points, at which consequently rates fell until they became almost nominal. Chicago thereupon saw its business rapidly diverted from it. To submit quietly to such a turn of fortune was too much to expect of human nature, and least of all of that energetic and somewhat impulsive human nature for which the Chicago people are noted. Accordingly, during the last few months the press of that city has rung with denunciations of the railroad "kings," "Shylocks," "robbers," and "monopolists," after a fashion with which the Granger rhetoric has long since made us familiar. Nor has the discussion been confined to the press. It was also taken up by the Chicago Board of Trade and referred to a committee of that body, which, after an elaborate investigation, has recently submitted a report. Almost at the same time that the report of this committee was published, the Board of Railroad Commissioners of Massachusetts issued their annual report. In it they also discussed at some length the Chicago grievance. The fact that a heavy discrimination in railroad freights exists, and adversely to Chicago, required no proof. It was matter of common notoriety. The remedy alone deserved discussion; and in this respect the wide diversity between the conclusions arrived at by the Western committee and by the Eastern commission is deserving of more than a passing notice. It may, indeed, indicate nothing less than a new departure in our public policy as respects the railroad system.

As we have already said, the cause of complaint was obvious enough. All the railroads concentrating at one prominent shipping point had combined to sustain freights from that point, while other and rival localities were not included in the combination. The remedy for this evil proposed by the Board of Trade committee was a happy combination of the commonplace and of the original. They saw no escape except through the construction of more competing roads. Chicago had already more of these than any one of its momentarily favored rivals, but this seemed of little consequence to the committee. The only distinction they drew, and here the commonplace yielded to the original, was one not openly stated but necessarily to be inferred: it was a distinction in favor of bankrupt roads. These the committee intimate are run to do business. Profits are with them matter of wholly secondary consideration. Consequently, to be served by bankrupt railroad corporations is a great felicity for any community, and may yet prove the salvation of Chicago. This view of the subject, however it may strike the proprietors of the railroad lines, can hardly but be encouraging to Chicago, inasmuch as all the railroads can scarcely fail to be bankrupted should the present competition among them be of long continuance. The astonishing feature of the situation is, also, that it is not pretended at Chicago that the rates charged by the combined roads are extortionate, or even unreasonable, but only that the competing rates from other points are unduly low; and consequently the Board of Trade committee gravely argue that, because certain roads are bankrupt and willing to bid for any business at any rates, all others are bound to do the same, with a view to ensuring equality to competing localities.

The conclusions of the Massachusetts Board are in strong contrast to this strange logic; they go to the very root of the railroad problem, as it is called. In the first place, attention is called to the fact that Chicago is now merely suffering from railroad competition, instead of benefiting by it as heretofore; that discriminations always have existed wherever free course has been given to railroad competition, and under such conditions always must exist—the only difference being, in the present case, that the boot, so to speak, is on the Peoria or Milwaukee leg instead of on the Chicago leg, where it has been wont to be. Pointing this out, the commissioners go back to the cause of the difficulty, and from the study of that they deduce its cure. They find that it arises from that combination of competing interests which necessarily takes place when the number of competitors is very limited. The remedy, they then proceed to argue, must be looked for, not in futile efforts to increase the number of competitors (who must by the very law of their existence ultimately enter the combination), but, once for all abandoning all reliance on competition, in an enlarged and systematized combination. The history of the famous and much-abused "Saratoga Conference" of 1875 is reviewed, but with conclusions very different from those commonly arrived at. The failure of that combination of railroad managers to effect the objects they had in view is referred to as a public misfortune, on the ground that, whether so intended or not, it would have resulted only in substituting a public and responsible agency in place of a

private and irresponsible one which has long existed. For it is too evident for argument that railroad corporations no more than communities can live always in a state of perpetual warfare; and it is notorious that for years all through business between the interior and the seaboard has been done in accordance with tariffs agreed upon from time to time by the freight agents of the various lines at conventions held for the purpose. In case these agreements were violated by one party to them or another, recourse was had to a trial of strength through competition, or, in other words, to private war. The railroad corporations thus existed in a species of natural savagedom. In place of this condition of armed truce, broken by fierce conflict, the Saratoga Conference sought to establish a permanent peace. Instead of being fought over, points of disagreement were to be settled by boards of umpires, and these same boards were from time to time publicly to establish tariff rates at which the combined routes were to perform the work of through transportation. It is needless here to tell how this attempt at combination failed. It was a first experiment, and it did not contain within itself certain of the elements essential to its success. It did fail, it is true, and its failure directly led to the discrimination against Chicago which has been referred to. It did this through the fact that the competition between the Western roads as a whole was beyond all control, while that between the lines terminating in Chicago was not. Accordingly, the rates over these could be and were temporarily sustained, while those over the first went all to pieces. The remedy for this state of affairs suggested by the commissioners is, not the introduction of new competing lines into Chicago, but the extension of the system of the combined lines over the whole Western territory.

Such a remedy will at first appear to most Americans as much worse than the disease. It is so opposed to all theory and to all tradition as to sound at first like a paradox. Yet it is by no means clear that the whole current of events is not tending to this result; nay, more, it is not clear that it is not the very best result to which they can tend. Recent experience has made two things as respects railroad development very clear. One is that the attempt really to control railway tariffs by legislation is in this country, for the present at least, simply hopeless. Meanwhile, for years to come, the reaction sure to follow upon the fantastic excesses of Grangerism will bring even judicious railroad legislation into contempt. The other point not less clearly established is that under the tremendous pressure of competition now felt throughout our railroad system, the process of railroad combination must go on with great rapidity. It cannot be otherwise. It is for the railroad corporations the single means of salvation, and no statute, however cunningly framed, can prevent them from resorting to it. The simple question, as combination goes on, is, what is to hold in check this great monopoly? The answer is that experience—an experience which now stretches over many countries and through not a few years—shows very conclusively that this combination does not, as respects railroads, bring with it either the political or material evils once apprehended. It does not do it for a reason which, in the discussion of the possibility of such a result, was formerly overlooked, but which, when once brought to notice, becomes very obvious. The reason is that concentration brings with it responsibility; that public opinion operates with tremendous power upon one, while it is wholly lost when dissipated among many. Especially is this true in America. Nor is this all. Concentration must also bring the railroads within the reach of judicious legislation, which will not have its force broken by the necessity of applying it to irreconcilable conditions.

Here, then, after all, may prove to be the unexpected outcome of the whole discussion of the last few years—Dartmouth College case and all. We have got back in spite of ourselves to first principles. The great railroad system is to be allowed to develop, subject only to its own natural laws—to combine, to consolidate, to monopolize. Meanwhile, in so doing it must necessarily draw itself together under one or a few heads, and those finally responsible in the full face of public opinion, with the strong arm of the law in the background. Such a system at least has one merit—it is thoroughly American in theory, and in this respect wholly unlike those weak imitations of French communism which, under the name of railroad laws, have recently disgraced the statute-books of the Granger States.

INCONVERTIBLE PAPER MONEY IN ITALY.

A LAW passed by the Italian Chambers on the 30th of April, 1874, "to regulate the paper circulation during the suspension of specie payments," made it the duty of the Ministers of Finance and Commerce to present a report upon the forced currency and upon the best measures to be adopted for its extinction. The Ministers Minghetti and Finali accordingly presented such a report in the spring of 1875, which has recently been published.*

The report itself is not a long document, but appended to it, and forming the largest part of the volume, is an historical memoir of great length, prepared by Signor Romanelli, Secretary of the Council of Commerce and Industry, upon the "Forced Currency (*Corso Forzoso*) in Italy, and its effects on Public Economy and the Finances, from May 1, 1866, to June 30, 1874." It is, in effect, a financial history of Italy during that period. Taken together, the report and the memoir constitute one of the most valuable recent contributions to the history of paper money and to the general currency discussion.

Specie payments were suspended in Italy on the 1st of May, 1866. The immediate occasion was the war by Prussia against Austria, in which Italy took part as the ally of Prussia; but the remoter causes are to be traced to the political revolution in Italy, by which its different sections were united under the Sardinian crown. This revolution entailed upon the Government greatly-increased expenditures, and wrought equally important changes in the industry and trade of the country. From 1861 to 1865 repeated deficits had occurred in the Budget, aggregating a sum of $400,000,000 (we convert the Italian *lira* into our money at the rate of five *lire* to the dollar). To meet these deficits, the Government had contracted loans to the amount of $500,000,000, besides selling the state railways, alienating and mortgaging the public domains, and largely increasing taxes. Public expenditures had risen from 162 to 214 millions of dollars a year, and the consolidated 5 per cents (*rente*) had fallen from 65, at the beginning of 1866, to 43 at the end of April. The effecting of new loans was practically impossible. The state of commercial affairs was equally unsatisfactory; in the four years, 1862 to 1865, the imports had exceeded the exports by $270,000,000. The large increase in the importation of merchandise is attributed to the substitution of tariffs based on the principle of free trade, for the protective tariffs previously existing in most of the Italian states. War expenses, works of internal improvement undertaken by the Government, the communes, and the provinces, and a great increase in industrial plant had united in creating a large foreign debt, represented by public stocks and the bonds and shares of railways and other companies. The interest payable abroad increased from seven millions of dollars in 1861 to eighteen millions in 1864.

In the early part of 1866 the state of credit in Europe grew rapidly worse, culminating in May in the memorable English crisis of that year. The general stringency fell severely upon Italy, and sapped the fountains of her credit in foreign countries. Her public securities, which had been before largely held in France, returned to the country, and fell as a new burden upon an overloaded market. The banks were drawn upon heavily, and resorted to all the customary expedients for resisting a drain of their resources. But, in spite of every precaution, they steadily lost ground, and saw their metallic stock melting away. The larger banks of Sardinia and Tuscany imported specie, and got assistance from the Rothschilds; but these expedients only served to postpone the crisis which impended, and which they would have been powerless to prevent. When war became imminent, and military preparations were begun, the Government could no longer remain inactive. The Finance Minister (Scialoja), although opposing the suspension of specie payments up to the last moment, became satisfied that, on the eve of a war of which it was impossible to foresee either the vicissitudes, the duration, or the cost, no other alternative remained. A bill was accordingly introduced and passed on the 30th of April, authorizing the Government to provide by extraordinary measures for the expenditures necessary to the public defence, and on the following day specie payments were suspended by royal decree.

To show the effect of this measure, Signor Romanelli has selected four

* 'Relazione sulla Circolazione Cartacea; presentata dal Presidente del Consiglio, Ministro delle Finanze (Minghetti) e dal Ministro di Agricoltura, Industria, e Commercio (Finali) nella Tornata del 15 Marzo, 1875.' Roma: Tipografia Eredi Botta, 1875. 4to, pp. xi. and 359.

principal data, which he presents in an effective manner by a statistical chart: (1) The price of sight-bills in gold at Genoa on Paris, (2) the price of the consolidated five per cents (*rente*) on the Paris Bourse, (3) the premium on gold at Genoa, and (4) the circulation of paper money in Italy. While the foreign exchanges have generally been against Italy, they have occasionally ruled in her favor. The extremes of fluctuation have been from three and a half per cent. discount to one and a half per cent. premium. The price of *rente* has varied much more widely. It stood at 43, May 1, 1866, when specie payments were suspended; it fell to 39½, its lowest point, by the end of June. It reacted suddenly to 57½ in September, in consequence of the treaty of peace and the cession of the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom to Italy. In January, 1868, it fell again to 43½, in consequence of the expedition of Garibaldi and the French reoccupation of Rome. From that point it rose, with some fluctuations, to 60 in the summer of 1870, but fell suddenly to 46¾ in July of that year, upon the event of the Franco-Prussian war. By the end of 1871 it had risen to 70, sharing the general buoyancy which succeeded the French peace; but in 1873—that year of "sad memories," as Signor Romanelli calls it—it fell again to 60. Since then it has profited by the tranquillity of Europe, and the latest quotation on the Paris Bourse is 71.

In the paper circulation there has been a steady expansion. Slight reductions in its amount have occurred from time to time, and there have been considerable stationary periods, but in general its course has been upward. This circulation includes not only bank-notes, but every other species of bank paper serving the purposes of money ("*fede di credito, polizze, ed altri titoli equivalenti a moneta.*") Beginning with $50,000,000 in May, 1866, it had risen to $310,000,000 in August last.

The price of gold has shown much less eccentricity than might have been expected in face of these very considerable changes in *rente* and in the volume of paper money. Bearing a premium from the moment specie payments were suspended, May 1, 1866, it rose suddenly to 18¾ in June, after the battle of Custozza, with which the war opened, and which was disastrous to the Italian arms. The war practically ended with the German battle of Sadowa on the 2d of July; and the treaty of peace, which was signed at Prague on the 23d of August, caused the gold premium in Italy to fall to 5 per cent. From that time till 1872, though never reaching what would be considered in this country a high figure, it underwent great fluctuations, rising and falling inversely with the rise and fall of *rente*, and subject to the same influences. The extremes of fluctuation in 1867, '68, '69, '70, and '71, were 14½ per cent. in January, 1868, and 2 per cent. in June, 1870. By the end of 1872 it had risen to 11, at the end of 1873 to 16, and it is now in the neighborhood of 10 per cent. Referring to the law laid down by Ricardo, that just in the ratio that paper money exceeds the wants of a country for a circulating medium it loses a proportion of its value, as shown by the premium on gold, Signor Romanelli concludes that the price of gold in Italy was not sensibly affected by the expansion of the currency, until it came to exceed the metallic circulation which had existed in the country before the suspension of specie payments. This metallic circulation he estimates at $220,000,000, including as a part of Italy, for the purposes of this estimate, Venice and the province of Mantua. It was not till the beginning of 1872 that the paper currency exceeded that amount, and from that time until the passage of the bank act of 1874, the gold premium followed, though it did not equal, its expanding volume. It has since fallen, in spite of a slight increase of paper money, doubtless because the law of 1874 has fixed a limit to its further increase, which limit is nearly reached, and because of the settled determination, both of the Government and people, to keep it in check and to get rid of it as soon as possible.

In gratifying contrast to the heresies which so largely prevail on that subject in this country, there is no public opinion in Italy which demands a continuance of the inconvertible currency. Nearly every Finance Minister since its adoption has proposed measures looking to its extinction. It is true that in 1868 the manufacturers of Piedmont, like those of Austria quoted by Mr. Göschen in his treatise on the foreign exchanges, asserted that it furnished a certain measure of protection to home industry, as was doubtless the case immediately after its introduction. The price of manufactured articles rose more rapidly than that of the labor, raw materials, taxes, rents, and interest on capital which entered into the cost of production; and Italian manufacturers, like those of the United States under like circumstances at the beginning of our war, reaped large profits on stocks of goods and raw materials on hand, and on goods produced immediately afterwards. But this state of things did not last long. All the elements of cost gradually increased in price, till they had swallowed up the earlier profits; and when gold fell, the cost of production did not fall with it, or fell tardily; while every such fall in gold inured instantly, and to its full extent, to the profit of the foreign competitor. Italian manufacturers now, therefore, recognize as fully as the Government, or the people who are the great consumers, that this expanded and feverish state of the currency is extremely detrimental to their interests.

In the late debates, the sentiment of the Chambers outran the more prudent counsels of the Finance Minister in the direction of a return to sound money. The commission appointed to report upon the proposed banking law, wished to insert a provision requiring the Government to present, within six months, a scheme for retiring the forced currency by a sinking fund. But Signor Minghetti persuaded the Chambers to suspend this imperative obligation until he could more carefully consider the possibility of complying with it. The law of 1874, the provisions of which we shall explain further on, was conceded on all hands to be "*a law of preparation only*—that is to say, a law which should be followed by other laws and provisions, intended to alleviate and gradually remove the injurious effects of the forced currency, and provide for its extinction at the earliest possible moment." Many members desired a more summary proceeding, but nobody was found to advocate a prolonged suspension on the ground that paper was the "people's money," or that "it stimulated trade."

After putting the law of 1874 into operation, and witnessing its effects for nearly a year, and after carefully considering the proposals which had been made in the Chambers for more specific action in the direction of resuming specie payments, the Finance Minister came to the conclusion that no more decisive steps could as yet be adopted. The finances of Italy are in a very different state from those of this country. While our revenues afford an annual surplus, which has enabled us to pay off many hundreds of millions of our debt within the past ten years, the Italian treasury has experienced continued annual deficits, in consequence of which the public debt of Italy has been increased almost as much as ours has been diminished. Signor Minghetti, therefore, very justly argues that until there is a surplus in the national treasury, as well as a commercial balance in favor of the country, it would be worse than useless to force resumption.

In arriving at this conclusion, he discusses at length two alternative methods proposed for reaching that result: (1) immediate resumption by means of a large loan; (2) gradual resumption, or preparation for resumption, by means of a sinking fund. As to a loan, it would be necessary to borrow not less than $200,000,000, which is the amount of *quasi*-Government paper authorized by the act of '74. The issue of such a loan, while the existing five per cents are so much below par, would still further depress their price, add largely to the annual interest, require the imposition of new taxes, and generally disturb trade. The bronze-token coinage, of which $15,000,000 is now in circulation, would speedily be reduced to its old amount of $4,000,000, and the balance would have to be redeemed in gold. A loan made under such circumstances would increase the annual deficit of the Budget by ten or twelve millions of dollars, and would be very likely to bring about a commercial crisis and a new and more hopeless suspension.

The creation of a sinking fund, though not so immediately dangerous, would lead almost as certainly to the same embarrassments, and it would be a very slow remedy, since an appropriation to the sinking fund of ten millions of dollars a year would not retire the $200,000,000 of paper, for which the Government is responsible, before 1894. Small as such an annual appropriation would be, so long as the revenue is deficient, it would have to be borrowed; and repeated small loans would be regarded in Europe as more detrimental to the public credit than a single large one, as they disturb quotations and are a constant reminder of new deficits.

The old method of sinking one debt by the creation of another is now thoroughly exploded, as was shown in the debate on that subject last summer in the English House of Commons. The only legitimate sinking fund is one derived from taxes, or from the sale or income of specific property; and in most cases it is far better to apply the available means directly to the debt, than to create a parallel sinking fund for its ultimate redemption. It was proposed in Italy to create a sinking fund of this sort by the conversion into *rente* of the domains held for charitable uses; but to this it was objected, that, so long as the ecclesiastical and public domains (already partly hypothecated to the public creditor) remained unsold, it would be useless to put more of that kind of property upon the market.

A loan to the Government of the whole or a part of the capital of banks, without interest, and in lieu of taxes, was also considered by Signor Minghetti. Such a plan was proposed in Austria in 1862, but had there failed. While recognizing the duty of the banks to co-operate actively with

the Government at the proper moment in restoring a sound currency, he considered that the present immobilization of a large part of their capital would bear heavily upon the industry of the country, and diminish production, which the Government have every motive to stimulate.

The whole tenor of the report goes to show that there is no trick of finance, and no ingenuity of conjuring, by which the hard reality of a deficit can be converted into a surplus, and that without a surplus, debts, however much they may be shifted, cannot be paid. The paper money of Italy is a debt, and so long as the Government is unable to meet its current expenses out of current revenue, it is a debt which it cannot pay.

It remains to say a few words in explanation of the Banking Law of 1874, a measure adopted solely with a view to its bearing on the currency question. Prior to 1866, each of the principal divisions of Italy had its own banks of issue, the circulation of which was almost wholly local. An attempt was made in 1869 to combine the national banks of Sardinia and Tuscany, in order to give a more national character to their issues; but it was defeated through provincial jealousies. Public opinion, however, both in Europe and America, has been making constant progress in the direction of a unitary currency, as was shown by the great preponderance of suffrages in its favor before the celebrated French Enquête of 1865-9. Italy has finally accepted the prevailing judgment, and the law of 1874, although it does not wholly do away with provincial issues of bank-notes, goes very far towards giving them a national character. The paper circulation is by that law restricted to the issues of six banks—namely, the National Bank of Sardinia, the National Bank of Tuscany, the Tuscan Bank of Credit, the Bank of Rome, the Bank of Naples, and the Bank of Sicily. These institutions have formed themselves into a syndicate or "consortium" (the former being the Dutch and the latter the German name for an association for financial purposes); they are jointly to issue $200,000,000 in *consortial* notes ("*biglietti consorziali*"), under their common guarantee, and the Government secures the issue by a deposit with them of public stocks. The Government is to pay the banks, for the first four years, ½ per cent. a year for the use of the notes, and after that ⅛ per cent. a year, and the banks are to make and renew the notes. They are to be printed on white paper, of the denominations of ½, 1, 2, 5, 10, 20, 100, and 1,000 *lire* (10c., 20c., 40c., $1, $2, $4, $20, and $200), and to be irredeemable and a legal tender. The banks will severally issue notes on colored paper, of the denominations of 50, 200, 500, and 1,000 *lire* ($10, $40, $100, and $200), to an amount not exceeding three times their capital as it stood at the end of November, 1873, exclusive of surplus. They are required to redeem their own notes on demand, either in coin or in notes of the syndicate, and to keep a reserve equal to one-third of their debts payable on demand, in the form either of the precious metals, of bills of exchange payable in gold, or of notes of the syndicate. Each bank is required to have an agency at Rome, and may have branches in all the cities of the kingdom. To provide for the extraordinary demands of commerce which occur at certain seasons of the year, and for cases of exceptional stringency, the Government may authorize one or all of the six banks to enlarge their circulation for a period not exceeding three months (which period may, however, be extended for good cause) to an amount equal to four times their capital, on condition of using the increase in the discount of bills. In such cases two-thirds of the gross earnings of the increased circulation goes to the Government. Contracts in gold are expressly authorized, and Signor Minghetti attaches much importance to this privilege, as a means of promoting resumption. All other circulation than that of the six banks is prohibited.

In this revision of the banking system of Italy there is manifested an entire familiarity, on the part of the framers of the law, with the best existing systems of Europe, and probably also with our own national banking law, from which the provision requiring a specific reserve against circulation and deposits seems to have been borrowed. The right conferred on the Government of authorizing an enlargement of the circulation in certain emergencies, is intended to provide against such a condition of things as has thrice led to a suspension of the English Bank Act of 1844, without previous authority of law.

Italy, while losing much by a suspension of specie payments, has also gained much in the development of her banking system, and in the familiarizing of her people with improved systems of credit and exchange, to which they were previously strangers. These benefits will remain after the evils of the forced currency have been got rid of. It must be remembered that a political revolution has taken place in that country, which, though bloodless, is not less remarkable than that which emancipated the United States from the curse of slavery. If it has not been able to escape the penalties which attach to all political revolutions, it has reaped advantages which amply compensate it for them: all Italy united under a constitutional government as popular as that of England, in place of an Austrian governor at Venice, the Pope and Cardinals at Rome, and a Bourbon at Naples; the emancipation of the people from the despotic power of priests, and a system of national education, which is eagerly embraced even by the adult population, in place of ignorance and superstition.

ENGLAND'S "IMPERIAL INSTINCTS."

LONDON, February 29, 1876.

WHEN Mr. Gladstone dissolved Parliament in January, 1874, and issued his lengthy address to the electors of Greenwich, in which he dwelt chiefly on the advantages of economy in the administration of public affairs, Mr. Disraeli, in his counter-manifesto to the electors of Buckinghamshire, taunted him with the tameness of his programme and proclaimed the necessity of "a little more energy in our foreign policy, and a little less in our domestic legislation." Mr. Gladstone's pleadings for economy were rejected, and Mr. Disraeli's proclamation was accepted by a large majority of the constituencies in the United Kingdom. These were brave words of Mr. Disraeli's, but up till the end of last session they were not followed by corresponding deeds. The "spirited foreign policy" which Mr. Disraeli had proclaimed was, like many more of his proclamations, up in the clouds. Matters went on at the Foreign Office under Mr. Disraeli's Foreign Secretary precisely as they went on under Mr. Gladstone's Foreign Secretary, and the country was well pleased that it should be so. Last spring, however, a vague idea was broached that England had said or had done something to Germany during the temporary war panic which seized upon Europe for a fortnight, and that this word or deed had produced a beneficial influence, and had materially helped to maintain peace. Mr. Disraeli, on being questioned in the House of Commons by Lord Hartington upon the subject, made use of some mysterious expressions, which his followers and the Conservative press construed into a declaration that England had averted a new Franco-German war. No one but his followers believed this for a moment: we have got to know his pleasant way of stating the reverse of what is true. And only the other day Prince Bismarck showed that so far from England having averted a Franco-German war, no such war was imminent; the suggestion even of such a war had no existence except in the imagination of some badly informed unofficial prints. Credit, therefore, for this stroke of foreign policy was bluntly swept away from Mr. Disraeli's Government. But he was equal to the occasion. He determined to show that his protestations were not all vapor. He first issued the Slave Circular, which surrendered the doctrine of the ex-territorial rights of a British man-of-war, and, in the interest of the slave-owner, reduced our proudest iron-clad to the level of a Zanzibar coaster; and then he bought, in the Queen's name, at twice their value, certain shares in a foreign canal company, and announced that by so doing he had made England's influence paramount in the management of the Canal, and that he had secured the road to India—a doctrine that has been rudely shocked this morning by the official statement that Sir Daniel Lange, the English representative, has been abruptly dismissed from his position by M. de Lesseps and his co-directors because he had presumed to criticise unfavorably the action of the company in some private letters which had been indiscreetly published.

But, strange as it may sound to you on the other side of the Atlantic, these vague words of the Prime Minister, and these strangely inadequate deeds, have produced some temporary effect upon the tone and feeling of the country. They have encouraged a certain restlessness of temper which cannot be regarded by sober-minded people with satisfaction. An impression has been given that the present Government mean to take up the rôle, which had been for a long time prudently abandoned, of meddling and interfering in the affairs of Continental nations. Mr. Disraeli has always expressed admiration for Mr. Pitt and his policy, both foreign and domestic, and has arrogated to himself and to his party the attributes and claimed the political inheritance of Mr. Pitt's legitimate successors. That Mr. Pitt's foreign policy was spirited and energetic we have good reason to know only too well, for since 1815 we have done little but regret it; and even now, although we have preached the doctrines of non-intervention since that time, and practised them, we are still weighted with a national debt of over seven hundred million sterling—the *damnosa hereditas* which Mr. Pitt's spirit and energy have left us. At the end, therefore, of sixty years of almost uninterrupted peace, we are alarmed—it may be unnecessarily alarmed—that the present Government have it in contemplation to signalize themselves by some course of action at variance with what has wisely become our traditional policy.

I fear, too, it cannot be said that these alarms are altogether groundless. There are certain indications that something of the kind is in the minds of

more than one of the Cabinet Ministers. Ten days ago Lord Salisbury—a man I can never look at without being reminded of the Strafford of Charles's time, and his ambitions, and his end—speaking at the dinner of the Associated Chambers of Agriculture, gave utterance to the following sentiments: "Nobody can fail to recognize," he said, "that a different feeling has pervaded the country during the last few months from that which we have been accustomed to in recent years. There is a kind of sensation, a thrill, a longing for action, a desire for a definite aim to be stated and a definite policy announced. Foreign nations have thought that a new spirit, one altogether strange, has come over the country." These are dangerous words for a Cabinet Minister to use. If it be a fact that this sort of feeling is abroad, the less it receives public recognition from a responsible Minister, the better for the country. If it is not a fact, then is the Minister who tries to generate it in the country without excuse. A longing for action once roused in a nation like England, fanned by silly or perverted newspapers, and fostered by unwise Cabinet Ministers, is apt to lead only too rapidly into something worse than longing. If the feeling exists, it should be checked; if it does not exist, it should not be suggested.

But Lord Salisbury is not alone in thus coquetting with dangerous incentives. Last week, in the debate on the Suez Canal operation, the Prime Minister made use of the following expression in the elaborately-prepared peroration of his speech: "I have always and do now recommend it [the purchase of the Canal shares] to the country as a political transaction, and one which I believe is calculated to strengthen the empire. That is the spirit in which it has been accepted by the country. . . . They are seasick of the 'silver streak.' They want the empire to be maintained, to be strengthened; *they will not be alarmed even if it be increased.*" This, taken alone, would be regarded merely as a piece of Mr. Disraeli's characteristic tinsel—thrown out to make a momentary effect or raise a cheer, and meaning no more than his "veiled rebellion" or any oracular sentence out of 'Lothair' or 'Henrietta Temple.' But, taken along with his protestations in favor of an energetic foreign policy, along with Lord Salisbury's studied words, along with an unusual activity in the dockyards, and a large increase in the army and navy estimates, it has set people who are not alarmists talking and thinking and wishing with some anxiety that we had less eccentricity and more solid sense at the head of affairs. The metropolitan newspapers, on the other hand—and in England it is always well to distinguish between the metropolitan and the provincial press, equally able, but not equally reflective of public opinion—or at least some of them, the wilder though perhaps not the wisest, have encouraged these eccentricities. They have manufactured a silly phrase—"the imperial instincts of the nation"—and they are working it as a child works a new toy. In season and out of season, they are tossing this phrase about. When Mr. Disraeli wishes to give a new title to our old monarchy, or when he sends Mr. Cave out to inspect the Khedive's private affairs, or when he gives Messrs. Rothschild an unreasonable commission for an unsatisfactory purchase, "the imperial instincts of the nation" are said to be asserting themselves. The new constituencies, these wild newspapers say, have an elevated ideal of the national honor, quite different from that of the old middle-class constituencies—the latter cared only for the breeches' pocket. They had the shop-keeping, not the imperial instincts. The new constituencies look for grander things. They look for the "strengthening," perhaps the "extension," of the empire.

I do not for a moment believe that the new constituencies care one straw for these new newspaper notions, or that they have in any respect either a higher or a lower ideal of national honor than the old constituencies. Every class in these islands is animated with much the same ideas or instincts on this matter. They are jealous of it almost to a fault, and they would rise in their wrath and hurl any Ministry from power under whom the national honor was tarnished. But the middle classes have more common sense. They have more political knowledge, and they are more critical than many of those recently enfranchised. They are consequently less likely to be carried away by the wild statements of Cabinet Ministers and the silly phrases of irresponsible prints. It is quite in the power of these Ministers and the metropolitan press to produce "sensations," and "thrills," and "longing for action" in the lower and less educated class of voters, if they are so reckless as to do so. In 1853, under the régime of the old constituencies, when we were drifting helplessly on the Eastern question, the newspapers insensibly acted as propelling currents which ultimately stranded us in the Crimean war. At the present moment we are just beginning to lose command of the vessel, and, unless some unforeseen events produce a change of policy, we shall soon be drifting we know not whither. The Eastern Question is opening up before us, and we have entered on what may turn out to be most complicated relations with the Egyptian Government. Only this afternoon a telegram has arrived from the Khedive, proposing that our Government should appoint a commissioner who, along with commissioners appointed by Italy and France, should act as delegates of the Egyptian Government to control the management of a new National Bank of Egypt which sundry French financiers have projected. In other words, the Khedive has asked the British Government to float a new company to pay off his debts, and we feel no confidence that the stock-jobbing instincts of the present Ministry will not lead them to undertake the operation. These complicated transactions must lead before long to serious entanglements with Continental states, and out of these entanglements too many opportunities may arise for gratifying this "longing for action" which Lord Salisbury has so sedulously fostered. He and Mr. Disraeli are the men of strong will and dangerous determinations in the present Ministry. Lord Derby means well, and would be honest if he could. But he is not a far-seeing man, neither is he courageous. He is like Lord Aberdeen in the Crimean Cabinet, and would follow, protesting and vacillating, where the stronger spirits lead. Mr. Gathorne Hardy is of that impetuous temperament that would make him follow also after what he would be told was the "imperial instinct." Mr. Ward Hunt will probably have to leave them soon. The Duke of Richmond, the Earl of Malmesbury, and Lord John Manners are of no account. There remain but four men in the Cabinet who have wills of their own. Lord Cairns would in all probability incline towards the stronger natures, and Sir Stafford Northcote could be persuaded to move reluctantly where they lead. Mr. Cross, the nominee and friend of Lord Derby, is a man of some character and independence; but he has no knowledge of foreign affairs, and has neither political reputation nor official experience to warrant him in asserting his own opinion against that of his colleagues. There is only one man in the Cabinet who could be trusted to take a decided line apart from Mr. Disraeli and Lord Salisbury, and he is the present Colonial Secretary, Lord Carnarvon. He is a man of strict integrity and good judgment, and one who thinks for himself. So long as he remains in the Cabinet, it is unlikely that any fatal mistake will be made. But he may leave his colleagues as he did in 1867. If he were gone, and the popularity of the Ministry were waning, I should be sorry to think of the difficulties and troubles into which we might be precipitated by the eccentric vanity of Mr. Disraeli and the arrogant wrong-headedness of Lord Salisbury, acting upon a public opinion which they, with the aid of a portion of the press, had stimulated and excited into a "longing for action" and a desire for an "extension" of the empire—whether in India or nearer home.

Notes.

SCRIBNER, ARMSTRONG & CO. have printed a second and cheaper edition of Ueberweg's 'History of Philosophy,' to the unusual merits of which, both as an original work and as a translation, we have already testified (*Nation*, No. 349). The same house will publish in this country the 'Memoirs' of the late Dr. Norman Macleod.——The 'United States Business Directory for 1876' (New York: George De Colange & Co.) enters upon its second year, and still remains, we believe, the only publication of its kind in the country, though its value by no means lies solely in this fact. It is very comprehensive and reasonably accurate, and its utility is too obvious to call for comment. It embraces the Dominion of Canada, the Island of Cuba, and selected parts and business houses of England, Scotland, and France. A list of dutiable articles under the existing tariff concludes the volume, which fills 1,600 pages.——The issues of the *Art Journal* (D. Appleton & Co.) since the beginning of the year have contained a large number of more or less striking sketches after Landseer, the usual proportion of steel engravings of the works of European painters, and of woodcuts of American paintings; serial illustrated papers on the "Costume of English Women from the Heptarchy to the Present Day," by Walter Thornbury; on the "Homes" of England and America; on "Japanese Art," by Sir Rutherford Alcock; and on "Household Art," by Mr. Charles Wyllys Elliott. A movement of some interest, and we hope of some importance, is described under the head of "Household Art in Chicago."——From the spring announcements of new books in the *Publishers' Weekly* we select the following:—Harper & Bros.: 'The Mikado's Kingdom,' by W. J. Griffiths, lately professor in the University of Tokio; 'Stray Studies in Italy and England,' by J. R. Green; and 'Homeric Synchronism,' by W. E. Gladstone. D. Appleton & Co.: 'Lessons from Nature, as manifested in Mind and Matter,' by St. George Mivart; 'Memoir and Correspondence of Caroline Herschel,' by Mrs. John Herschel—a charming work; 'The Progress of

Science,' a short history for scholars and young persons, by Arabella B. Buckley; and a 'Primer of English Literature,' by Rev. Stopford A. Brooke. Hurd & Houghton: 'Charcoal Drawing,' from the French of Auguste Allongé. G. P. Putnam's Sons: 'The Plains and their Inhabitants,' by Gen. Richard Irving Dodge. Jas. R. Osgood & Co.: 'Sights and Insights,' by Mrs. A. D. T. Whitney; Mr. Howells's serial, 'Private Theatricals'; and the admirably instructive 'Habitations of Man, in all Ages,' from the French of Viollet-le-Duc, of which some instalments have been given in the *American Architect*. Roberts Bros.: 'Paragraph History of the American Revolution,' by Rev. Edward Abbott; 'Buddecombe Hall,' by F. C. Burnand; Landor's 'Imaginary Conversations'; Lord Houghton's 'Poetical Works,' in 2 vols.; 'Outlines of the Religion and Philosophy of Swedenborg,' by Theophilus Parsons; 'A Nile Journal,' by T. G. Appleton, illustrated by Eugene Benson; and 'Mountains,' by Miss Cook. Lockwood, Brooks & Co.: Ewald's 'Antiquities of Israel'; 'Working People and their Employers,' by Rev. Washington Gladden; and a 'Life of Israel Putnam,' by I. N. Tarbox. Turnbull Bros., Baltimore: 'The Southern Side of the Story of Andersonville,' compiled from official documents by Dr. R. R. Stevenson; a 'Life of Gen. R. E. Lee,' by Col. Marshall; and a 'Life of Alex. H. Stephens,' by Col. R. M. Johnston and Dr. Wm. Hand Brown.——Mr. Henry James, jr.'s Tales, including his 'Roderick Hudson,' have just appeared in a German translation in 3 vols.——Mr. Alfred Russell Smith, 36 Soho Square, London, has issued a 'Catalogue of Books illustrating the Life and Works of Shakspere.' Its 568 numbers are supplemented by an index of authors and editors, as rare in such publications as it is welcome.——A recent advertisement in *Nature* invites applicants for the annual allowance provided in the trust of the late Robert Wilson, M.D., for a graduate in medicine of the University of Aberdeen who will travel under certain conditions in Western Asia, or Eastern or Northern Africa.

—The library of the late Samuel Gardner Drake is to be offered at public sale in Boston in two portions, the first on May 2 and the second on June 6; while a large number of manuscripts, autographs, and portraits, and about 15,000 pamphlets, will form the subject of a special sale, to be announced hereafter. Mr. Samuel Adams Drake sends us Parts I. and II. of his catalogue of the bound volumes, to which he has prefixed a modest and brief account of his father's career as antiquarian, bookseller, publisher, editor, and author. Valuable as this collection is, and highly specialized in some directions, it is clearly not one that will escape the fate of dispersion. The great public libraries will contend with private collectors for its prizes, but as a whole it could hardly be absorbed profitably by any who are likely to compete for it. The catalogue contains 10,417 numbers, of which the first half appear to be the more valuable, since they embrace the 215 Indian titles associated with Mr. Drake's earliest and favorite researches, the 160 family genealogies, the collections and transactions of historical societies, the catalogues of a great number of public and private libraries, an unusual assortment of city directories, "author's editions" of his own works, etc., etc. No less than 75 numbers represent works by various persons of the name of Drake. No. 2866 is the author's copy of the 'History and Antiquities of Boston,' in folio (folded), with 183 plates, folio size. "The plates are a unique collection, embracing many of great rarity." Among the MSS. to be sold later are five manuscript volumes, closely written, containing the materials gathered by Mr. Drake during forty years for a biography of Sir Francis Drake, and now ready to the hand of any literary aspirant. Nos. 2809–2816 are the printed works relating to the great admiral. Other lines which we have noticed as being well represented are, in Part I., Hakluyt, Franklin, Wm. Hubbard, Thomas Fuller, Jonathan Edwards, "election sermons," and early pamphlet editions of our foremost poets; in Part II., the works of the Mathers, of Jedediah Morse, of Paine, of Whitefield, Washington and Webster pamphlets, local-history pamphlets, maps, old newspapers, etc. The catalogue is well worth owning for its own sake, albeit not above criticism typographically and otherwise. For instance, the query at No. 1346, "Bangay, Geo. W. (Pseud. ?)" was surely unnecessary.

—Those who have ever enquired into the origin as well as studied the development of the lecture system peculiar to this country know that it had its rise in Essex County, Mass., and that in the beginning it was designed to furnish the means of popularizing the best science of the day. In other words, the first lecturers were men whose title to be listened to was that they really had something to impart, and understood what they were talking about, and who depended neither on their brilliant delivery nor on mere notoriety to gain hearers. Without asserting that the only proper function of the lecture course is to instruct, we think it will not be denied that the system has been so shockingly abused, has become to so large an extent the vehicle of gab, that any return to its primitive direction is fairly to be welcomed. The invention of photography and of the stereoscope, and the combination of these in the stereopticon, have paved the way for such a return, with an effectiveness impossible in those earlier days. We imagine it is owing to the lack of a cheap and easily portable as well as powerful illuminator—such as we may hope for eventually from the electric light—that serious exhibitions with the stereopticon are still so infrequent; and yet if lecture committees were to provide regularly for at least one such exhibition in every course, the supply would doubtless soon be found equal to the demand, with a corresponding increase of facilities. The lectures given by Mr. Wood, the explorer of Ephesus, in this city and elsewhere, will be remembered as of the sort which we are recommending; and on a similar subject the Rev. Henry G. Spaulding, a graduate of Harvard, has been lecturing with great acceptance for the past two seasons, at the Lowell Institute in Boston, the Peabody Institute in Baltimore, and in other institutions and cities. His purpose is to describe, with all the force of photographic illustrations from ancient remains in Rome and Pompeii, the mode of life of the Romans, the nature of their architecture, the Catacombs, St. Peter's, etc., etc. It is one of a thousand branches of knowledge which might profitably be treated in the same way, by object-lessons on a grand scale, and we hope Mr. Spaulding may have a good many imitators, as well as continue to meet with success in his own chosen field.

—Miss Valeria Gigliucci writes us from Genoa, under date of February 20, as follows:

"In reading the first chapter of 'Maumat'ha,' by Charles A. de Kay, which appears in the February number of the *Atlantic Monthly*, I was struck with the extraordinary resemblance it bears to one of the most striking episodes in Mrs. Cowden Clarke's charming, fanciful story of 'Kit Bam, Mariner,' which appeared in England in 1849. The episode I allude to is that of Velata, the invisible girl. Not only is the principal fact of a real flesh-and-blood woman, being of a race invisible to usual mortals, the same in both tales, but many of the minor details also, such as her coming to visit a mortal man, and dwelling in his hut—objects in the room moving apparently of their own accord—the two, visible and invisible, falling in love with each other—members of the invisible race coming to fetch her away, etc. Probably all this is merely a coincidence (or, as Mr. Puff says, in Sheridan's *Critic*, 'of no consequence; all that can be said is, that two people happened to hit on the same thought—and Shakspere made use of it first—that's all'); at all events, I wish to vindicate Mrs. Cowden Clarke's claim as original author of so imaginative a conception, so poetically and touchingly carried out in her delightful book."

—In the 'Rules of Rhyme,' an excellent little hand-book to verse-making, written half-a-dozen years ago by the younger Tom Hood, we find a suggestion to which we may refer as bearing somewhat on the subject of our remarks upon 'Feminine Poetry' in No. 556. Mr. Hood advised the general instruction of the young in the art of making verses, as a means of escaping the ever-swelling tide of "poetry" written by those who can truly echo the hero of Mr. Browning's 'One Word More' in saying, "Verse and nothing else have I to give you." It would seem at first as though this treatment would aggravate rather than reduce the disease. Mr. Hood did not think so. In the note to p. xi. he says: "There is one decided advantage to the public which would accrue from the teaching of versification in schools. We should be saved the infliction of much nonsense published under the name of poetry. For it is to be hoped that no man who had been well-grounded in the mechanism of verse as a lad would think of publishing in mature age what he would know were but school exercises only, and not poems." Not only would the practice of verse-making have the negative merit here claimed, but it would also positively do good from its tendency to correct inaccurate pronunciation. In those colleges the design of whose curriculum is to give general culture, English versification might well be considered, even though there could not be allotted to it the time now given to the piecing-out of Latin verses in the English public schools.

—The last numbers of the *Romania* contain two curious instances of the way in which valuable MSS. supposed to be lost occasionally turn up. A year or two ago a French scholar, while calling on a professor of one of the Paris lyceums, noticed an old pasteboard box covered with scraps of parchment. He examined these, and, among others of no value, found several leaves containing verses belonging evidently to a *chanson de geste*. He at once copied some and showed them to M. Paul Meyer, who immediately saw that they belonged to the poem of "Mainet." All that was legible was afterwards copied, and is now given to the light for the first time by Gaston Paris. The value of these fragments will be evident when we say that they are all that remain of the French version of "Mainet," the name given to the young Charlemagne, who, according to

tradition, spent his youth in Spain, fell in love with the fair Galiana, and escaped after many romantic adventures. Another MS., long supposed to be lost, was a collection of old French lyrics known as the 'Chansonnier Clairembaut,' and often quoted by Sainte-Pelaye and the Marquis de Cangé. G. Paris and P. Meyer thought they had identified it with the MS. in the National Library fr. 845, but Julius Brakelmann, one of the victims of the late war, showed conclusively in the *Jahrbuch für Romanische und Englische Literatur*, xi. 97, that they were mistaken. The original MS. has just turned up in the possession of a lady who inherited it from her father. It must have been lost by some accident when the books and papers of Clairembaut were taken at the time of the Revolution to the National Library. Arrangements have been made for its restoration to the already rich collection of old French lyric MSS. in that library.

—The January number of the same periodical contains an interesting account by P. Meyer of an old French poem on the subject of the first Crusade, lately discovered by him in a MS. belonging to the Vicar of Spalding in Lincolnshire, England. It is known that the metrical histories of the first Crusade have either been lost or made over in such a way as to deprive them of their value. The poem before us is of no historical worth, as it has been taken from well-known Latin sources, but possesses considerable literary interest. Reinhold Köhler contributes an Icelandic story which bears a strong resemblance to the Italian novel of Prester John in the 'Cento Novelle Antiche.' Another article of interest to students of comparative folk-lore is the first instalment of a collection of popular stories of Lorraine, edited by E. Cosquin, with valuable annotations. Besides these, there are a number of purely philological articles, book-notices, and, what constitutes such a valuable feature of many European journals, a résumé of articles in other periodicals relating to the Romance languages and literature.

—Ferdinand Freiligrath, who died at Cannstadt on Saturday last in his sixty-sixth year, was perhaps better known in this country than a critical study of his writings would warrant. He had a bold, brilliant style, and generally took for his subjects only the most striking things he could find or invent, and hence those who prepared German Readers for the use of students found his highly-colored verses more attractive to youth than better poetry might have been. If he belonged to a somewhat artificial school of writers, he yet deserved credit for the number of excellent translations he made of French and English authors into German. These form the best part of his work and are wonderfully good, and may serve as admirable examples of the flexibility of the German language. Freiligrath was born June 17, 1810, in Detmold, and was for some years engaged in trade. In 1838 he published a volume of poems, which met with a ready sale and encouraged him to devote himself to literature. In 1842 he received a moderate pension from the King of Prussia, which the growth of his liberal principles compelled him soon to resign. He took part in the troubles of 1848, and on that account was obliged to leave Germany, and he lived a long time in London, but the last few years of his life he has passed in his own country.

—A few months ago (see the *Nation*, No. 538) we reviewed briefly the fifth and sixth volumes of Waitz's 'Deutsche Verfassungsgeschichte,' being the first and second volumes of the 'Deutsche Reichsverfassung von der Mitte des neunten bis zur Mitte des zwölften Jahrhunderts.' This is the fourth division of the entire work; the first and second—the Primitive and the Merovingian periods—forming each one volume, and the Carolingian period two volumes. Supposing that this fourth division was complete with these two volumes, we expressed surprise at the omission of certain points, especially the city organization. A third volume, however, the seventh of the entire work, has just appeared, containing four very important chapters—the Counts (including Margraves and Landgraves), the Dukes and Pfalzgraves, the High Ecclesiastics, and the Principalities and Cities; by *Principalities* being understood the administration under the princes, especially the office of *Vogt*. The period under consideration, being that of the development of feudalism, presents few distinct and defined institutions. The counts and dukes are no longer pure magistrates, but are not yet fully-developed hereditary princes; the *Vogt* is still the officer of the lord of the Immunity, but is on his way to become his superior; the gathering place for purposes of market and defence is beginning to acquire a corporate existence, but is not yet a free city. The office of duke, by the way, is regarded by Waitz (p. 65) as in a certain sense developed from that of *Markgraf*—that is, the men who had in charge the defence of the several frontiers raised themselves to a leading position at the head of their respective nationalities (*Stämme*); and this was a chief source of the revival of the national dukedoms in the tenth century.

MÜLLER'S CHIPS FROM A GERMAN WORKSHOP.*

THE miscellaneous character suggested by the title of Professor Müller's Essays belongs more to the collection as a whole than to the separate volumes, the grouping being such as to give to each volume a distinct and somewhat homogeneous character. This fourth volume is occupied mainly with the science of language, and contains the following lectures and essays: Oxford Inaugural Lecture on the Value of Comparative Philology as a Branch of Academic Study (1868); two Rede Lectures before the University of Cambridge—on the Stratification of Language (1868), and on Curtius's Chronology of the Indo-Germanic Languages (1875); lecture on the Migration of Fables (1870); lecture before the University of Strassburg on the Results of the Science of Language (1872); lecture on Missions in Westminster Abbey (1873), to which are added Dean Stanley's sermon on the same occasion, and a postscript on the Vitality of Brahmanism; address before the Oriental Congress on the Importance of Oriental Studies (1874); Life of Colebrooke, with extracts from his manuscript notes on Comparative Philology (1872); Reply to Mr. Darwin (1875); In Self-Defence (1875). Three of these, the Oxford Inaugural, the Second Rede Lecture, and "In Self-Defence" are here first printed, and to some of the others illustrative notes have been newly added. The last-named essay contains such an extraordinary defence of himself and still more extraordinary attack upon an American scholar, that we shall make no apology for devoting to it the space at our disposal, merely saying of the volume as a whole that it is not inferior in interest to the earlier volumes of the series.

The circumstances immediately leading to the publication of the article in question are these: Mr. George H. Darwin, a son of the celebrated naturalist, had given in the *Contemporary Review* for November, 1874, with additions of his own, an outline of the argument contained in Professor Whitney's article in the *North American Review* for July of the same year, entitled "Darwinism and Language," and directed mainly against the position which Müller had taken in his "Lectures on Mr. Darwin's Philosophy of Language." This called forth "My Reply to Mr. Darwin," published in the *Contemporary* for January, 1875, and in the *Deutsche Rundschau* for March. A rejoinder from Professor Whitney, entitled "Are Languages Institutions?" appeared in the *Contemporary* for April and in the *Rundschau* for August, 1875. Next in order comes "In Self-Defence." In a letter to the editor of the *Academy*, printed in the number for January 1, 1876, Professor Whitney pointed out a few of the misrepresentations contained in the article, and in the next number Müller withdrew and apologized for one of them, but passed over the others in silence, which under the circumstances was a confession that they admitted neither of defence nor of excuse.

The vulgar abuse so freely heaped by Professor Müller upon his opponent, whom he introduces to us (p. 464) as "a gentleman who had acquired considerable notoriety, not, indeed, by any special and original researches in Comparative Philology, but by his repeated attempts at vilifying the works of other scholars," is too obviously the "mire and dirt cast up by the waters of a troubled sea" to require comment. It is only his misrepresentation and falsification of the facts of the controversy which can mislead. To set forth the full extent and variety of these would require a volume; we can here give only a few characteristic specimens. And first, an example or two of the manner in which Professor Müller quotes from his own writings. To show that so long ago as 1854 he was no stranger to the correct distinction between vowels and consonants, he quotes (p. 492) from his 'Proposals for a Missionary Alphabet,' published in that year, as follows:

"If we regard the human voice as a continuous stream of air, emitted as breath from the lungs and changed [by the vibration of the *chordæ vocales*] into vocal sound as it leaves the larynx, this stream itself, as modified by certain positions of the mouth, would represent the vowels. In the consonants, on the contrary, we should have to recognize a number of stops opposing for a moment the free passage of this vocal *air*."

In quoting this passage, Professor Müller has interpolated the words which we have enclosed in brackets, and substituted at the close vocal *air* for vocal *stream*, with the obvious design of disguising its real sense, which would be anything but suitable for his purpose. The work in question, and even the very passage quoted, teach unmistakably a doctrine which Müller would now be the first to repudiate, namely, that the breath with which *all* the consonants are uttered is, as it leaves the larynx, intonated, and is subsequently shaped, according to the nature of the obstacles which it encounters, into surd and sonant. In other words, he at that date obviously

* 'Chips from a German Workshop. By F. Max Müller. Vol. IV. Essays chiefly on the Science of Language. With Index to Vols. III. and IV.' New York: Scribner, Armstrong & Co. 1876. 8vo, pp. 565.

knew nothing whatever of the office of the *chordæ vocales*. A further quotation from the 'Proposals' (p. 5) will place this beyond question :

"*Formation of the Tenuis.* If the voice is stopped sharp by the contact of the organs, so as to allow for the moment no breath or sound to escape, the consonant is called *tenuis*, hard or surd (k, t, p).

"*Formation of the Media.* If the voice is stopped less abruptly, so as to allow a kind of breathing to continue after the first contact has taken place, the consonant is called *media*, soft or sonant (g, d, b)."

In his 'Science of Language,' Professor Müller fell into the opposite error, and denied that even the sonant mutes were pronounced with tonic vibrations of the vocal chords, although he now (p. 497) emphatically disclaims this doctrine also, and denies that he ever held it. We need, however, only to supply the passage which he judiciously omits from the middle of the quotation given on page 496 to show the contrary. It is this :

"Some persons have been so entirely deceived by the term sonant that they imagined all the so-called sonant letters to be actually pronounced with *tonic vibrations* of the *chordæ vocales*. This is physically impossible ; for if we really tried to intone *p* or *b*, we should either destroy the *p* and *b*, or be suffocated in our attempt at producing voice" ('Science of Language,' II., p. 156 ; 6th (Engl.) ed., p. 158).

Yet on the page following this omission (p. 497), he says : "If Professor Whitney asserts 'that I *repeatedly* will not allow that the sonant letters *are* intonated, but only that they *may be* intonated,' I have no answer but a direct negative." Then in a foot-note he admits that he has used the language attributed to him, "but," he adds, "that a professor in an American university should have taken my words in that sense (*i.e.*, only capable of intonation, not necessarily intonated) is to me, I confess, a puzzle, call it intellectual or moral, as you like." In other words, Professor Whitney ought to have understood him to mean what in the same chapter he had declared to be a physical impossibility !

A few examples, next, of his quotations from Professor Whitney. In his 'Language and the Study of Language' (page 51) Professor Whitney, speaking of the "absence of reflection and conscious intent which takes away from the facts of language the subjective character which would otherwise belong to them as products of voluntary action," had said : "*So far as concerns the purposes for which he [the linguistic student] examines them and the results he would derive from them*, they are almost as little the work of man as is the form of his own skull." Professor Müller, in his "Reply to Mr. Darwin," had quoted this sentence, omitting the italicized portion, and giving it thereby just the opposite force. When his attention was called to this by Professor Whitney (*Contemp. Rev.*, p. 736 ; *Deutsche Rundschau*, p. 273), Müller, taking the German version, in which "so far as concerns the purposes" had been rendered, very properly, by "gegenüber den Zwecken," retranslates this into English "*as opposed* to the objects," making thereby the whole passage absolutely meaningless. And having in this ingenious manner got his parallax, he proceeds to measure the difference between what Professor Whitney "really said" and what he (according to Professor Müller) "says that he said," and fitly crowns the impudence of his procedure by the following comment (p. 479) :

"But even thus, the facts [what facts ?] remain as I, not as he, had stated them. There was no garbling on my part, but something worse than garbling on his ; and all this for no purpose whatever, except for one which I do not like to suggest."

Of the array of quotations which Professor Müller brings forward (page 505 ff.) in support of the charge that Professor Whitney had been guilty of the use of abusive language, the first is this :

"Page 332 ['Orient. and Ling. Stud.' I]. Why does he call Professor Steinthal *Hajjim Steinthal ?* Is that personal or not ?"

It would be a sufficient answer to say that the reference is to the first sentence of Professor Whitney's essay on Steinthal, where the latter would be entitled by common usage to receive his full name. To show, however, what a keen scent Professor Müller has for personalities (in others), we give the sentence in full : "Hajjim Steinthal, though little known to the general English-reading public, is one of the leading linguistic scholars of Germany." If now we should ask Professor Müller why, in the middle of the present essay (page 500), he twice speaks of "Mr. William Dwight Whitney," he could only answer that he meant to be offensive. But he is by no means content with such violence as may be done by merely taking a word, phrase, or sentence apart from its connection ; he frequently alters the language which he quotes, omitting qualifying expressions, making of a particular statement a general one, extending a criticism of a single argument to the mode of arguing in general, of a single chapter to the whole book, and applying to persons what was said only of things. Thus, Professor Whitney (*Jour. Amer. Orient. Soc.*, VIII., p. 68) had said of a certain statement of Lassen's respecting Colebrooke : "The statement is wholly and reprehensibly inaccurate : Colebrooke has neither done, nor attempted to do, any such thing" ; and the quotations which he proceeds to give from Colebrooke show that the language was not at all too strong. This is the use which Müller makes of it (page 510) : "A man who could say of Lassen that his statements were 'wholly and reprehensibly incorrect' because he said that Colebrooke had shown that the Arabs received their lunar mansions from the Hindus, was not likely to show mercy to any other German professor." Sometimes, while still preserving the marks of quotation, he gives a mere travesty of Professor Whitney's language, as when he makes him say of Oppert (page 515), "He is a Jew, and wanted to stand up for the Shemites."

Professor Müller, in his "Reply to Mr. Darwin" (p. 431), had given a list of "*epitheta ornantia*, such as *worthless, futile, absurd*, etc.," gathered from Professor Whitney's writings very much as one might pick them out of a dictionary, adding, "I believe there is not one of these choice counters with which, at some time or other, he has not presented me." Professor Whitney, in replying (*Contemp. Rev.*, p. 737), quoted in full, by way of example, the passage from which Müller had taken some of these epithets, showing that no personal application was or could have been intended, and if any were made, it must be by Müller, not by himself. Professor Müller, returning to this point, says (p. 516), "I add a few more references to the *epitheta ornantia* which I was charged with having invented. 'Utter futility' (p. 36) ; 'meaningless and futile' (p. 152) ; 'headlong materialists' (p. 153), etc." Now, he had nowhere been charged with the invention of these epithets, he has only invented the charge ; but to show what kind of fish come to his net, we give in full the passages above referred to, the first three in his list :

"The *utter futility* of deriving such a doctrine from such a pair of incidents, or from a score, a hundred, or a thousand like them, is almost too obvious to be worth the trouble of pointing out."

"To ascribe the differences of language and linguistic growth directly to 'physical causes,' to make them dependent on 'peculiarities of organization,' whether cerebral, laryngal, or other, is wholly *meaningless and futile*."

"There are *headlong materialists* who pronounce man the slave and the sport of nature."

These are average specimens of the personalities which Professor Müller finds, and this is his comment upon them : "What a contrast between the rattling discharges of these *mitrailleuses* at the beginning of the war, and the whining and whimpering assurance now made by the American Professor that he never in his life said anything personal or offensive"—this last being the simple *Mülleresque* of Professor Whitney's declaration respecting his essay on Steinthal : "That there were any personalities in it I utterly deny ; it was an argument throughout, if a polemical one ; it addressed itself only to the opinions it opposed and the considerations by which these were supported" (*Contemp. Rev.*, p. 729 ; *Deutsche Rundschau*, p. 276).

Nor are Professor Müller's statements of fact any more to be taken on trust than his quotations. Witness the explanation given (p. 511 ff.) of his shameful attack on the editors and contributors to the St. Petersburg Sanskrit dictionary, to which we alluded last week. The history of the affair is in brief this : Professor Goldstücker, in the *Westminster Review* for April, 1855, had made a violent assault upon the plan of the dictionary, then just begun, mainly on the ground that too little respect was shown for the authority of the Hindu grammarians and commentators. Professor Haug, in the preface to the 'Aitareya Brahmanam,' published in 1863, repeated, in a milder form, the same charge. In a review of this last-named work, published anonymously in the *Saturday Review* of March 19, 1864, Professor Müller says that Dr. Haug "protests like Professor Goldstücker against the system followed of late years by the editors and contributors to the work, who sing each other's praises in the literary journals of Russia, Germany, and America, and speak slightingly of all who have not joined this International Sanskrit Insurance Society," and Professor Haug is assured that "any attacks on his work in the journals of the Mutual Praise Society will little affect the opinion of those whose good opinion is alone worth having." Now, neither Goldstücker nor Haug has made any such protest. Müller simply forged their endorsement to a false accusation of his own. The two editors—Professors Böhtlingk and Roth—wrote nothing in defence of the dictionary, much less in praise of each other. Of the contributors two only, Professors Weber and Kuhn, replied to the attack, but Goldstücker in his rejoinder (in his 'Panini,' 1861), which was in other respects virulent enough, did not venture to charge them with the offence in question. So much for the original merits of the slander, the innocent motive of which, as Müller now tells us, was his desire to give a proof of his friendship to Goldstücker, who, "when the attacks by the company of collaborators on him grew thicker and thicker [like Falstaff's men in buckram], . . .

persuaded himself that I had taken part against him, that I had, in fact, become a sleeping-partner in what was then called [as we must suppose, by Müller and Goldstücker in their private intercourse] the 'International Praise Insurance Society.'" In the following year, 1865, the article was republished by Weber in the ninth volume of the 'Indische Studien' with a few words of comment, and in 1867 Müller himself reprinted it with some alterations and additions in the first volume of 'Chips,' omitting the offensive paragraph, but supplying its place with a note still more offensive (p. 114). Five years after the original publication of the article, and two years after it had been reprinted by the author (the dates are important), Professor Whitney, who had hitherto taken no part in the controversy, in a notice of Müller's 'Chips' in the *North American Review* for October, 1869, took occasion to speak of Müller's conduct in the affair in language which, though severe, was too mild for the offence. The facts were even worse for Müller than he represented them, and would have justified even greater severity. And now Müller (p. 512) coolly sets the evidence of the dates at defiance by the assertion that "one of the chief culprits, nay, as appeared afterwards, the most eager mischief-maker, was Professor Whitney himself." Nor is this the only anachronism of which he is guilty. In the note in 'Chips' Müller had characterized Weber's remarks on his article as "a very loud and boisterous denial," and Professor Whitney in his notice had taken him to task for the expression. Müller now, after quoting some of the language of this notice, adds: "And this, we are asked to believe, is not loud and boisterous"—*i.e.*, he gives us to understand that these words which he wrote in 1867 were meant to apply to something which Professor Whitney wrote in 1869!

We have seen how Professor Müller can be just, let us now see how he can be generous:

"It was because I thought Professor Whitney capable of rendering useful service to the science of language in America that I forbore so long; that I never for years noticed his intentional rudeness and arrogance; that I received him when he called on me at Oxford with perfect civility; that I assisted him when he wanted my help in procuring copies of MSS. at Oxford. I could well afford to forget what had happened," etc. (p. 527).

Professor Müller's language implies that his forbearance, and of course the occasion for it, began before Professor Whitney's Oxford visit, whereas this visit, the last occasion on which they have met, took place in 1856, several years before the publication of the views, chiefly on the science of language, which Professor Whitney felt himself called upon to controvert. His grievances began, at the earliest, in 1863, and could hardly have become serious before 1865, when Professor Whitney first reviewed his 'Science of Language.' The service of which he speaks consisted in finding a young man who for a suitable compensation collated a Sanskrit MS., and he forgets to mention that he had himself on three previous occasions asked and received from Professor Whitney favors of at least equal magnitude, the last of them in 1864, within a few weeks of his indecent attack in the *Saturday Review*, distinctly aimed among others at that scholar. That since 1865 he has assiduously nursed his wrath we can easily believe—the violence of the present explosion is not otherwise to be explained; but we cannot help thinking that it would have been better if he had not forborne so long. If he had let off his anger by degrees, the consequences to his own reputation must have been much less serious.

After these specimens of the "bare facts" to which, as Professor Müller (p. 528) informs us, he wished to confine his reply as much as possible (what must the part suppressed have been!), it is hardly necessary to remark that when he tells us (p. 498) that for the last twenty years he has submitted everything that he has written on the alphabet, before it was published, to the approval of such men as Helmholtz, Alexander Ellis, Professor Rolleston, and holds their *vu et approuvé*, or when he would allow us to infer that his 'Reply' had wrought some change in Mr. Darwin's views (p. 466), it will be safer for us, and more agreeable, no doubt, to the gentlemen whose names he has borrowed, if we go for their views on these points to their published writings.

Professor Müller concludes with a proposal for an international arbitration, concerning the object of which we are, however, left in doubt. The reason here assigned is to satisfy Mr. Darwin, Professor Haeckel, and others whose good opinion he highly values; in the *Academy* of January 8 he tells us it was for Professor Whitney's sake, not for his own; perhaps he will next say that it was meant only as a satire upon the method of international arbitration in general, and it is, we must confess, cleverly enough contrived for such a purpose. For what he proposes to submit to the tribunal is not the *acta* of the controversy as it stands, nor a "case," nor even a definite number of points to be presented on either side, but twenty questions of his own selection, after which he generously allows his opponent to name the judges. Admirable fairness! We can call to mind nothing except Mr. Midshipman Easy's famous duel worthy to be compared with it. The details are quite in keeping with the general plan. To the common apprehension, the question whether the science of language is an *historical* or a *physical* science, and the question whether Burnouf produced *one* or *two* bulky volumes on the Avesta, do not appear to be, mathematically speaking, of the same order of magnitude, but in Müller's classification both are alike "principal bones of contention." (For a full list of Burnouf's Avestan publications we refer him, though we beg pardon of our readers for so doing, to the same volume in which he made his wonderful discovery, viz., 'Oriental and Linguistic Studies,' I., pp. 176–8.) Professor Whitney's criticisms have been directed chiefly against the underlying theories and main arguments of Müller's writings (and it by no means follows from this that there are not errors enough of lesser magnitude to repay any one who has the leisure and the inclination to point them out), while Müller's counter criticisms relate mostly to small and even to the smallest points of detail. Professor Müller himself appears to have felt this difference, and has tried to make up in the number of his points what they lack in weight. Of the twenty counts in the mutual indictment, fourteen are unmistakably his, either by right of discovery or of invention. Some of the most serious of Professor Whitney's charges he has passed over altogether, and has not taken extraordinary pains to present fairly the six which he has taken up; rather unusual odds to demand, one would say, in an arbitration proposed by himself. But even this Professor Whitney, in the letter to the *Academy* before referred to, has signified his readiness to grant, and his willingness also to appear before a court, as well as on the indictment, of Müller's own choosing. There appears thus to be no obstacle to Professor Müller's present vindication if he desires it. Perhaps he will prefer to await, and we see no reason why he should desire to anticipate, the judgment which scholars and honorable men everywhere will in the end with sufficient unanimity pronounce, both upon the merits of the controversy as a whole and upon his "*manly* art of self-defence."

PRESIDENT JOHN QUINCY ADAMS.*

THE first hundred and four pages of this volume complete the Presidency, bringing, in three chapters, the diary down to 1829. The general characteristics of the work are the same as those to which we have already called the attention of our readers—a frank and unreserved expression of the author's opinion upon the wide range of topics which came under his observation, interspersed with striking anecdotes and interesting sketches of character.

Few very young men have been brought so early into the society of very eminent men, or have seen so early great events from so commanding a point of view. Mr. Adams may almost be said never to have had any private life. From boyhood upward he was trained to great things. Most boys love to see fireworks; but he, at the age when curiosity and wonder are strongest, had watched the fierce flight of British and American shells as they crossed each other on their fatal errand, high above the waters of Boston Bay. He had crossed the Atlantic when to cross it was a perilous adventure; had contended with the frozen waters and wild tempests of the Baltic when other boys were studying their geography in books; had learnt his French in French schools with French boys, his Dutch in Dutch schools with Dutch boys, his German in Germany. His companionships were mostly with earnest men already engaged in the great questions of life. What time had he to be a boy? Neither had he ever time to be at leisure; and when well on in life he declared that he had never known ennui. Every page of his diary bears witness to his untiring industry. His records of his diplomatic interviews are often treatises upon fundamental principles of international law. His report on weights and measures is the profoundest and completest treatise upon that subject ever written. "He has thrown more light," writes a distinguished English author, "into the history of our old English weights and measures than all former writers on the subject; and his views of historical facts, even when occasionally in opposition to the reports of our own Parliamentary committees, appear to me the most correct. For my own part, I do not think I could have seen my way into the history of English weights and measures in the feudal ages without his guidance."

He had aimed very high, and reached his aim, as a debater, as a diplomatist, and as head of a cabinet. With such preparation he brought with him to the Presidency a carefully-formed ideal, in which the duties and re-

* 'Memoirs of John Quincy Adams. Comprising portions of his Diary from 1795 to 1848. Edited by Charles Francis Adams.' Vol. VIII. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1876.

sponsibilities of the office were carefully marked out. Thoroughly prepared in every department, he brought to the discussions of his cabinet depth of research, maturity of judgment, and all the higher qualities of the statesman. He won his elevation by a rigid performance of his duties, and lost it by a conscientious adherence to principle. "He early adopted two principles, as rules of his political conduct, from which he never deviated—to seek or solicit no public office, and to whatever station he might be called by his country to use no instrument for success or advancement but efficient public services." "Of Mr. Adams," wrote Henry Clay to the people of his Congressional district in Kentucky, "it is but truth and justice to say that he is highly gifted, profoundly learned, and long and greatly experienced in public affairs at home and abroad; intimately conversant with the rise and progress of every negotiation with foreign powers, pending or concluded; personally acquainted with the capacity and attainments of most of the public men of this country whom it might be proper to employ in the public service; extensively possessed of much of that valuable kind of information which is to be acquired neither from books nor tradition, but which is the fruit of largely participating in public affairs; discreet and sagacious, he will enter upon the duties of the office with great advantage."

Various attempts were made to induce him to contribute money for the advancement of his own election. "The Presidency of the United States," was his invariable reply, "is not an office to be either sought or declined. To pay money for securing it is, in my opinion, incorrect in principle. The practices of all parties are tending to render elections altogether venal, and I am not disposed to countenance them." The practice of "interviewing," which in the last few years has assumed such an offensive form, he looks upon as perhaps an unavoidable evil to which a President must submit. "I have never denied access to me as President to any one of any color; and, in my opinion of the duties of that office, it never ought to be denied. Place-hunters are not pleasant visitors or correspondents, and they consume an enormous disproportion of time. To this personal importunity the President ought not to be subjected; but it is, perhaps, not possible to relieve him from it without excluding him from interviews with the people more, perhaps, than comports with the nature of our institutions." In the hot contest for re-election his opponents uttered the grossest calumnies against him. Henry Clay came to his defence. "It is unnecessary," said he. "Enough has already been said to put down that infamous slander, which has been more than once publicly branded as falsehood. The conspiracy will, however, probably succeed. When suspicions have been kindled into popular delusion, truth, reason, and justice speak to the ears of adders. The sacrifice must be consummated. There will then be a reaction in public opinion. It may not be rapid, but it will be certain." In nothing did Mr. Adams take higher ground than in his appointments to office, never removing an officer except for failure to perform his duty, or appointing one without satisfactory proof of his qualifications. "S. C. Allen thinks," he writes in December, 1828, "I have suffered for not turning my enemies out of office; particularly the Postmaster-General."

In the Presidency, as in his other offices, his industry was unceasing. Dividing his time with rigorous method, he was always occupied, passing continually from one subject to another, and leaving no minute unaccounted for. "My rising hour," he writes in December, 1828, "has varied from quarter past four to seven, the average being about five. After making my fire, I have constant writing till breakfast-time, between nine and ten. The morning papers then engage an hour more, and visitors and the heads of departments and the mail despatch time till half-past three or four. Then comes the ride of two hours or the walk of one. We dine between five and six. I spend an evening hour or two with my wife, and then two or three hours in my chamber, writing again till eleven and sometimes till near midnight."

He evidently takes to heart his failure to be re-elected, but nerves himself for his new position. It is less the loss of office that he regrets than the loss of occupation. He who for years had not known an idle hour had now to cast about him for something to do. Happier than Walpole, he loved books. Still, as he looks back, a certain bitterness mingles with his reflections. "Life," he writes, "is full of disappointments, and among the most mortifying of them to me has been the misconduct of peculiarly befriended." . . . . "The sun of my political life sets in the deepest gloom, but that of my country shines unclouded." But there was still work—some of the best work of his life—for him to do. From time to time cheering words reached him. A senator from Illinois assured him that he had fewer personal enemies than any public man he knew.

"Mr. Bailey spent the evening with me. He enquired if I would accept a seat in the Senate from Massachusetts if it should be offered me. I answered that the first objection would be that I would on no consideration displace any other man. He said he believed that Mr. Silsbee was very averse to coming again to the Senate, and would be glad to decline if I would accept. I said there were other objections, my intention being to go into the deepest retirement and withdraw from all connection with public affairs. He said Dr. Condict, of New Jersey, had expressed to him the hope that I should not thus withdraw. . . . Miner asked me if I had determined definitively to withdraw from all public service after the expiration of my present term. I told him that my intention was absolute and total retirement, but my principle would be what it had been through life. I should seek no public employment in any form, directly or indirectly. It was not for me to foresee whether my services would ever be desired by my fellow-citizens again. If they should call for them while I have life and health, I shall not hold myself to decline repairing to any station which they may assign to me, except for reasonable cause. But I desired him to receive this in confidence as a candid answer to his question, for I wish not even to give a hint to the public that I am yet eligible to their service."

Among the various occupations for the future which presented themselves to his mind was a history of the United States and a life of his father. Little did he or his friends dream what a work was preparing for him.

From time to time nature warns him that he is working too hard, and he averts the danger by long walks, by long rides on horseback, and swims in the Potomac. He takes his exercise as he performs his official duties—earnestly. Of his brief recreations the one in which he seems to take most pleasure is natural science. There is something like a tender exultation in the record of his visits to the greenhouse. "I there counted ninety-seven Spanish cork-oaks, but found nothing further. I observe only that a few of every kind of tree that had come up are perishing, the causes of which are various; the heat of the sun withers some, others suffer prostration from rain; insects above ground devour the leaves, vermin beneath nip the stalks. The infancy of plants seems to be as delicate as that of animals. . . . I make two remarks: one, that the self-planted seeds thrive most vigorously; the other, that the plants which I most cherish are the most apt to disappoint me and die."

When at last the 4th of March came, and he became once more a simple citizen of the United States, Mr. Adams still strove to turn his time to account. Visitors came, if not in throngs, in great numbers. The politics of the day engaged his attention as an observer, though no longer as an actor—a novel position for him, the greater part of whose life had been passed in public service; but an instructive position, inasmuch as it gave him new points of view, and brought him into a different kind of contact with his fellow-citizens. Two resources stood him well in stead in this enforced leisure. He had never laid his classics wholly aside. Horace he always read with delight. He still loved to sit at the feet of Cicero. In the day of his trial he found them ready to cheer, to strengthen, and to console. With them came La Fontaine. To imitate an ode of Horace or a fable of La Fontaine gave a purpose to his daily rides and walks, which mere riding for pleasure could not have given them.

But his classical reading was not confined to poetry. "I read the fragments of Cicero's poetry," he writes on the 24th October, 1830, "and with them completed the perusal of everything written by him now known to be extant. It has occupied on an average two hours a day for ten months, and has left me with a desire to spend at least as much more time in studying him more profoundly." We give one more characteristic extract, and then close this part of our study of this remarkable man:

"September 24th.—In the evening I read several of Madame du Deffand's letters. It belongs probably to the effect of age upon the taste and judgment that these letters are more interesting to me than any novel. They are records of realities. In youth it was exactly the reverse; fairy tales, the 'Arabian Nights,' fictitious adventures of every kind, delighted me, and the more there was in them of invention, the more pleasing they were. My imagination pictured them all as realities, and I dreamed of enchantments as if there was a world in which they existed. At ten years of age I read Shakspere's 'Tempest,' 'As You Like It,' 'Merry Wives of Windsor,' 'Much Ado about Nothing,' and 'King Lear.' The humors of *Falstaff* scarcely affected me at all. *Bardolph* and *Pistol* and *Nym* were personages quite unintelligible to me; and the lesson of *Sir Hugh Evans* to the boy *William* was too serious an affair. But the incantations of *Prospero*, the loves of *Ferdinand* and *Miranda*, the more than ethereal brightness of *Ariel*, and the worse than beastly grossness of *Caliban*, made for me a world of revels and lapped me in Elysium. With these books, in a closet in my mother's bed-chamber, there was also a small edition, in two volumes, of Milton's 'Paradise Lost,' which, I believe, I attempted ten times to read, and never could get through half a book. I might as well have attempted to read Homer before I had learnt the Greek alphabet. I was mortified even to the shedding of solitary tears that I could not even conceive what it was that my mother and father admired so much in that book, and yet I was ashamed to ask them an explanation. I smoked tobacco and read Milton at the same time, and from the same motive—to find out what was the recondite charm in

them which gave my father so much pleasure. After making myself four or five times sick with smoking, I mastered that accomplishment and acquired a habit which, thirty years afterwards, I had much difficulty in breaking off. But I did not master Milton. I was nearly thirty years old when I first read the 'Paradise Lost' with delight and astonishment. But of late years I have lost the relish for fiction. I see nothing with sympathy but men, women, and children of flesh and blood. Madame du Deffand's suppers afford me savory food, and I was charmed this evening with her picture of the Lucan family sending a piano to her apartments, the father making his daughter play and sing an hour or two, Lady Stormont joining in the concert, the piano and the children being then sent home, leaving a party to sup. The visit of Dr. Franklin and Silas Deane with Mr. Le Roi is also very amusing, and her remark that all the company were in favor of the Americans excepting herself and Mr. De Guignes, who were for the court, is more interesting to me than ten volumes of 'Waverleys.' Can philosophy tell me why this is so?"

COUNTY JAILS AND ALMSHOUSES.*

THE earliest reports of the Prison Associations of this country are full of unpleasant accounts of our county institutions for charity or punishment. The report of the French commissioners, MM. de Beaumont and de Tocqueville, sent to this country in 1834 to investigate our prisons, speaks in the strongest terms of reproach of the county jails. Miss Carpenter, in the accounts she has published of her recent visit to the United States, is equally severe in her criticism of these institutions. And now it is impossible to take up any report of a State board of charity or prison association without finding shocking revelations of the condition of the county jails and rural almshouses. So common are these complaints and descriptions, and so indescribably repulsive are the evils which they portray, that the public have almost become wearied of hearing of them, and have fallen into somewhat of the state of mind towards them with which the evils of the weather are regarded. In fact, to any one of a philanthropic turn of mind it is somewhat discouraging to turn over the reports of, for instance, the Boston and New York Prison Associations during the past fifty years, and find each year the same shocking abuses and evils so bitterly complained of, and the same unbroken enthusiasm in the hopeless struggle with them. If the evils were merely sentimental, or such as ought only to touch a highly-organized and humane mind, the long and unsuccessful crusade against them could be better understood and better endured. But the abuses are the most palpable sources of new evil to the community—the most stupid and brutal inhumanities, such as no civilized community ought to permit, and which violate all the instincts and practices that the slow culture of Christianity has gradually formed in modern communities.

In what we have to say of these county institutions, it should be understood that we merely summarize the facts from hundreds of reports from every portion of the Union. The abuses are not peculiar to any one State or even division of the country. They belong to the old and new States, though they are perhaps most glaring in the new.

Beginning with the almshouses, we are compelled to say that till within three or four years no abodes of so-called charity were ever such dwellings of unmitigated misery as the county poor-houses of the United States. The first consideration of any wise legislation on pauperism is to prevent its transmission and inheritance. The philosophical principle which plays so important a part in the Darwinian speculations, and which must guide all systems of classification, of the reduplicated power of inheritance in each new generation, is equally true in human affairs. The second and third generation of a pauper and vicious family contains tendencies to degeneracy, to physical and moral evil, which have increased in geometrical ratio, and which (if they do not utterly destroy the mental and bodily powers) become almost unconquerable by any humane or moral influences. Accordingly, the first object of scientific legislation in regard to the dependent and vicious classes should be to break them up, and prevent transmission of their habits and weaknesses. The rural almshouse, under the system which has prevailed here, has, on the other hand, been a nursery and propagation-bed of pauperism and weakness. The pauper mother is brought there for the birth of her first child. The child grows up and is trained and educated there. Her companions are persons of the worst habits and character. She is stamped with both her inherited weakness and with acquired tendencies and ways of life peculiar to the place. She in her turn becomes early a mother of an illegitimate child, and so the vicious line begins and is transmitted, until we have such terrible facts in criminal inheritance as have appeared recently in the history of a certain unhappy "Margaret, Mother of Criminals," in Ulster County, New York, where a family-line is discovered made up of more than seven hundred criminals and paupers.

In most almshouses of the United States children are kept with old offenders or mature paupers and vagrants, and the poor-house becomes naturally a nursery of pauperism. In very few of them are the children taught or brought under any elevating influences. But almost worse than the condition of the children is that of the unhappy creatures bereft of reason. Of all spectacles of human misery which the light of day looks upon, we suppose that of the lunatics in American almshouses is the most pitiable. Unlike many sufferers under the great evils of society, they are often persons who have been in better circumstances, and who must, in their dim way, feel and see the abuses of their treatment. In the country poor-houses they are treated as lunatics were a hundred years ago in Europe. They are chained, put in cages, beaten, kept in dark holes, without fire, often naked, their food reached to them as to beasts, their clothes seldom changed, without bedding, except straw, left in their own filth and eaten by parasites. This horrible treatment, it should be understood, was (till within three years) common in many of our States, and is still the fact in the majority.

The writer has known a lunatic who was kept fifteen years in an outhouse on Staten Island, in so narrow a place that his flexor muscles became permanently stiffened; another, a woman, who was confined with chains in a state of nudity for ten years; another, a man, chained in a cage for thirteen years, in a frightful state, and so of many others, kept in almshouses and treated with similar neglect and apparent cruelty. Such instances can be found all over the country. One singular and horrible result of the condition of rural poor-houses throughout the Union is, that the lunatic and half-witted women not unfrequently become mothers in these places, and a new and unnatural progeny begins—the offspring of lunacy and crime, of epilepsy and vagrancy.

The county jails, again, though not presenting such fearful pictures of human misery, are even more dangerous in their character on the future of the community. In every country town many children, young girls and boys, are committed for criminal offences for a short term to the county jail. Here they are placed and confined, without separation, with old ruffians, thieves, burglars, prostitutes, and even murderers. The weeks of idleness are spent in such society. The jail becomes the seminary of crime. Each child or youth graduates with well-learned lessons. In this common receptacle are many honest and innocent persons, witnesses, people accused wrongfully, paupers, lunatics, and the like, but the influential inmates, whose tone governs all the others, are naturally the criminals and the vagrants. The effect of this is plainly seen in many of our counties. The vagrant and criminal youth are perpetually returning to prison. A class of skilfully trained convicts is being educated. Both law and good morals seem in many villages to make little headway against youthful vice and criminality. The jail educates. Then that large class of young criminals who, perhaps, commit their first offence from passion or under overwhelming temptations, are here prepared as future and professional criminals. Many county judges will not sentence a very young person at all, unless for a weighty offence, for fear of the influences of these prisons.

Nothing, in short, could be more destructive of the interests of society than the present arrangement and management of county jails. The hardship to innocent persons and to lunatics alone is a matter which humanity and right reason ought to cause at once to be reformed.

We could fill pages with the evils and abuses existing in the rural jails in every State of the Union: worst of all, perhaps, in Texas and the new States, but bad and disgraceful enough in the oldest States. So wide a reach of inhuman and unreasonable practices and arrangements existing through all our history shows that there is for it some other reason than the mere inhumanity or stupidity of public officials, especially in a community of such marked humanity as the American. We believe the especial reason of these abuses and enormities to lie in what in many respects has constituted our strength—the extreme subdivision or decentralization of administration which characterizes our local government. We have inherited the system of county or parish management of the poor from at least as far back as Henry VIII.'s reign. This system was much changed and somewhat centralized in England by the Poor-Law reforms of 1834; but still in both countries there continues an extremely subdivided administration of all matters connected with pauperism and petty criminality. In the United States each county is expected to provide for its own poor, its "defectives," unfortunates, and its petty criminals. All the modern improvements in treating these various classes of subjects are founded on classification and distinctive treatment. Pauper and criminal children, for instance, are easily improved and prepared to be useful members of society by individual influences, either in a "family reformatory," or, what is much better, the real family itself. The defectives, the blind, deaf, and dumb, even the idiotic, can be restored to a considerable use of their faculties by skilful

* Annual Reports of State Boards of Charities for Pennsylvania, Massachusetts, and New York. 1875.

care in their appropriate asylums. Insanity is more and more regarded as a physical ailment, and though the best modern treatment does not restore as many to reason as might be expected, yet the unfortunate sufferers are, under humane and skilful treatment, relieved of many of the worst features of the disease, and rendered comparatively comfortable and useful. The old cruelties and barbarities of management are quite abandoned in all good asylums, and in England non-restraint is carried even further than here.

Now, a county poor-house has no opportunity for classification or even separation of its subjects. All—young and old, sane and insane, and often men and women—must be kept together. No science and little humanity can be permitted to enter into its management. The insane in such society soon become more wild, and must, for the sake of the others, be confined separately. There is never room in an almshouse for any suitable confinement of this kind; the officials are naturally men of inferior intelligence, and so the cruel and barbarous practices of the almshouse soon begin. The same thing is true of the county jails, and for similar reasons. Moreover, there is nothing which is so little under the supervision of the humane and intelligent public as the county "institutions." Most people of ordinarily compassionate feelings have a horror of even seeing the rural almshouse and jail.

The remedy for these evils has already begun in our oldest States, and should be carried out thoroughly in all. It lies in these directions: (1) Societies should be formed among the fortunate classes for the inspection of the public institutions of charity and penalty. One association of this kind—the State Charities Aid Society—in New York State has already accomplished much good under the able management of Miss Schuyler. (2) The effort should be made to give a broader scope to the care of the county poor, defectives, and petty criminals. This is best secured by founding State asylums and State intermediate or reformatory prisons, in which the counties shall be obliged to board their own poor and unfortunates and their youthful criminals. By this plan all pauper children would be placed in private families or orphan asylums; all insane, blind, deaf and dumb, and idiotic persons each in their appropriate asylums; the petty criminals in reformatories; and the able-bodied in State workhouses. The only persons left in the rural almshouses would thus be the incurably sick and helpless, and those remaining temporarily before they were transferred to State asylums. The system would indeed be somewhat more expensive than the present; but it is more than questionable whether economy is permissible at the cost of so much human suffering, and at the risk of such transmission of pauperism and crime. (3) With these State asylums and reformatories there must also be a central supervising power; some board, if possible, of distinguished citizens serving voluntarily, chosen by the Senate of the State, employing one first-rate official, who shall inspect and unify the management of all these institutions for charity and punishment. Then at length we should begin to see an improvement in our poor-law management and our prisons worthy of our civilization.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*
Dodge (Lt. Col. R. I.), Black Hills	(James Miller) $2 00
Frothingham (Rev. O. B.), Stories of the Patriarchs	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 1 00
Gilbert (W. S.), Original Plays	(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.) 1 75
Kluckhohn (A.), Luise, Königin von Preussen, swd	(L. W. Schmidt)
Kiesfeld (Dr.), Der Diamant, swd	(L. W. Schmidt)
Long (S. P.), Art: Its Laws, and the Reasons for Them	(Lee & Shepard) 2 00
Lytton (Lord), Pausanias the Spartan. Historical Romance	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Moore (Mrs. S. H.), On Dangerous Ground. A Romance	(Porter & Coates) 1 50
Morris (H.), Early History of Springfield	(F. W. Morris)
Mrs. Hitchcock's Wedding Dress	(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.) 1 25
Market Fluctuations	(Effingham Wilson)
Preece (W. H.) and Liversright (J. J.), Telegraphy	(D. Appleton & Co.)
Penn Monthly. Vol. VI	(Penn Monthly Association)
Plantation Songs as Sung by the Hampton Students, swd	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 40
Richardson (Dr. B. W.), Diseases of Modern Life	(D. Appleton & Co.)

A NEW WORK BY DR. BRINTON.

The Religious Sentiment.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 30, 1876.

The Week.

THE great Conkling Convention came off at Syracuse last week, and produced a resolution referring to Conkling in glowing terms as a "statesman and a patriot of the highest ability and character," declaring his "long and distinguished public career" to be "without reproach," and "presenting" him as the choice of New York for President. The Independents, headed by Mr. G. W. Curtis, made a struggle for an absolutely unpledged delegation, but the Conklingites mustered two-thirds of the convention, and might, if they had dared offend public opinion to such an extent, have cut off debate altogether and sent a pledged delegation to Cincinnati. But the strong expressions of dissatisfaction from all parts of the State convinced them that it would be a mistake to attempt to carry things with a high hand. The delegates who now go to Cincinnati number among them some good men, but as a whole they are products of the "machine," and in a good position to "trade" Conkling votes against votes for some other machine candidate. It is a curious illustration of the present condition of politics that while all the interest in the convention turned solely on one question—whether Conkling is or is not a fit man for President—there was not in the speeches of his supporters any reference to this point whatever. With 250 members enthusiastically shouting for Conkling, a stranger reading the accounts of the meeting would not be able to gain the faintest idea of why they had been shouting for him or why they wanted him elected. Everything that was said on his side would have been just as true and just as much to the purpose if, instead of being a senator, he had been a horse or a block of wood.

The Supreme Court at Washington has decided two important cases under the Enforcement Act of 1870. The first of these came up from Kentucky on an indictment against two inspectors of a municipal election for refusing to receive and count the vote of William Garner, a citizen of African descent. The third section of the act provides that whenever, by the laws of any State, any prerequisite is required of the citizen to entitle him to vote, the offer to perform the act shall be considered equivalent to a performance, in case the voter is wrongfully prevented from performing it, and that all officers of elections must treat it as performed, and for a wrongful refusal, on the application under oath of the citizen, shall be liable to punishment. The fourth section contains the familiar provisions against "intimidation," bribery, and conspiring for the purpose of obstructing votes. In deciding the case, the Court says that the Fifteenth Amendment "does not confer the right of suffrage upon any one," but prevents discrimination on the ground of race, color, or previous condition of servitude. Under this Amendment Congress might have passed a law purely and simply to prevent discrimination of this kind; but instead of this the act is directed against all sorts of interference with elections, besides those which relate to race and color. The Court therefore held these sections of the act unconstitutional, and decided that Congress has "not as yet provided by appropriate legislation for the punishment of the offence charged in the indictment." The other case was an indictment found under the same act for "banding" and "conspiring" to intimidate two colored men and deprive them of "rights and privileges granted and secured to them, in common with other good citizens of the United States, by the Constitution and laws of the United States." The opinion in this case is in part technical, but the upshot of the whole is that it will not do to suppose that whenever any breach of the peace occurs in a Southern State in which a black man is concerned, the United States can be brought in to indict those who have taken part in it for "kukluxing" or "conspiracy." The Court has also decided that the head-money tax imposed by this and other States on emigration is void, as being a "regulation of commerce," and so within the exclusive province of Congress.

The Senate, by a vote of 32 to 26, has passed Mr. Morton's bill to regulate counting the electoral vote for President, the Democrats generally being against it. Mr. Thurman voted with the majority, and entered a motion to reconsider. This bill, which has now been for two years or more before the Senate, provides that where more than one return is received from a State by the President of the Senate, all the returns shall be opened by him in the presence of the two Houses, and that return shall be counted "which the two Houses, acting separately, shall decide to be the true and valid return." Mr. Thurman wanted a clause added to provide that, in case of a failure of agreement between the two Houses, the President of the Senate shall decide which return shall be counted. It is very important that some rule should be made on the subject, as the Constitution has provided no safeguard against double sets of returns. The election of a President by a doubtful vote, with half the country convinced that his election was due to the improper inclusion or exclusion of some one or two States, would, in the present condition of politics, be a national misfortune.

Besides this, no business of importance has been transacted, unless we except the Senate's action in determining to stand by its amendments to the House West-Point Bill, which will now go to a committee of conference. The House has had a debate on election frauds, and passed by an almost unanimous vote a bill making it a misdemeanor for any Government employé to solicit or contribute funds for election purposes or to canvass in any way. Mr. Blaine succeeded in having the bill amended so as to include senators and members of Congress, and, in their case, to make any violation of its provisions as to contributions by candidates of money or money's worth, a disqualification for office. Penalties are also prescribed for threats of injury to the lives or limbs of voters, and the United States Courts are authorized to enforce the law. The measure is really a sort of force bill, but, curiously enough, was supported on both sides of the House; by the Republicans as being likely to prevent "intimidation" at the South, and by the Democrats as being a blow at political assessments. The House has also repealed the act forbidding the appointment to military positions of Confederate civil and military officers. On a motion to suspend the rules and pass the Payne bill for "gradual resumption," that measure received its death-blow, by a vote of 81 to 156. This seems to dispose of all general schemes of resumption for the present session, and leaves as the only "live" measure the Silver Bill, which is likely now to pass.

The State Department and the President seem to have washed their hands entirely of all responsibility for the disposition of the *Alabama* award, and are apparently willing that it shall be given to anybody Congress pleases. The State Department is, however, morally bound to do all in its power to prevent the perpetration of the fraud now proposed by the House Committee, because the State Department from the first assumed the position of trustee toward the claimants, collected their claims against Great Britain, got judgment for them at Geneva, and put the money into the Treasury. On October 17, 1872, Mr. Caleb Cushing, who had just been representing the Government as counsel at Geneva, wrote a letter to a claimant in this city, in which he declared in so many words that the award was for a "definite sum of money" paid over to the United States "for distribution among the parties interested, *according to the award of the Tribunal*," and further added: "It will be received and held by the United States as a *trust fund*, to be distributed among the parties interested *conformably to the tenor*

and spirit of the award of the Tribunal." The Committee's bill, to which we alluded last week, proposes to admit as claimants two classes of claimants who, according to the "tenor and spirit of the award," are no more entitled to any of it than Chorpenning or the Grangers are. The money was given as damages caused by the escape of the *Alabama*, *Florida* (with their tenders), and the *Shenandoah* (after leaving Melbourne). No one who lost by other vesse's has any more right to any of the money than he would have for losses caused by Chinese pirates. In the same way, the "war-premium" men were absolutely ruled out by the Tribunal itself. It would be interesting just now to have Mr. Fish in the House, and hear an Opposition member interrogate him on the subject of international "trust funds."

Mr. William M. Stewart of Nevada is the only one of the Emma-Mine operators who has at this writing been examined by the Committee in Washington, and his cross-examination by Mr. Hewitt was at times a pitiable and yet diverting spectacle. His evidence, both oral and documentary, helped in a remarkable way to confirm Lyon's story, as showing that he (Lyon) is now telling the tale and making the charges he made from the moment he thought himself cheated in London in 1871; that Albert Grant got $500,000 for "rigging the market"; that Professor Silliman was employed to make a report, not by the vendees, as he has represented, but by the vendors, as the very first step in their operations, and was actually engaged by telegraph through their confederate Baxter in this country; that after Stewart had thrown Lyon overboard (*i.e.*, got him to settle his claim for $500,000 by taking $150,000), and had returned to this country, Park became frightened in London by Lyon's threats and paid him $50,000 more as hush-money—or, as Stewart called it to the Committee, "black-mail"—in order to prevent his bringing a suit against them both for fraud, or, in other words, "splitting on them" and breaking the market; and that when the two worthies got home Park "settled" with Stewart by giving him nearly $300,000, which, as Mr. Hewitt pointed out, bore a curious resemblance to the balance of Lyon's $500,000. The most dramatic portion of the examination, however, was the scene where Mr. Hewitt, having elicited from Stewart the fact that he had, when selling the mine in London, never seen it, confronted him with the boast in the prospectus of the peculiar value to owners of the Emma Mine in particular of having him and Park on the board of directors, owing to their experience. The Western statesman, at this point, displayed a bodily uneasiness and a slowness of mind and speech which were very interesting to witness. Park and Schenck come up this week.

There is but little excitement over the Connecticut election, which takes place next week, partly from there being no exciting questions before the people. In one of the Congressional districts—that represented by the late Mr. Starkweather—the contest ought to have a great deal of interest for all independent voters, as the result will show, or at any rate might show, how much strength they have. The Democrats in this district offered the nomination to Mr. D. A. Wells, and on his declining the offer refused to make any nomination or to adopt any platform, but passed a resolution recommending people to vote for Mr. Wells. Votes therefore cast for Mr. Wells do not represent a longing for "soft-money" or a prejudice in favor of rebellion, or secession, or assassination, or any of the other longings or prejudices with which the Democratic mind is frequently supposed to be filled. They simply represent disgust with the present corrupt and imbecile administration of affairs at Washington, and an honest desire to have as representative not a party hack but a man of education, intelligence, character, and settled views on the questions which are now demanding solution of the country. Mr. Wells belongs to that large and constantly increasing class of men who have been driven out of public life by Grant and his friends because they have devoted themselves to the country and not to party, and have had the courage to believe that the people were better pleased with the truth, even when unwelcome, than with flattery and lies.

The Democrats have unearthed a letter written by the chairman of the New Hampshire Republican State Committee to one Barney, couched in the following plain, straightforward language: "You must carry Canaan at all hazards. If the $1,500 I have already sent is not enough to carry the town, I rely upon you to carry it at all events; and if it costs $5,000 you shall be made whole. Don't fail"—a despatch which reads very much as if the chairman and Mr. Barney regarded the operation of "carrying" towns as being in its nature analogous to that of "carrying" stocks, and to depend for its success chiefly upon the size of the "margin" put up with the brokers. This discovery, coupled with those of last week as to the town of South Hampton, seems to throw doubts upon the soundness of an observation in the *Times* of a fortnight since to the effect that "to attempt to explain the great results of such a campaign in a State like New Hampshire by any theory of mercenary motives, argues not only the most thorough recklessness but the most absolute stupidity." We have no doubt that what the *Times* calls the "standard of civic virtue" is quite as high in New Hampshire as it is in a great many other places. But it is a standard which varies so greatly with the education, income, and intelligence of the citizen, and the temptations to which he is subjected, that general deductions from it as to particular elections having been carried by means of bribery are of little value.

Important questions regarding taxation have lately arisen in California and Massachusetts, and in both cases have been settled in a satisfactory way. In California, the Supreme Court of the State has had before it the vexed question of taxation of mortgages, and the judges have decided, in accordance with justice and common sense, that, as mortgages do not in any way increase the body of wealth in a community, any tax laid upon them is laid upon a fictitious value, is in so far an imposition upon the taxpayer, and, inasmuch as it represents a second tax on real estate already taxed in the hands of the owner, is "double" taxation within the meaning of that term in the constitution of California and other States. In Massachusetts, the city of Boston has tried to make a descent upon the abandoned character known as the "tax-dodger." The "tax-dodger" is one who, finding that the rate of taxation in Boston is too high for his means, flies, with his wife and children, to some rural town where the cry of "Boardman and Revolution" (which is said to have been the slogan of the Boston communists at a recent election) has not yet been heard, and where there are "selectmen" instead of a common council, and constables instead of a police department, and where there is neither paving nor widening of streets. The reason and excuse for the existence of the "tax-dodger" are to be found in the barbarous system of taxation adhered to by Massachusetts. This system consists in taxing personal property to the last extreme. The State taxes all the property of its citizens whether in the limits of the State or not. It also establishes, and carries out with a fair degree of success, a system of personal espionage and inquisition unequalled in any free country in the world. Every man must file a sworn schedule of his exact wealth annually, or the assessors "doom" him until he confesses or flies abroad. The "dooming" is no idle pretence, but is continued on an increasing scale every year until the victim gives in.

One little loop-hole has always existed in the law. The State has said that the towns should levy the whole tax together with their local rates, and, of course, has taxed but once in a year. The local tax is usually eight or ten times as much as the State tax; in Boston the latter amounts to only 13 cents against $1 25 collected in all. In a small town like Nahant the rate is 35 to 40 cents in all, and perhaps 8 or 10 cents go to the State. Now, certain astute Bostonians, finding that their tax on personal property is levied in the town where they claim a legal domicile, have gone into small villages, and there enrolled themselves as citizens. If the town spends little, the rate is low. In no event does it reach the rate of cities with expensive tastes and prodigal of the money of others. This legal evasion has gone to the very soul of the present

worthy Mayor, and the Legislature has been asked to pass a law that if a man stays a single day over half the year in Boston his domicile shall be there; that, unless the "dodger" will spend more than six months out of Boston, he must pay; and that the inhabitant claiming any exemption must file a supplementary schedule showing how his months and days have been spent in every year. The game was indeed hardly worth the chase, since the Boston assessors compute that if all the capital now taxed elsewhere were kept in Boston the rate would be reduced only two and one-half per cent.—that is, if a man's tax be a dollar, he would pay ninety-seven and one-half cents. This fact has led to the defeat of the proposal and the escape of the "tax-dodger." If this termination should lead to a revision of the tax-laws, it would be a happy result of the discussion. The modes of escape from oppressive taxation furnished by railroads and steamboats are now so numerous that nothing short of incarceration of the entire tax-paying part of the population will ever ensure complete success for the "Massachusetts system."

Threats of another railroad war were attended during the week by a "bear" speculation at the Stock Exchange, and there was a considerable decline in prices. Otherwise, Wall Street was very dull. Money was easily obtainable at 3 to 5 per cent., although the banks have been sending large amounts of currency to the States in which the 1st of April is annual settling-day. The surplus reserve of the New York banks is now $11,750,000, or nearly double what it was last year at the corresponding time. The banks now hold nearly three times as much gold as then. During the week a large amount was received from California, enough to diminish materially the effect of an export of $1,425,000 and payment into the Treasury of $2,500,000 for customs. The week closed with sterling exchange warranting further exports. The London market, however, does not require gold now, since the Bank of England rate is down to 3 per cent., and exchange with Paris warrants the flow of gold thence to London. There was a flurry at the London Stock Exchange, but it had no influence on the money market nor on the securities in which this country has an interest. The European markets for American products continued strong. The value in gold of $100 greenbacks ranged during the week between $87 43 and $87 81. Silver fell in London to 52½*d.* per ounce and closed at 53*d.* to 53¼*d.* It was semi-officially announced that the Treasury had bought from the Big Bonanza owners $4,000,000 more silver bullion.

In England, the public mind has been mainly occupied with Mr. Disraeli's melodramatic attempt to give the Queen the title of "Empress of India," which is likely to succeed in Parliament, but which the Liberals, who are intensely disgusted, intend to try and frustrate in the last resort by addressing the Queen, asking her not to assume it. The affair, trifling as it is, has shocked many of the most deep-seated national prejudices, particularly that one which denies the existence of any loftier title on earth than that oldest of existing titles, "Queen of England," and refuses to believe that the Queen can be promoted. Not only the idea, but some of the arguments used in support of it, particularly the one drawn from the eager desire of the natives of India, are in all respects worthy of a brilliant novelist, and have about as much relation to actual politics as the speculations in 'Coningsby' or 'Lothair.' The Suez Canal purchase, too, has received a severe blow, as a political measure, by the peremptory dismissal by M. Lesseps of Sir Daniel Lange, the British representative on the Board of Directors, on the publication of private letters of his to the British Foreign Office criticising the management of the Canal, and urging the late Ministry to buy it up. Moreover, the mission of Mr. Cave, who was sent out to examine the financial situation in Egypt at the Khedive's request, has proved a failure, inasmuch as His Highness, on finding he was to receive no aid in establishing a national bank, declined to allow the report to be made public, and there was at once a panic in Egyptian securities on the London Exchange, although there was some abatement of political anxiety, as it revealed the fact that the Government did not propose to bolster up Egypt financially. There is no improvement in the situation in Herzegovina, owing to the refusal of the insurgents to lay down their arms and their continued success in the field.

The new French Assembly is now definitively constituted, the supplementary elections having all taken place; and the result, according to the best calculations, gives the Republicans of all shades 339 votes; the Bonapartists, 92; the Liberal Conservatives (who might for all practical purposes be counted Republicans), 58; and the Legitimists pure and simple, 36. The Republicans pure have thus a majority of 144 on all questions affecting the permanence of the existing constitution, and, even if they are compelled on any question to part company with the 60 Radicals, they have a majority of 84. The Legitimists have got in a respectable body of their best men, and, though the Bonapartists have done pretty well, they have not done as well as they expected, and have to contend against the hostility of all the other parties. Marshal MacMahon, too, has formed his new Cabinet, and both in forming it and in its composition has disappointed his enemies. It was not expected, for instance, that a man who was as much a Conservative as he is, and had his notions of his mission in the present crisis, would adapt himself to the constitutional régime sufficiently to change his ministry in obedience to a hostile popular verdict rendered at the polls, but this he has done. It was not supposed, too, that he had learnt enough of parliamentary politics to make his new Cabinet out of the materials presented to him by the election, but this, too, he has done. He made an effort to get the Ministry of War and of Foreign Affairs excepted from the operation of the parliamentary system, as having charge of interests too weighty and too much in need of permanence of policy to be influenced by the ups and downs of party politics; and there was, especially in the present condition of France, a good deal of reason in his view—but then the Republicans could not forget that it is the army which makes *coups d'état*. The matter has been arranged by the retention of General de Cissey in the War Department, and of the Duc Decazes in the Foreign Affairs, and Léon Say in the Ministry of Finance—all tried and excellent men for the places. M. Dufaure, who is the President of the Council, is also Minister of Justice, and M. Waddington, a Protestant, by the bye, of English origin, has the portfolio of Public Instruction. M. Ricard, a very pronounced Republican, gets the Interior, where he will have the control of the prefects. The Minister of Public Works is M. Christophle, one of the fiercest enemies of the late Ministry; and the new Minister of Marine, Admiral Fourichon, served under Gambetta at Tours.

The new Chambers met on the 8th inst., and were addressed in the name of the old Assembly, which then passed out of existence, by the Duc d'Audriffet-Pasquier, who bade them welcome, and solemnly handed over to them "the sovereign power" vested in the National Assembly by the nation. It was probably the most interesting and hopeful ceremony ever witnessed in France. M. Dufaure replied on behalf of the President, and expressed in his name "his profound confidence that, with God's help and the co-operation of the two Chambers, he (Marshal MacMahon) would never exercise the Executive power except conformably with the laws for the honor and interest of their great and much-beloved country." M. Gauthier de Rumilly, the temporary president of the Senate, addressed the Senate in a similarly hopeful strain, but the strangest scene of all occurred in the Chamber of Deputies, where old Raspail, now we believe in his eighty-second year, who has passed a long and eventful career as a pronounced Red, and has been often in jail for his opinions and plots, being by right of seniority temporary president, declared that "a new era had that day begun for France; that all parties should be silent before the popular voice; that the interests of the country called for unity in aid of the prosperity and liberty of the Republic," and was loudly applauded.

THE DEMOCRATS AND THE GOVERNMENT.

THE Democrats in Congress are affording an excellent illustration of the inconvenience of that feature of our system which makes a change in the House of Representatives the only mode of giving even early expression to popular dissatisfaction with the party in power. The House did not meet until a year had elapsed after its election, and when it did meet, the feeling which had given the Democrats a majority in it had largely subsided, and this subsidence was due to the mere fact that the Republicans had been defeated. That is to say, the election was intended to be a rebuke to the Republican managers and not an indication of confidence in the Democrats or of willingness to try them with power; and as soon as the rebuke was given, the voters were satisfied, and wished the matter might not go any further. The consequence was that when the session opened, the majority of the House found itself substantially without constituencies, and without that close connection with present public opinion which is necessary to vigorous and useful legislation. The state of mind to which it owed its existence was already remote, and it had really no instructions from the voters which might serve as the basis of a policy. There was, therefore, under the circumstances, nothing for it to do but investigate, and this it at once began to do, and has done, we must all admit, whatever the clumsiness of the process, with excellent effect.

But even in this, the inconveniences of giving one branch of the legislature to one party, and leaving the other branch and the Executive in the hands of the other party, have been made abundantly manifest. Investigations into official conduct made and controlled by the Opposition are apt to be conducted in a vexatious and captious spirit, and with a close eye to political effect. They thus lose at once a good deal of their moral weight, and therefore of their political value. In saying this, however, we do not mean to fall in with the notion that when the Democrats discovered such a scandal as Belknap's corruption they ought to have seen nothing in it but matter for mourning, and have joined the Republicans in bewailing it as simply a national disgrace. No such display of magnanimity or patriotism is to be expected from any Opposition, and no Opposition has ever made it. It was natural and not improper that the Democrats should be pleased to discover actual proof of the charges they had been so long making, and it would have been mischievous as well as hypocritical for them to have joined the Republicans in lamenting over it as a public calamity only. The Republicans of course would have liked to have the affair treated either as a general disgrace befalling the whole community, or as what the lawyers used to call an "act of God"—that is, a calamity occurring in the order of nature. But it was the duty of the Democrats, as of everybody else, to fight against this view, for if accepted it would relieve the party in power to a most mischievous degree from all responsibility. Belknap's fall was not the "act of God"; and, though of course it was a public misfortune, it was one for which the Republican party was distinctly blamable. He was their creature, chosen for high place by their much-admired chief, and was led into temptation through a system of administration which they have condemned in words but sedulously maintained in practice. It was, therefore, both healthy and manly politics for the Democrats to be glad they had found him out, and to rejoice publicly over his fall. What was most contemptible in their dealing with it was, to our mind, not their glee, but their attempt at pathos. If Mr. Clymer and his committee, instead of going into the House with their pocket-handkerchiefs to their eyes and a quaver in their voices to make their report, had gone in honest, outspoken indignation, had said boldly that they had known for years that their opponents were corrupt knaves, and that here was the proof, and that they thanked God they had at last been able to catch them, they would have displayed exactly the spirit which is just now needed in public men. Mr. Clymer's eye for the dramatic side of the story, and his attempt to whimper over his own trumpery picture of the dead baby and its corrupt mother, was simply a sign of the diseased sentimentality from which both our politics and religion are suffering, and which all our rogues cultivate—it is so much easier to weep than to be clean or honest.

The shortcoming of the Democrats lies in the absence of a proper sense of responsibility for the manner in which the Government is carried on. They have the power to find fault and to cut down the appropriations, but they will escape the responsibility which ought to result from vexatious criticism or reckless economy—for there is such a thing as reckless economy as well as reckless extravagance. They have made a curious and flagrant display of it in their attempt to diminish salaries and to reduce the number and pay of consuls and diplomatic agents. The ignorant impetuosity displayed in this latter case was well shown up by one of their own members—Mr. Hewitt—and it would hardly have been displayed by any party actually charged with the administration of the Government. Their object is to tickle the imagination of the masses during the next six months with an appearance of frugality and simplicity. About the effect on the service and on American commerce, as it will not show itself for a year or two, they care nothing, because they will not at best have charge of it for a year or two. The onslaught on the salaries of the Government employés and the proposal to reduce some of the bureaux of the Departments, without any consultation with the Secretaries and apparently without caring in the least what the result will be to the service, is another striking illustration of the kind of madness which comes from giving men the power of meddling with business without making them liable to be called on at once to conduct it themselves. And it affords, too, let us add, a measure of the value of Democratic lamentation over the condition of our civil service. The service is, for one in which the tenure of office is short and insecure, miserably underpaid. The employés of nearly all branches of it are a ragged regiment, whose condition is a disgrace to the American people, who are largely recruited from the failures of our busy life; and, having got hold of them, we do what we can to kill in them all hope and energy and interest in their work by low wages and the terror of arbitrary dismissal. If the Prince of Evil had been called on to devise a mode of undermining the character of a large body of men and women without resorting to open violence, he would probably have suggested some such system, and if a committee of lunatics at a well-managed asylum had been asked for a machine for transacting public business, they would almost certainly have contrived something more rational than "the best civil service on this planet." The sufferings of the public employés are well known to all Democratic politicians, and so are the temptations to which these sufferings lead, but we have yet to see the most trifling move towards any real reform. Security will compensate men for poor pay, and at the same time cultivate honesty, but no suggestion of security or of any change in that direction has come from the Democratic side of the House. Senator Gordon's admirable speech has met with no echo there, any more than from the Republican managers; and, in fact, its one contribution to civil-service reform thus far has been an attempt to disorganize every one of the Departments by reductions proposed in complete ignorance of the wants and wishes of the persons charged with the administration. The whole country has been watching the House eagerly for four months for signs of what we should gain by putting a Democratic Administration in power, and has been treated to little but displays of what it is no exaggeration to call a spirit of mischief.

THE "SIDE SPECULATION" IN SILVER.

AT this writing it seems likely that the assault of the silver miners on the United States Treasury will be deprived of a considerable portion of its mischief by an amendment to the bill before the House giving the Government the seigniorage—or, in other words, the difference between the value in legal-tenders of the bar silver and the silver-token money issued in exchange for it. In this way the silver men would only be able to obtain for their wares the

exact market price of the day, while the Government would get the price as fixed by the legal relation of coined silver to coined gold—the difference between the two being at present about three per cent. The silver men have, on the other hand, been pocketing this difference themselves by compelling the Treasury, under the Resumption Act of last year, to buy their bars above the market rate. It had, up to the 1st of October last, bought nearly $13,000,000, on which the proprietors of the Big Bonanza made $1,000,000, and as the Secretary had no way of disposing of the silver except by locking it up in the Treasury, they were able to get rid of this enormous amount without in the least injuring their market. Since the 1st of October they have made, as Mr. Hewitt has pointed out in his late speech, another million in the same way, and, to crown all, as their mines produce forty per cent. in gold, and they get it coined for nothing under the Resumption Act, they thus make on this operation one-fifth of one per cent. It is now proposed to let loose all the stored silver, and as much more as the speculators are able to bring in, on the market in the belief that it will, in the present relation of silver bullion both to gold and to greenbacks, keep afloat as token-money, and thus prove *pro tanto* a "return to specie payments."

The New York *Times*, which is the principal and indeed only noteworthy advocate of the measure, defends it on the ground that "silver is preferable to paper in point of security, durability, intrinsic value, cleanliness, and healthfulness," which may all be very true, but then it does not follow that its substitution for the fractional currency just now is desirable. Token coinage is not the most pressing want of the country at this juncture, or, indeed, a pressing want at all. It is a good thing to have, but not a good thing to procure at the cost of things of more importance. What we need above all things is the substitution of gold for paper as a legal-tender, and the restoration of the gold standard in fixing prices and making contracts; and anything which prevents, postpones, or obstructs this—whether it be the Boutwell scheme of paying bonds before they are due, or the Kelley scheme of issuing "introconvertible bonds," or the Phillips scheme of issuing paper on farm mortgages, or the Nevada scheme of locking up considerable quantities of gold in silver bullion or tokens—is mischievous, and so mischievous that the advantages of silver dimes over postal currency are nothing to the purpose. Even if the proposed issue of silver tokens is sure to be successful, we need the gold spent in it for something else. We do not need the silver, and the very best thing we can do with it is to export it for what it will bring. There is no popular discontent with the fractional paper currency. Many people, unwisely as we think, prefer it to coin for its lightness and handiness. If the waste of it is great, the cost of it is small; the assertion of the *Times* that "the value of silver bullion is as far from being synonymous with that of silver-token coins as the value of blank paper is from being the same thing as that of currency," being one of those statements which it is hardly worth while to contest until the author has read it over again and reiterated it. If it were true, it would be folly to make silver coins of silver, even when silver is fifty-two pence an ounce, inasmuch as it would do just as well to make them of nickel or brass, and call them silver. We get on reasonably well, everything considered, with our paper small-change; it is not undergoing and cannot undergo any peculiar depreciation, because it is convertible into greenbacks and receivable for Government dues. To vex ourselves about it, therefore, or go to any expense to change it, or do anything whatever about it which in never so small a degree diminishes our capacity for dealing with the question of resumption in gold, or which seems likely to turn popular attention away from it, or to make people believe that we have taken a step towards it when we have done nothing of the kind, would be unfortunate, because probably mischievous.

Whether, after having put afloat even a quantity of silver coin barely sufficient for popular needs, we could keep it afloat, is a point on which there is of course room for difference of opinion. There is more knowledge current on the conditions of "silver resumption" now than there was when Mr. Richardson began his great experiment. We presume that even Senator Logan is now aware that, in order to "resume" in silver, not only must we have a large stock of silver on hand, but the value of silver bullion must bear a certain fixed relation to that of the legal-tender, and that if an increase takes place in its value over the legal-tender sufficient to pay for exporting it, and give the dealer the smallest profit, exported it will be. We grant that the margin between the exportation-point and the value in legal-tenders is now sufficiently great to make it sure that a reasonable quantity of it, thrown on the market in substitution of fractional currency, would go into circulation and stay there. The agencies which have lowered the price of silver and are filling the Anglo-Indian world with confusion, are certainly powerful, and likely to last for some time. Not only has the product of our mines increased greatly, and is likely to increase, but silver has been thrown out of circulation as a standard by the German Empire, by Holland, and by Japan; and France, Italy, Belgium, and Switzerland have, in order to protect themselves against a flood of German coins, entered into a convention limiting their own coinage of silver to $20,000,000 annually. In fact, there is now no country in which there is any immediate chance of getting rid of the surplus silver of the Western world except China and Central Asia, and nobody knows how much these could absorb. The glut in India, which has been the principal silver consumer, is so great that there is a depreciation of twelve and a half per cent. in the standard of value, and the Indian Government is suffering a loss of nearly $10,000,000 a year in its payments made abroad. These are all strong reasons for believing that we might for the present safely go back to silver tokens, even without heavy adulteration of the coins. But then there are contingencies which might any day upset all our calculations, and drive the silver out of the country. The yield of the mines may drop down suddenly; the rise in prices may stimulate industrial activity in India and all over Asia to such a degree as to raise again the value of the standard, and France may resume specie payments with a double standard (though this is now somewhat unlikely); or there may be such a fall in greenbacks as would drop them below the silver level, for the value of greenbacks is unhappily not dependent either on the laws of trade or the product of the mines, but on the folly or ignorance of men. In any of these cases we should wake up some fine morning and find ourselves, as we found ourselves in 1861, without small-change, and have to fall back once more on bits of paper, and the experiment would enure wholly to the advantage of the inflationists, who would point to it as an illustration of the futility of resumption, and of the superiority of paper to coin as a standard and instrument of exchange.

In fact, the state both of our own currency and of the currency of the world and the state of public opinion in this country, are such as to demand the utmost caution in dealing with the problem of resumption. There is too little strength in resumptionist opinion, too little agreement among resumptionists as to ways and means, and the fallacies of the inflationists are too plausible and taking, to make "side speculations" like this silver investment a safe or expedient thing for the friends of sound currency to dabble in. They have too little force for the far greater and more important problem of the substitution of the gold for the paper standard of value, to have any to spare in this trumpery silver operation.

THE POLITICAL MORALITY OF WOMEN.

MR. T. W. HIGGINSON, in a recent number of the *Woman's Journal*, gives an interesting account of his submission of the Belknap case to five ladies of his acquaintance, one of them a person "whose moral standard is rather exacting, and whose absolute directness and truthfulness would drive Charles Reade to despair." This last one saw nothing wrong

in Belknap's performances, and argued the matter with Mr. Higginson. Of the other four, only one looked at it as an honorable man would look at a case of bribery; the others denounced the ex-Secretary and his wife solely on philanthropic grounds—*i.e.*, because they raised the prices of the sutler's goods to the soldiers. The conclusion Mr. Higginson draws from this state of things (which he deeply deplores) is that the loose views of these ladies on the subject of public morality were due, not to their sex, but to the habit of their sex—that is, to their remoteness from public affairs and their want of familiarity with them; and he compares their notions about bribery to those of a recluse or unworldly man—to those, for instance, of Charles Lamb, who humorously approved of smuggling. As a matter of fact, we think Mr. Higginson greatly underrates the political morality of recluse and unworldly males. We have never happened to come across one who, in his retirement, was not much more sensitive and exacting on the matter of official purity than "those more actively engaged." We say "in his retirement," because we admit that very often a recluse, suddenly immersed in affairs, gets confused through lack of experience, and loses the thread of his morality in the mazes of business, and often becomes in an almost ludicrous way the accomplice of sharpers. The result of the attempt to manage the Indians through the missionaries affords some good examples of this. But we are quite sure that the standard of official honor is nowhere higher or more sharply defined than among men whom the circumstances of their lives have withdrawn from active temptation and actual experience of mercantile and political affairs in our day. Indeed, we doubt if it would be possible for the most upright administrators to live by the code of official honor which would be drawn up, say, by the scholars, clergymen, professors, and men of refined leisure of this country. If Mr. Higginson will pursue his researches in that class, we venture to assert that he will find no vagueness whatever in their finding on the Belknap matter, except perhaps in the small body which has cultivated benevolence to an unusual degree, and would therefore, like the women, be more impressed by the hardships of the soldiers than by the Secretary's knavery.

This little anecdote of Mr. Higginson's and his comments on it afford so good an example of the surface treatment of the relation of women to the world that we cannot help presenting one of the views which it completely overlooks, but which must not be overlooked. One reason, then, and we believe the most powerful, why corruption will never wear as ugly a look to women as it does to men, is that in the moral scale of the two sexes offences do not, and probably never will, stand in the same order. This order, let us repeat—for we have more than once before touched on the subject in these columns—is settled, not by authoritative teaching, but by the actual necessity and experience of society. Prophets and preachers and lawgivers can do a good deal, but they can never for any great length of time get a community to arrange degrees of guilt by any other than a utilitarian rule. Among fighting people, who have to depend for their existence on their valor, personal bravery will stand highest among the virtues, personal cowardice be considered the lowest of vices. Falsehood, too, will be condemned as a form of cowardice. Among a people compelled by weakness or the general lawlessness to rely on shrewdness and finesse to protect themselves or their property, capacity in deceiving people will stand high and gullibility excite contempt. In a commercial community, pecuniary honesty will occupy the chief place among virtues, even if truthfulness be of small account. Cheating was held in abhorrence in Venice when lying and adultery were mere trifles. There are parts of the West in which horse-stealing is a worse offence than murder. In the South, in the slavery days, tampering with negroes argued the lowest depth of criminality. There are parts of England in which a man who shoots or traps a fox is held capable of almost any kind of fraud or meanness. It is therefore natural enough that the mere difference in pursuits and interests of the two sexes should create a difference in their respective moral outlook. The management of the pecuniary affairs of the world—the buying, selling, contracting—being in the hands of men, it would be natural that, even if women were simply another class of men told off to different duties, the male standard of morality touching all pecuniary trusts and obligations should be higher, and the male perception about such matters keener, and the male conscience more sensitive. By this we do not mean to say that women are less honest than men in such commercial transactions as fall to their lot. They undoubtedly will compare favorably with men in the discharge of the ordinary obligations, and have perhaps, on the whole, a greater horror of debt. But if we examine this honesty closely, we rarely find that it has the same roots as men's honesty. The horror of debt is, in nine cases out of ten, the result either of the timidity and hopelessness arising out of the consciousness of weakness or of the sensitiveness to local opinion which the circumstances of women's lives often develop to the point of morbidness, or of strong affection, which makes pecuniary sacrifice in one form or another—saving, for instance, for others' benefit—to many women the most grateful of tasks.

But the main cause of the difference lies much deeper than the difference of occupation in the ordinary sense of the word, or than the remoteness of women from affairs, viz., in the nature of the part played by women in the preservation of the very foundation of civilized life—the family. We here touch on a matter on which it is necessary that both the friends of female suffrage and the rest of the world should now and then be forced to listen to the language of soberness and truth. We do not know when the family was founded and the rearing of children became the first social duty of the parents, but, whenever it was, personal purity became the first and most imperative duty of the mother, because, without that, whatever the father's conduct might be, the family would be impossible. The family rests wholly on the husband's certainty about the paternity of his wife's children, and his certainty can only come from confidence in his wife's character. Consequently, all that portion of the moral code of all civilized communities which touches on the relations of the sexes, places personal purity highest in the scale of female virtues, and points in the clearest manner to the preservation of the family as its first if not only object. In fact, if we said that all the restraints which usage and education and manners and law impose on women in society were intended simply to make clear the paternity of children, we should say what is literally true, though it is a truth usually and naturally covered up in periphrases. The bearing of all this on the possibility of giving purity as high a rank among the male as among the female virtues, by which the imagination of some of the woman's-rights orators is occasionally so much stirred, was pointed out one hundred years ago by Hume in plainer language than we care to use here, but is tolerably plain to any reflecting person. Society, however, has found it by no means an easy task to impose this burden on women. All attempts to regulate the relations of the sexes have been the very hardest part of the hard fight of civilization against savagery, and, of course, it has been only partially successful. But to succeed in it at all in never so slight a degree, the sternest and most far-reaching discipline has been and is absolutely necessary. It has been necessary to allow no exceptions whatever to the rules which form the conventional defences of marriage, and, accordingly, even when it is admitted that the preservation of the family is the object of female purity, it has never been permissible even for the women who lay aside all intention to enter into matrimony to escape the common law. Society has reasonably enough said that the struggle was too severe to allow of exemption, and that whatever restraints were found necessary for the fortification of female character should be submitted to by all, whatever their aims in life, that in or out of matrimony there should be but one code of morals for women, and that in this code that virtue most useful to society should stand first, or, in plain English, that it was more important that women should be chaste than that they should be honest. So it is; so it always has been, and so it always will be, until the basis of civilization is changed.

To complete the argument, we only need to add that there are certain well-known limitations on moral culture in human character that help to maintain the classification of female virtues which the needs of society have prescribed. It is only in rare cases that this culture is equable or many-sided. In the best men and women, the virtue which for any reason most impresses the imagination, is nurtured, sometimes inordinately, at the expense of others; and so true is this, that a person equally virtuous in many directions is apt to become so at the expense of his general mental and moral vigor. The soldier, in his admiration of courage and truthfulness, becomes comparatively indifferent to chastity; the philanthropist, in growing sensitive to the sight of physical misery, becomes reckless in his speech and unscrupulous in his methods; the priest, in pursuing earthly poverty and abasement, grows in spiritual and professional pride; the lawyer cultivates devotion to his client at the expense of his immediate duty to the community at large; the patriot, in his zeal for his own country, grows indifferent to the larger and loftier claims of the human race. Attempts have been made in various systems of education, mostly ecclesiastical, to impose on men the female scale of morality, and we know with what results, with what loss of the real purity of the soul which comes of the hearty direction of the thoughts to the work which society most plainly requires of us. As far as the world has yet gone, the best thing a man can be is manly. We can conceive of great benefit to it from his being womanly too, but all experience forbids the expectation of any such happy combination in our time, and warrants the belief that great mischief may result from attempts to achieve it.

THE REPUBLICAN CABINET IN FRANCE.

PARIS, March 10, 1876.

UNIVERSAL suffrage has spoken and given its verdict in favor of the Republic. I would even say more: it has spoken not only in favor of the Republic, but of democracy, and I am inclined to think that universal suffrage in France is even more democratic than republican. What has been called the Conservative Republic is a little too aristocratic in its character and its tendencies. The Conservative Republic would be the Republic of the wealthy, the literary, the educated classes of the country, which have lost their belief in a monarchy. The typical representatives of such a Republic are men like M. Thiers; M. Casimir Périer, who has long been an Orléanist, and who is still one of the wealthiest men in France; Léon Say, the actual Minister of Finance, and one of the proprietors of the *Journal des Débats;* M. Dufaure, the Minister of Justice. M. Thiers once said, after he had crossed the Rubicon from the monarchical to the republican side: "The Republic will be Conservative or it will not exist." Now Gambetta also calls himself conservative, only he does not give the same definition of his conservatism as M. Thiers; and universal suffrage, on the whole, seems to be disposed to accept M. Gambetta's definition.

Gambetta enters the new house with a very large following of men who will represent what he once called the "new social strata." The conservative Republicans, the men who belonged to the Left Centre of the last Assembly, are not capable of opposing the new majority—not perhaps even of controlling it. The men of the Left Centre are to the Republicans of the democratic type what the bayonet is to the gun; they have made the Republic, but they can no more keep it in their own hands and control it than the bayonet can lead the gun. Gambetta is the accepted leader of the new Republican majority; M. Thiers has already tried his strength with the strength of Gambetta, and he has failed. In the last Assembly there were various Republican groups—the Left Centre group, the Republican Left, the extreme Left. M. Thiers and his friends were very anxious that these groups should continue to exist and to have distinct organizations; Gambetta, on the contrary, convoked all the new Republican deputies to a meeting in Versailles, and he maintained that these old divisions had become unnecessary: the new majority would be much more respected if it spoke as a whole. According to his desire, the meeting passed a resolution in virtue of which "the new Republican majority, just issued from universal suffrage, will only give its confidence to a Republican and perfectly homogeneous cabinet."

This question of the "homogeneous cabinet" is likely to become very troublesome. It must not be forgotten that Marshal MacMahon was named the Chief of the Executive by a Conservative majority; that he considers himself bound to preserve the peace of the country. He has very honestly accepted the republican form of government, and seems quite willing to form his cabinet after the rules of constitutional countries; but he has told M. Dufaure that the interests of the country, under her very peculiar circumstances, seem to him to demand some stability in those ministries which are especially concerned with the national interests of France. He asks that the Minister of Foreign Affairs, the Ministers of the Army and of the Navy, be placed, if possible, outside and above the party contests. This pretension is not unreasonable, as the Parliament, having choice of all the other ministers, can always have in the cabinet a majority inspired with its own views. Marshal MacMahon is probably not well versed in American institutions; otherwise he would have asked much more than he has done, and insisted upon his right to choose his own ministers. The constitution of the 25th February, it is true, declares that he is only responsible in case of high treason; the last Chamber did its best to create for him a sort of irresponsibility similar to that of a constitutional monarch, in the futile hope that the revision clause would some day change the President into a king, without any necessity for remodelling all the constitutional laws. Still, it is quite clear that the president of a republic can never be irresponsible to the same degree as a king. First of all, he may or may not be re-elected at the expiration of his term of office; secondly, he does not represent a dynasty, a historical tradition. Marshal MacMahon cannot fold his arms and behave exactly like a constitutional king; he must take, as a soldier, the deepest concern in the reorganization of the army; he must have in his Minister of Foreign Affairs a trusty adviser, holding the lofty position of your Secretary of State. The Republicans themselves have thus far seemed to admit this necessity; they helped the re-election of the Duc Decazes as deputy, but they began their campaign by attacking the Minister of the Navy, and by asking his removal, under the pretext that he belonged to the Right of the last Assembly. M. Casimir Périer, whom the President was willing to accept for the Home Office, made himself their organ on this point; he refused to enter the cabinet if Admiral Montaignac was not replaced by Admiral Pothuau, who belongs, like himself, to the Left Centre. But it is clear that the three ministers I have mentioned are like a citadel with three bastions; if you give up one bastion, the two others will soon be assailed.

Gambetta has joined in the cry for what is called a "homogeneous cabinet," but I have it from good authority that he is not inclined to create too much embarrassment for the Marshal. He shows himself much more moderate on this point than M. Thiers, who is burning to take revenge for the 24th of May, and who will never be satisfied till the Marshal is disgusted out of office. Gambetta is young, and he is in no hurry. He has the flexible mind of an Italian, and he has no desire to bring matters to a crisis. He must see that the Republic has never had so good an opportunity; for the first time it has sprung out of legality, and not out of sedition. It has seemed even to the old supporters of the constitutional monarchy the necessity of France. The head of the Bourbon family lost his last chance when he insisted upon the substitution of the white flag for the tricolor. The Princes of Orléans have quietly resumed their places in the army, and have retired from the political arena. The Duc d'Aumale is engrossed with his corps d'armée, and with the duty of repairing the frontier places of the East; the Duc de Chartres commands a regiment at Lunéville; the Duc de Nemours is studying the Austrian cavalry manœuvres, and trying to improve the French cavalry; the Comte de Paris is finishing quietly at Eu his 'History of the American War.' There remains no hostile party before the Republic except the Bonapartist party, which struggles with difficulty against the painful memories of the Empire. If the republican experiment should fail this time, it will be proof that the Republicans are really incapable of governing France and of satisfying the legitimate wants of the country. Many good citizens may remain for one reason or another neutral witnesses of the experiment, but none will be found to throw difficulties in the way of the Republic.

The sense of this responsibility cannot but weigh on the minds of the younger Republicans, who do not belong to the old school of the barricade-makers; and though Gambetta showed at the time of the war that responsibility sits rather lightly on his shoulders, it is so clearly his interest to give satisfaction to the nation that he must keep his party in order and substitute the word of reform for the word of revolution. Universal suffrage is as capricious and as irresistible as the sea; it brought the Republicans into power in 1849, and it supported Louis Napoleon in 1851; the flood which has now forced the Republicans into power may retire like the tide, if they do not show themselves worthy of the confidence of the country. Thus far there is nothing extravagant in the programme of Gambetta; but he will soon find it difficult to control the impatient members of his party, and then the world will see if he has in him the stuff of a real statesman, or if he is only a Ledru-Rollin or a Castelar. He already declares to-day in his paper, the *République Française*, that he would not consider himself satisfied with a ministry which contained no members of the true Left, and was composed only of the Centre Left. This language is in contradiction with his own utterances at Versailles; if, as he said, all the Republicans ought to merge in one great party, why should he keep these old and now worn-out denominations?

Marshal MacMahon and M. Dufaure, finding M. Casimir Périer too intractable, have decided to do without him, and have confided the Home Office to M. Ricard, who belonged to the last Assembly, and who is a good lawyer of Poitiers. M. Ricard was one of the stars of the Left Centre, but it cannot be said that the rays of his glory have as yet extended very far. Besides, he has been beaten in his own section by universal suffrage, and in order to secure his position in the new cabinet it will be necessary for the Senate to make him a senator in place of M. de la Rochelle, the only senator who has died since there has been a Senate. The new cabinet, as it appears this morning in the official paper, cannot be said to be a strong cabinet. The only man of any importance in it is M. Dufaure, a wonderful speaker and good debater; but M. Dufaure is getting old, and moreover he will confine himself as much as possible to the Ministry of Justice. The Marshal has made a concession in allowing a change in the department of the Navy, but he has retained General de Cissey and the Duc Decazes. The new ministry will be immediately assailed, and will probably find support only in the Senate. The election of the Bureaux (the permanent committees of the French Chambers) has shown that while there is an overwhelming Republican majority in the Chamber of Deputies, the majority of the Senate will most likely be controlled by those moderate Republicans who call themselves Constitutionalists. The Senate will have to play the part which has so long been played by the House of Lords in England: it will have to throw over many laws

inspired by false economical, political, or religious views. It remains to be seen whether there will be enough vitality and energy in it for this difficult part of a political brake. The experiment is an entirely new one; hitherto, the Upper Chambers in France have been conducted with a quiet and useless majesty; they have enjoyed *otium cum dignitate*. The new Senate, having been formed of the nominees of the Communes of France, may have more life. At any rate, it is not much to be doubted that the duty of defending the national and social interests of the country will inevitably fall upon this new body, as the spirit of the Chamber of Deputies is the product of a strong reaction against the Conservative party.

Correspondence.

LEGISLATION IN REGARD TO INSECTS INJURIOUS TO AGRICULTURE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your satirical remarks on the above subject in referring (p. 169) to the passage by the Senate of a bill for the investigation of certain insects seems to me unwarranted. If your ridicule is aimed simply at the bill as it has passed the Senate, there is, perhaps, justification for it. But it appears to be aimed at the idea of any national legislation having for object the investigation of injurious insects with a view of protecting our agriculture from their ravages. It is this attitude which, as a constant and generally delighted reader of the *Nation*, I regret.

You will not deny the importance of our agricultural interests. You will, further, not deny—if you are at all familiar with the facts—that insects, by their devastations, reduce in an enormous degree the products of our agriculture, and form the most serious obstacle to its advancement in many portions of the country. They often cost the United States, at the lowest computation, a hundred million dollars annually.

These facts being granted, it is my conviction that Congress ought to make some especial effort to save to the country a part at least of this immense loss, and I would urge, among others, the following reasons:

1. Thorough knowledge of the habits of any insect pest is most essential to enable us to overcome it.

2. Most insects will succumb if we attack them at the right time, in the right place, and with the proper force, while their injuries may often be entirely avoided by wise preventive measures.

3. There are certain pests, such as those mentioned in the bill originally introduced by Senator Ingalls, which have so wide a range and such great destructive power that they affect the whole nation. The habits of these have never been fully investigated, nor have any extended experiments as to how best to control them ever been made, for the simple reason that such investigations and experiments require much more time and means than have ever been at the disposal of any of the State entomologists, and that no person or persons have ever been empowered and commissioned to do the work. There remain to-day many enigmas in the life-history and habits of the cotton worm (*Anomis xylina*, Say), which, if solved, might give the planter easily-obtained immunity from its injuries, while there is every reason to believe that a thorough study of the Rocky Mountain locust (*Caloptenus spretus*, Thos.), in its native breeding-places, would give us the means of preventing its occasional irruptions into the States of Kansas, Nebraska, Minnesota, Iowa, and Missouri, in all of which it is not indigenous. Instances of this kind might be multiplied.

4. In this line of research the Department of Agriculture has hitherto signally failed to give the farmers of the West any relief. The present head of that Department, influenced perhaps by his experience in the East, where the people do not begin to suffer from insect pests as we do here in the West, has shown a total lack of appreciation of the needs of the West in this regard, else he would long since have asked of Congress the means and power to organize and carry on the investigations referred to.

It is owing to the inefficiency of said department in this field that a strong appeal has been made to Congress from this part of the country to have the investigations made by an independent Commission; and those who are familiar with the losses, the destitution and suffering that insects often entail on our farmers, find nothing to ridicule in any national legislation that will tend to relieve them. In this matter we may learn a lesson from other nations who have felt the necessity of enacting laws and creating commissions for the suppression of insect enemies. But if any legislation is to be had, let it be wise—let it be such as to give some guarantee that the objects had in view will be attained, and not such as to court failure. Any commission, to be of use, should be composed of from three to five persons, trained and competent; and to secure such, the appointing power should not be left to any one individual, or to political influence, but rather to some body like the National Academy of Science. It should, further, be given sufficient time—at least five years—and means for experimentation somewhat commensurate with the interests at stake.

I am decidedly of the opinion that if we cannot get legislation that will secure these qualifications in the Commission, we had better have none at all. The amended bill, as it has passed the Senate, providing for a single commissioner for one year, would scarcely do more than give a sinecure to some individual willing to accept it, and would bring reproach on science by attempting in its name to do that which it is impossible to do with such inadequate means.

In conclusion, I take the liberty of enclosing a couple of articles from the St. Louis *Globe-Democrat*, in which this subject is more fully considered.

Very respectfully yours,

C. V. Riley.

St. Louis, Mo., March 20, 1876.

THE LONDON *ACADEMY* AND PROFESSOR WHITNEY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I feel constrained to appeal to you to help set me right before the public.

In the recently published fourth volume of his 'Chips' Professor Max Müller has made upon me, in return for my repeated and often unfavorable criticisms of his views and reasonings, a personal attack, as to the character of which you have clearly expressed your opinion in your last issue. To that attack the London *Academy* editorially called attention in advance of publication, assuring the English people that its "piquant justice" would be appreciated by all classes of readers. The same paper admitted from a contributor a notice extolling the truthfulness and candor of the author as displayed in the volume, and inviting the public to the enjoyment of the concluding article. I therefore sent to the *Academy* a letter, which it had the fairness to print (Jan. 1), pointing out about a dozen of the grossest of Müller's misrepresentations; doing it in language so studiously calm that I have been privately and publicly reproached, on both sides of the ocean, for not speaking out more frankly. And whereas Mr. Müller had challenged me to set up a tribunal of my European friends, not below the grade of professors ordinary, to judge a certain series of points which it had pleased him to select and put forth as the principal matters at issue between us, I offered to let them be judged by *his* friends instead of mine, provided he could find any who were willing to sit on such a case. To this letter Mr. Müller was allowed to make in the next number of the *Academy* what purported to be an answer. He withdrew, with a lame and shuffling defence (so it appeared to me), one of his original charges, but buried in utter silence the rest of the points I had made; he took no notice of my proposal in answer to his challenge, but improved the occasion to misstate the ground on which he had in the first place called for the tribunal. I did not feel willing to let the matter rest there, and addressed a second letter to the *Academy*. This the editor has declined to print—a result for which I was not wholly unprepared, knowing well how difficult it is to procure a hearing in England for any charge against Müller, however justly and reasonably made. But, not content with a bare refusal, the editor has seen fit to announce the fact publicly, and in a paragraph which seems to me gravely to misrepresent both the present aspect of the question between us and the character and contents of my letter. His words are these:

"... The letter is simply calculated to stir up further bad blood, without contributing a single point towards the final settlement (if such be desired) of the controversy at present outstanding between the writer and Prof. Max Müller. We understand Prof. Max Müller to have offered or accepted the submission of some points at issue between him and Prof. Whitney to the judgment of one or more dispassionate persons. It matters not, as it appears to us, whether these gentlemen, provided that they were willing and competent to act, be the 'friends' of one party or the other, or of neither. Prof. Whitney's letter, so far as it is not occupied with angry recrimination, harps exclusively upon the question whose friends the judges are to be. ..."

It is due to me, I think, that the letter thus described should itself be given to the American public, that they may see whether the description is truthful. The following is an exact copy of it:

"In a recent letter, printed in your paper for January 1, I offered to submit Mr. Max Müller's twenty points of indictment against me to the judgment of *his* personal friends instead of mine, provided he could find three who were willing to take them into serious consideration. At the same time, I made a few statements in illustration of the kind of justice and fairness and candor which your correspondents had extolled as characterizing his accusations and his plea in their support. In your next number

(for January 8) you admitted what purported to be an answer by him, but an answer defective in two important respects. In the first place, he took notice of only a single one of the dozen points which I had made against him, absolutely ignoring the rest, although there were among them cases in which he seems to have laid himself fully open to the imputation of having sacrificed the truth for the purpose of casting odium on me, and which therefore called imperatively for explanation on his part. In the second place, he pays no heed to my acceptance of his summons to judgment, on terms even more favorable to him than he demanded, but merely shifts his ground with regard to the intent of the summons. In the 'Chips,' namely, he says that his suggestion of a Joint High Commission, of nicely defined constitution, is made 'in order to satisfy Mr. Darwin, Professor Haeckel, and others whose good opinion I highly value, because I know that they care for truth far more than for victory.' Now he asserts instead that he wanted me for *my* sake, not for his own, to submit the points in question to the judgment of *any* of my friends. I do not know how to understand this otherwise than as preparing the way for a complete abandonment of the proposal on his part, by transferring to me the intended benefit of the solemn adjudication, and hence the responsibility of organizing the means of making it. The plan, however, was none of mine. I have little faith in such tribunals, which, so far as I know, never do and never can settle anything: a controversy begun before the general public must be finished and judged at the same bar. Only, as it has pleased Mr. Müller to ask for a tribunal, I wish to make it distinctly understood that, if none is constituted, it will not be because I have not expressed my entire willingness to appear before one. I should, I believe, have little difficulty in proving to the satisfaction of every fair-minded man, however he might beforehand have been prejudiced against me, that the twenty charges fall into four classes—1, Those which I can easily refute; 2, Those which have no pertinence, as involving mistaken and unfair statements; 3, Those which are too trivial to be worth notice; and, 4, Those which come under two or three of the heads already mentioned.

"Mr. Müller asks to be allowed to append my former letter to his article should he have occasion to reprint it. I willingly assent to his request, and permit him also to add the present note; and further, I will, if he desires, furnish him for the same purpose with a score or two more of refutations of his errors and exposures of his misrepresentations."

You alluded a fortnight ago (p. 179) to Müller's peculiar dealings with the St. Petersburg Sanskrit lexicon, in a notice of that work which has drawn forth from its venerable senior editor, Professor Böhtlingk, in the Jena *Literaturzeitung*, one of the most withering rebukes that was ever dealt in such a case. To show that there are others besides myself who feel compelled to charge Müller with dishonesty and insolence as a critic, I allow myself to quote a few sentences from Böhtlingk's reply. After exposing in detail the shifts and evasions of Müller's plea, Böhtlingk says:

"Now, I ask whether we were not right in characterizing his criticism as a wanton one. If, now that his justification of it has appeared, I were called upon to express my opinion of his conduct, I should first take counsel of a lawyer as to how far I might go without rendering myself liable to an action for libel."

And again, further on:

"I close with the following requests: that Müller, whose scientific ability I estimate at its full value, will henceforth spare me his commendations, since they neither give me pleasure nor do me special honor. On the other hand, I beg him, as distinguished linguist and talented investigator, to scrutinize my works as severely as he pleases, and to expose my errors—only, in accordance with truth. Surely, I have often enough shown that I am ready to be grateful to even the youngest scholar, provided he gives me valuable correction. Further, I believe I speak out of the hearts of the great majority of scholars in our department when I give him the advice *to write less*. Sundry of his books and articles border hard on the trivial. Also, let him learn at last to be less assuming, since he cannot, after all, succeed in becoming, and in inducing competent judges to take him for, what he would fain seem to be. The pitcher that goes too often to the well is at last broken."

Yours respectfully,

W. D. WHITNEY.

YALE COLLEGE, NEW HAVEN, March 21, 1876.

P.S.—Since writing the above, I learn that a friend in London to whom I sent a (somewhat altered and extended) copy of my letter to the *Academy*, for use in case the latter refused it admission, has found in the *Examiner* (of March 4) a paper fair and independent enough to publish it. As, however, there is nothing to show the relation between the two letters, and as many in this country will be likely to see the *Academy's* paragraph and not the letter, I do not think there is any reason why I should withdraw the above explanation.

Notes.

J. H. COATES & CO. have imported a limited number of sets of the maps accompanying the French edition of the Comte de Paris's 'History of the Civil War in America,' which they are able to offer at the very low price of $6 50—about half what will be charged for any subsequent importation. These maps are beautifully executed in three colors, and are folded into a folio of 12½ x 18 inches. They are in two parts, each accompanying two volumes of the original work, and number in all thirteen sheets, holding forty-five maps and plans. They ought to find a ready sale not only among the purchasers of the Messrs. Coates's edition of the History, but among all students of the war.——Guizot's posthumous work, a 'Popular History of England, from the Earliest Times,' edited by his daughter, will be published in this country by Estes & Lauriat, Boston. The work is illustrated.——S. C. Griggs & Co., Chicago, have in press 'Words, their Significance, Use, and Abuse,' by Prof. Mathews; 'Two Years in California,' by S. M. Cone; 'The Pilot and his Wife,' a love story from the Norwegian; and the following works by Prof. R. B. Anderson: 'Viking Tales of the North,' from the Icelandic sagas; and translations of the Elder and the Younger Edda.——Scribner, Armstrong & Co. will shortly begin the publication of a 'Sans Souci Series,' edited by Mr. R. H. Stoddard in a manner to supplement his 'Bric-à-brac Series,' with which also it will be uniform in appearance. From the rather vague prospectus we learn that the new series will be made up of "historical and biographical *ana*, particularly those which illustrate several important epochs in the civilization of modern Europe."——The Oneida (N. Y.) Community are to essay a new literary venture, more propagandist than their present *Circular*, to be called the *American Socialist*. Mr. John Humphrey Noyes will be the responsible editor.——*Notes and Queries* announces the publication of a two-volume catalogue of the printed books and MSS. bequeathed to the South Kensington Museum by Alexander Dyce. A portrait and a biographical sketch by the late John Forster are prefixed.——It is proposed to ask Congress to appoint national commissions to report at the next meeting of the International Medical Association on the feasibility of securing uniformity of measures, instruments, and methods of medical observation.——Dr. Daniel Sanders's large dictionary, which has long been indispensable to advanced students of German, is now appearing, a new edition, in parts. There are to be thirty-six in all, at two marks (about forty-seven cents in gold) apiece, and the last one is promised before the end of the year. Dr. Sanders's latest work is a German grammar for use in the public schools ('Deutsche Sprachlehre für Volks- und Bürgerschulen'; Berlin: Langenscheidt). There is at the end an appendix of some twenty pages, containing a very complete and useful list of irregular verbs and verbs of the strong conjugation.——The addresses of President Gilman and others at the dedication of the Johns Hopkins University have been printed in pamphlet form. It is announced that instruction will begin in Baltimore October 3.——The "Choral Training School for Music" in London is making excellent progress. Ninety-three scholarships, of £50 each per annum for three years, have been provided; the Queen, the Prince of Wales, and the Duke and Duchess of Edinburgh being among the donors.

—In response to an enquiry in regard to a recent advertiser in the *Nation*, the Postmaster-General authorizes us to state that the use of his name as a reference by the person in question (C. A. Lincoln, of Jacksonville, Florida) was without permission; and that he knows nothing of him, except as an office-seeker whose application he had refused.

—We are glad to record the fact that a bill constituting a commission to conduct a trigonometric and topographical survey of the State of New York was introduced into the Assembly by Dr. Isaac I. Hays, who succeeded in passing it through that body by a vote of 68 in favor to 33 opposed—a remarkable majority for a scientific measure. The movement, as our readers know, originated with the American Geographical Society.

—Mr. Charles A. de Kay writes us from this city, under date of March 25, as follows:

"Mr. Howells handed me a copy, word for word, of the letter you have thought fit to publish in this week's *Nation*. It had no date or address; merely the postmark Genova. I had no means of knowing whether the signer, 'Valeria Gigliucci,' was Miss or Mrs., but since you speak of her as Miss, I am led to infer that you know her. I can only inform Miss Gigliucci that I have never even heard before of Mrs. Cowden Clarke's 'charming, fanciful story of "Kit Bam, Mariner,"' and must rest my case for integrity—the merit of the fiction is nothing—on the good opinion of my friends. If the parallel between the two stories is so striking, I can only regret having written mine."

—It is a comfort to think that the generation which is to succeed the present incompetent managers of the national finances will have had some training for the task, not only from the discussions and experience of the past few years, but from downright study. The direction of this study could heretofore only have been surmised, but the recent answers to the *Publishers' Weekly's* prize question on Political Economy appear to furnish a tolerably accurate means of judging what the tendency is. The "prize list" happens to be identical with the "list by popular vote," so that there

is no room to doubt what are the ten most popular works on political economy, and that out of every 194 of them called for at the stores, 30 will be Mill's 'Principles,' 30 Adam Smith's 'Wealth of Nations,' 23 Prof. Perry's 'Elements,' 20 Cairnes's 'Some Leading Principles,' 19 Fawcett's 'Manual,' 17 Walker's 'Science of Wealth,' 17 Wayland's 'Elements,' 14 Greeley's 'Science,' 13 Bowen's 'American Political Economy,' 11 Jevons's 'Theory.' To make this exhibit perfectly intelligible we should need to know how many of the above works are required as text-books in our colleges, and the names of the colleges; but, apart from this, it is clear that the body of doctrine now most in force in this country is overwhelmingly sound. Nor is the outlook any less encouraging when we come to the less popular works, led off by Prof. Sumner's 'History of American Currency' (9), those next in order being Jevons's 'Science of Money' (8), Bastiat's 'Essays' (7), Cairnes's 'Character and Logical Method' (7), Mrs. Fawcett's 'Political Economy for Beginners' (5), McCulloch's 'Principles' (5), Mason and Lalor's 'Primer' (5), Carey's 'Social Science' (4), Price's 'Currency and Banking' (4)—another list to which very little exception can be taken. Finally, to carry the investigation *ad ima*, the least popular are still wholesome, viz., Bascom's, List's, and Say's works (3 each); Bagehot's 'Lombard Street,' Bastiat's 'Sophisms,' Butts's 'Protection and Free-Trade'; Cairnes's 'Essays,' Fawcett's 'Essays and Lectures' (2 each). Now if we embrace the whole scale in one view, we find the total number to be 267, and this gives us a ratio of *authors* as follows: Mill, 11.24 per cent.; Smith, 11.24; Cairnes, 10.86; the Fawcetts, 9.74; Perry, 8.61; Jevons, 7.12; Walker, 6.37; Wayland, 6.37; Greeley, 5.24; Bowen, 4.87. In other words, these ten writers (counting for convenience Prof. and Mrs. Fawcett as one) supply nearly 82 per cent. (81.66) of the public demand for works on political economy.

—*Harper's* for April is rich in Centennial reading. The eighteenth paper of the regular series deals with the progress of the fine arts, the writer seeming rather more concerned to omit nobody from his retrospect than to be particularly critical. Benjamin West, however, is allowed to have painted only one picture "rising above the dead level of Academical mediocrity." The portraits of the older artists are interesting. "Old Philadelphia" is treated excellently well by Mrs. Rebecca Harding Davis. She begins with the early Swedish settlers, whose descendants are now well represented in the city that entertains so much respect for "old families"; and, not unmindful of this Philadelphia trait, makes a large part of the interest of her narrative turn upon the history of many well-known names. It was a peaceable, well-ruled town from the time when three books were preserved for sixty years among the Swedes, from which all the settlement learned to read, down to the time when oppressed religionists from New England were kindly received. It is a pungent recollection in our fraudulent epoch that in those days when a merchant failed his house was darkened and the family went into mourning. Mrs. Davis draws some comparisons between Philadelphia and the New England settlements unfavorable to the latter, which we will offset by a single observation: Printing was flourishing in Boston when William Penn stopped the first printer in Philadelphia, who put into his 'Almynack' that "the rule of the Lord Penn was earlier than the flood," because such Mystery of Printing was "a danger to the printer and the country." Mr. Lossing's "Romance of the Hudson" might have spared a well-worn story or so. What we have hitherto read in "Daniel Deronda" apparently does us but little good in the present issue, for we are plunged among new sets of people, who appear to open as many new plots as 'Middlemarch' contained. If Miss Harleth is one heroine, Mirah Lapidoth is plainly to be another one; and between the romantic nature of her introduction to us and the number of illegitimate relations to be settled, one wonders how only eight numbers of *Harper's* are to contain it all.

—In *Lippincott's* fourth paper on the Century we reach, betimes, the "Centennial Exposition under Roof." Good elevations of the buildings are given, but it is a pity they were not accompanied by ground-plans. In default of these the author has to perform a great deal of heavy description, involving many figures, and to strive to conduct his readers, with a clear idea of where they are going, through endless rooms and galleries. Difficult as the task is, any one with a fair sense of locality can get along pretty well. On behalf of those not thus gifted, however, one feels like protesting against the introduction of such confusing and whimsical remarks as this, apropos of the width of the main promenades: "Narrow highways these for traversing the kingdoms of the world; but, combined, they nearly equal the bottom depth [width ?] of the Suez Canal, very far exceed the five feet of the Panama Railway, and still farther the camel-track that sufficed a few centuries ago to link our ancestors to the Indies." Equally futile is the comparison to the storage in Noah's Ark which follows. Lady Barker's third letter treats without dulness of a somewhat dullish life in Natal. In the paper on the "Instruction of Deaf-Mutes" the difficulty of teaching these unfortunates to use the English language is amusingly illustrated by a letter, written the day after Thanksgiving, which ran thus: "Dear Mother: We had Thanks be unto God, no school yesterday, Turkey mincepies, and many other kinds of fruits." The article, in fact, is chiefly amusing, but it clearly indicates that the religious creed taught to deaf-mutes should be as simple as possible, owing to the obstacles in the way of conveying to them any abstract thought. The most serious article in *Lippincott's*, "The College Student," might even be called sombre. It will depend quite on the individual experience of Mr. Hart's readers whether they regard his general arraignment of the dormitory system, the class system, and what he calls the "spirit of caste" in our colleges, with sympathy or with surprise. His illustrations of the evils of each suggest the query whether the fault does not, in any given instance, lie at least as much with the government as with the constitution of the college. An inefficient president and faculty, for instance, would do far more to foster disorder than the mere facility for combination afforded by the dormitory or by class recitations. We do not feel, either, that Mr. Hart makes good his plea for metropolitan as opposed to rustic or small-city colleges. Everything depends upon the city itself whether professors or students will gain by the attrition with the world which Mr. Hart so much prizes. With all respect to Columbia and the University of Pennsylvania, it cannot be said that they sustain Mr. Hart's general proposition; nor, on the other hand, should we have greater hopes of Harvard's usefulness if Cambridge should some day be included in the limits of the municipality of Boston. On this head and the foregoing, we think Mr. Hart has been somewhat misled by his German examples. Nevertheless, what he has to say on each topic is well worth considering.

—Some of the undertakings suggested during this Centennial year are even more stupendous than the Exposition itself. The Commission has recommended each county in the United States to provide in its celebration of the coming Fourth of July for "the delivery of an address tracing the history of that particular community for the past century, or from the time of its settlement, and including a sketch of its growth, its resources, industries, prospects, etc." "These addresses should be published in a uniform size, in order that they may be bound together by States"; and, in order that time may be given for the preparation of them, "designations of the historians ought to be made without delay." We think this suggestion was thrown out about March 1, but it manifestly comes too late by many months. There exist, of course, already a fair number of county histories (mostly New England), which could be drawn upon by the Fourth-of-July orator, but it can hardly be thought that a *précis* of any one of these would be of much value except as awakening an interest in historical studies. In all other cases, the original work that could now be achieved (for counties not absolutely new) must necessarily be superficial, and not worth the binding, even if worth the printing. Moreover, who is to "designate" the historians, and what guaranty is there that they will accept so difficult a task? Altogether, the scheme wears a hopeless look, as if one of the supernumerary Centennial germs that are foreordained not to fructify. Formidable as it seems, however, it is child's-play compared with the work which the "Pilgrim Record Society" of this city has in hand—nothing less than "to collate and prepare for the press the genealogical histories of all known descendants of the Pilgrim Fathers, with the view of completing during the Centennial year a literary monument to the memory of noble ancestors." Dr. David-Parsons' Holton is, we believe, the Society, or the mainspring of it, and we wish him a year devoid of ennui—and one with more than twelve months in it. For our own part, we should prefer the chance of becoming Pilgrim Fathers ourselves held out to us by the "African Company" of Cincinnati, which proposes, in a circular too long to quote, "to organize a company, under the laws of Kentucky and the Constitution and laws of the United States, to trade in Africa, to secure trading-posts and concessions, to open new avenues of trade, and to use the means of the company so formed to establish steam lines, or to build railroads, or to foster the cultivation of profitable products, and to act in such a manner in Africa as to make the company rich and strong, and to carry out the desires of the American people [what are they ?] in that direction, and to enhance the value of the stock of the African Company in every possible way." Colored Americans in particular are invited to step up and take shares at a hundred dollars each to the amount of five millions. As an equivalent, shareholders are to have "the preference in the employments and nomination to offices under the Company." This is almost as tempting as the Samana Bay Company's allurements.

—The *Geographical Magazine* for March contains the expected map of Cameron's route from Lake Tanganyika nearly to the West Coast, together with one showing a part of the route traversed by Livingstone as well as by his successor. The cartographer's remarks on this famous journey are interesting, but of necessity meagre. It is pleasant to find that Livingstone's reckoning compares so favorably with that of the more expert and better equipped Cameron. Mr. David Ker's paper on "The World's Future Coal Depot," meaning Russia, is certain to console the hearts of his countrymen for the blank prospect of the giving-out of their coal-mines, and, if the Russians were Yankees, it would have an immediate effect upon the price of coal-lands in the Don and the Moscow basins, and be the signal for a railroad mania for which the United States alone could furnish a parallel. Something like this will take place, doubtless, when the demand comes from England. Meanwhile, the world at large may repose with confidence in the knowledge of the vast and as yet indeterminable deposits of this country and of China.

—The Wisconsin Legislature has not often of late been complimented by the *Nation*, and we therefore are glad of an opportunity to notice its recent liberal action, more especially towards the University and the State Library. It has imposed by law a tax of one-tenth of a mill for the benefit of the University, which thus receives an immediate addition of about $20,000 to its income, with the certainty of future increase with the growth of the State. It has also authorized the University to sell the vacant Soldiers' Orphans' Home given it by the last Legislature for a Medical College, such a college not being thought advisable by the regents. This building has an estimated value of about $20,000, and the proceeds will probably be devoted to building a chapel. As for the Historical Society, the Legislature has increased the annual appropriation by $1,500, making a total of $5,000 besides salaries ($2,800) and the use of rooms warmed and lighted. It also prints for the Society a supplementary catalogue and a volume of Collections in alternate years, and for the Academy of Sciences a volume of Transactions in alternate years. It appropriated $10,000 for the purchase for the University of Dr. Lapham's collections, with botanical specimens amounting to 20,000 and geological to 10,000 (to mention no others), and with a library of about 1,000 volumes. It further appropriated $20,000 for the representation of the State at the Centennial, and authorized the printing of the State Geological Report. As this is the same body that practically abrogated the Granger railroad law, it certainly deserves to be remembered and to be imitated by other legislatures.

—The third International Congress of Orientalists is to be held this year at St. Petersburg, beginning on the 1st of September. According to the arrangements made at the second Congress in London, in 1874, the meeting in Russia should have been held last year, but, for reasons not made public, it was postponed. The Committee of Organization has now printed and distributed its rules for the conduct of the session. Suitably enough, the affairs of Asiatic Russia are made the central and leading subject, as Japanese studies were given the same prominence at the first Congress in Paris. Of the ten days' meetings, four will be devoted to them ; the three following will be given to India (Hither and Farther), to Arabia with Egypt and Turkey, and to the rest of Asia ; and then a day each to general Oriental archæology and to Oriental religions. The Committee propose to fix the topics which shall be discussed at the meetings, and no others will be admitted unless they receive the Committee's approval, on proposal by a member, with statement of the views which he intends to bring forward. Only strictly scientific subjects will be taken up ; questions concerning the Christian religion or contemporary politics and industry are excluded. Communications and remarks upon them are to be limited to fifteen minutes for each speaker. Some of these regulations may seem perhaps a little strait-laced ; but they are doubtless intended, and will be effective, to prevent the miscellaneousness, and the monopoly of time by a few interminably long addresses and papers, which did so much to spoil the English Congress. There is a large and active body of Russian scholars and officials thoroughly versed in all matters affecting the infinitely varied and extended interests of Russia in the East, and their communications will certainly make the meeting, as organized, a very profitable one to all who are able to be present, as well as to the world, by the publication of papers and debates. The intended exposition also of objects illustrating the Orient will doubtless be a very rich one. The Russian Government liberally defrays all the actual expenses of the Congress, so that the contributions of members will be available purely for purposes of publication. The sum required to make one a member is $3 of our money (12 francs, 10 shillings or marks), and there is no question that the full commercial value of this sum will be received back in print. Such was the case with the French Congress ; the transactions of the London one are not yet out, though we have an excellent substitute for them in Trübner's very full report. Persons of both sexes interested in the objects of the Congress are admitted as members, and any learned body may assume the position of a member, gaining a right to send an accredited representative, and to receive, like a member, a copy of everything that is published. To the meeting at London many distinguished scholars were sent from Germany, with their expenses paid, by the various local governments ; it is not likely that such an example will be followed this time in America, or that many Americans will make it convenient to go so far, especially in Centennial year. There should be, however, American subscribing members enough to show that the importance of the meeting is appreciated in our country. Professor Whitney, of Yale College, New Haven, has received from the organizing committee the appointment of Corresponding Member for the United States, and intending subscribers are requested to report to him. The secretary of foreign correspondence at St. Petersburg is the Baron Victor de Rosen ; and M. Peter Lerch is charged with the special interests of the exposition.

—In No. 502 of the *Nation* we called attention to the collection of English songs and ballads of the sixteenth century contained in a MS. (Cotton. Vesp. A. 25) of the British Museum, and edited for the *Jahrbuch für Romanische und Englische Literatur* by H. Böddeker. This collection has already run through three numbers (II Bd. Neue Folge, pp. 81, 210, 347), and is now finished in the number before us (III Bd. N. F., 1876, p. 92). Most of these ballads, etc , are now edited for the first time, and in an excellent manner, and the whole collection cannot fail to be interesting and useful. Other articles of interest in the present number are : a version of the old French romance of Renaus de Montauban, from a MS. in the Bodleian Library, Romance words in the mediæval Greek dialect of Cyprus, and the usual philological *mélanges*.

THOMAS'S HISTORY OF PRINTING.*

THE memoir of the author of the 'History of Printing in America,' prefixed to the first volume of the new edition of that work, presents to us a very remarkable man. The story has few parallels. If it can fitly be said of any one that he was "self-made," then surely that term can be applied to Isaiah Thomas. He was born in Boston, in 1749, and when he was only seven years old the straitened circumstances of his mother, a widow, compelled her to bind him as an apprentice to a printer. Saving six weeks' "schooling," his education was wholly gathered in the printing-office. At seventeen he quarrelled with his master, and, imitating the example of Franklin, "retired privately"; for the next four years he worked about from Nova Scotia to the Carolinas, and then returned to Boston and engaged in business on his own account. He was getting fairly started, with a newspaper and young family on his hands, and great schemes in his head for extending his operations, when the Revolutionary war broke out. Thomas was an active "Son of Liberty"—his office had been a place of meeting for the Boston patriots ; his name was on the list of the proscribed—and it followed that he was compelled to pack up and look out a new field for action. He selected Worcester, at that time a town of about a thousand inhabitants, and, to quote the words of an eminent traveller, "rendered it famous throughout all the continent." He was enterprising and ambitious to get on in the world ; and, with a strong mind, he seems to have been gifted with that peculiar sagacity sometimes called "knowledge of human nature," which enabled him to pick the proper men for assistants in his various undertakings, and so to extend his business far and wide. He was, too, a thorough master of his trade. Franklin has said that he was the "Baskerville of America," and Brissot that he was the "Didot of the United States." He was paper-maker, printer, binder, publisher, and bookseller, and eminent, too, in each of these branches. A writer, describing his Worcester establishment in 1797, says : "His printing apparatus consists of ten presses, with types in proportion. . . . His printing apparatus is reckoned the largest in America"; but he also employed presses in Boston and elsewhere in New England, and was concerned at one time in eight bookstores in as many large towns of the country, from Boston to Baltimore. He printed and published Bibles in various forms, psalters, histories, school-books, tracts, juvenile books, newspapers, and magazines ; and, to use the language of one of his contemporaries, "there never came a book from his press that

* "The History of Printing in America, with a Biography of Printers, and an Account of Newspapers. By Isaiah Thomas, LL.D." 2 vols. 2d ed., with the Author's corrections and additions, and a Catalogue of American Publications previous to the Revolution of 1776. Albany: Joel Munsell. 1874. [Vols. V. and VI. of Transactions and Collections of the American Antiquarian Society, Worcester, Mass.]

was not an honor to him and a credit to his art." And presently wealth came to his heart's content. At the age of fifty-five he retired from active business, and for the rest of his days employed himself in projects for advancing the general interests of the town and in literary pursuits very dear to him. He wrote the 'History of Printing in America'; he founded the American Antiquarian Society, and endowed it with a collection of precious books and manuscripts, together with a sum of money ample to secure their preservation. College honors were conferred upon him—Master of Arts and Doctor of Laws—and, living to the age of eighty-two, he died with the respect and love that his worth had so fairly won from every one who had known him.

In preparing to write a history of printing, Mr. Thomas brought together rich stores of material. He provided himself with all the specimens of early American printing that he could lay hold upon ; he regarded the cost as a matter of small moment. In the purchase of files of old newspapers alone he paid out upwards of one thousand dollars. He gathered up the "remains" of Cotton Mather's library, and for this, if for nothing else, he deserves the warmest thanks of the antiquary. We know something of what that library once was through John Dunton's letter, written in 1686 : "I do think he has one of the best (for a private library) that I ever saw. Nay, I may go farther, and affirm that, as the famous Bodleian Library at Oxford is the glory of that University, if not of all Europe (for it exceeds the Vatican), so I may say that Mr. Mather's library is the glory of New England, if not of all America. I am sure it was the best sight that I had in Boston." Many of the productions of the press of Stephen Daye and Samuel Green and John Foster would have been swept from the face of the earth but for the ready hand and purse of Isaiah Thomas.

The first edition of Thomas was published in 1810. It is needless to say that it has been many years out of print. We have seen it priced in catalogues as high as $20, and at public sales it has sometimes fetched even more. At the Rice sale (New York, May, 1870) it was knocked down at $85, but the value of this particular copy had been considerably increased by Bedford's binding. Mr. Thomas had himself made some corrections and alterations, having in mind the reprinting of the work in his lifetime ; and in carrying out his expressed wishes, the committee of the American Antiquarian Society (Messrs. Samuel F. Haven and Nathaniel Paine of Worcester, and Joel Munsell of Albany) seem to have regarded themselves as performing a "labor of love" for the author. In that view they have permitted many serious faults to pass into the second edition, for no better reason, seemingly, than that the faults stood in the first edition. Upon a careful examination of this work we feel constrained to say, repeating Mr. Thomas's words in describing another book, that it "abounds with errors." The dates when printers and booksellers first engaged in business, and of collateral events, are frequently wrong. There are, too, many confusing repetitions of names and circumstances, and some are so glaring that we wonder they could have escaped good proof-reading. Of John Mein, a Boston printer and bookseller, it is related that he was "from Edinburgh," that he was "from Scotland," was "born in Scotland," and was "a Scotchman." We are furnished with two accounts of Mecom's *New-England Magazine*. In one we are informed that it contained about *fifty* pages, "but no date either of month or year appeared in the title-page or in the imprint" ; and in the other that each number contained *sixty* pages, and that "this work is without date, either in the title, in the imprint, or in any of its numbers." And yet the magazine is very distinctly dated, in the title and in another place, the first number reading "for August, 1758." The statement is made that Mr. Increase Mather's 'Mystery of Israel's Salvation' was printed in London by John Allen, and hence it is supposed that Allen "came to Boston by encouragement from the Mathers." It happens, however, that the book was not printed by, but *for*, John Allen, and consequently the inference that the Mathers encouraged the printer to come over has nothing to support it. We are told that Samuel Sewall, who succeeded John Foster at the Boston press, in 1681, was "not a printer, but a magistrate." Taking Sewall's own words, he "practised something in that science," and he took no little credit to himself for that he printed the Assembly's Catechism with his "own hand." He certainly was not a "magistrate" until 1684. Mr. Thomas says of Gamaliel Rogers that "about the year 1729 he began business in a printing-house near the Mill Bridge," Boston, when in fact he was in business as early as 1727 in Long Lane, as his imprints sufficiently prove. Henry Phillips published Mather's 'Renewal of the Covenant' in 1677, "at his shop in the West end of the Town-house in Boston"; but Thomas makes no mention of Phillips, nor is this title to be found in the list of "Ante-Revolutionary Publications." We have before us a book printed in New York "by Samuel Brown, at the Foot of Pot Baker's Hill, between the New Dutch-Church and Fly-Market, 1766"; the 'History of Printing' makes no mention of this printer either. In the list of subscribers to Prince's 'Chronology,' printed in 1736 (the subscription was begun in 1728), we find the name of Charles Harrison, "bookseller" ; and in the same list Samuel Eliot, "bookseller," is down for twelve books. Thomas's date for Harrison is 1739, and for Eliot 1740, as the "earliest periods when they are known to have been in business." There is a paragraph of three lines (II., 231) which contains three mistakes. John Edwards, bookseller (son of Joseph), is mentioned as having commenced business in 1767 and as having died March 9, 1778. According to the *News-Letter* of March 17, 1768, young Edwards died March 10 of that year. He is known to have been in business, and his advertisements are in the newspapers, as early as 1763. But to make all the needed corrections would be to extend this notice beyond reasonable bounds, and we run the risk of being monotonous when we add even the following, which are still barely a tenth part of what we might produce if challenged :

Alford Butler's shop, in 1727, was "at the lower end of King Street, near the Crown Coffee-house" (see Robert Russel's 'Seven Sermons' printed for him in that year). Thomas's date is 1729.

John Edwards, bookseller, "next door to the Light House Tavern, on the South side of the Town-House in King-Street," published several books as early as 1718, for a list of which see the catalogue at the end of Increase Mather's sermon at the ordination of Thomas Walter, printed in 1718. Thomas's date is 1719.

Benjamin Elliott, bookseller (Thomas, II., 214), should be *Eliot*.

John Eliot, "under the Great Tree at the South End," was in the book trade as early as 1723 (see 'Contemplations on the State of Man,' printed by T. Fleet, in that year.) Thomas's "earliest period" is 1728.

James Franklin, jr., died *April* 21, 1762 (see *Boston Gazette* of May 3, 1762). Thomas's date is August 22.

Benjamin Gray, bookseller, was in business as early as 1715 (see Cotton Mather's 'Benedictus'). Thomas's date is 1719.

Thomas Hancock was in business as a bookseller in 1725, "at his shop in Ann-street" (see Dr. Colman's two sermons on the Sabbath). Isaac Woody, "bookbinder and bookseller," was in the employ of Hancock, as appears by an indenture dated January 11, 1725 ; he agrees "to work in said Hancock's employ at binding and selling books for him at his shop in Boston for the term of two years, at £50 per annum." Thomas puts Hancock "first in business" in 1726.

Our eyes rest wonderingly upon the "Indian Gazette" which serves as an illustration to the chapter on Newspapers. Mr. Thomas must have regarded it as "authentic," for he has somewhere applied that term to it. We are not disposed to be hypercritical, and yet we cannot withhold the opinion that, considering the importance bestowed upon the "Gazette," it would have been a creditable thing to have stated that it was an exact facsimile of a plate of "Hieroglyphicks" furnished by the Baron La Hontan, in his 'New Voyages to North America,' published in 1703. Its authenticity is another matter. La Hontan is not generally regarded as ranking with the best authorities. Charlevoix says of him, referring to the 'New Voyages,' that he "had a mind to render his account entertaining, and to that end everything true or false was the same to him." There are many reasons for supposing that these hieroglyphics sprung fresh from the brain of La Hontan. They can be made to read almost anything, as may be seen on comparing the baron's "explication" with Thomas's.

This work will be regarded as the principal authority upon the subject of which it treats, and, viewing it as such, we must hold the revising editors responsible for many of its misstatements. They had the means at hand for correcting almost all the errors the author had been led into. To have made the corrections would have been esteemed an act of justice to Thomas ; not to make the essential ones is only discreditable to themselves. The catalogue of 'Ante-Revolutionary Publications' (new matter in this edition), compiled mainly by the late Dr. S. F. Haven, Jr., although far from being complete, is an important contribution to American bibliography, and exhibits a vast deal of painstaking research. We have here a list of about eight thousand titles, arranged by years, commencing with Pierce's Almanac, printed at Cambridge in 1639, and ending with Zubly's 'Sermon on the Law of Liberty,' printed at Philadelphia in 1775. In many instances the collations are given, and there are occasional notes showing where the originals are to be found. The typographical execution of these volumes is, like everything from Munsell's press, a highly finished piece of work. We wish we could say as much for the binding—for that is as bad as muslin can make it—and books like these deserve better covering.

RECENT NOVELS.*

MRS. ALEXANDER has decidedly the knack of writing readable novels. Usually she takes some rather commonplace incidents for the plot and some rather commonplace people for the characters, but she brings to her task

* 'Her Dearest Foe : A Novel. By Mrs. Alexander, author of 'The Wooing O't,' etc.' Leisure Hour Series. New York : Henry Holt & Co. 1876.

so much humor and vivacity that only a very crusty critic would object to following the simple fortunes of her simple people. It is impossible to avoid the thought that the author would do better not to saturate her writing so thoroughly with notions of social distinctions, and to avoid the monotony of pairing off her pleasant heroines with titled men whose main charm is an indefinable gentility; but, after all, this conclusion, of which she is so fond, is only part of the general simplicity of her novels. In 'Her Dearest Foe,' for instance, we find a young widow, Mrs. Travers, whose old and jealous husband has left his money away from her to a relative of his, a harsh-voiced baronet, Sir Hugh Galbraith, who only knew Mrs. Travers by name and had conceived a great dislike for her. Mrs. Travers refuses to accept an annuity Sir Hugh offers her, and in company with a young companion goes to a sea-side town, and under the name of Mrs. Temple opens a shop, the Berlin Bazaar, where she sells worsted, gloves, and such things to the neighboring gentry. Sir Hugh meets with an accident when hunting and is brought to the Bazaar and put into the rooms which lodgers are in the habit of taking, and during his convalescence falls in love with Mrs. Temple, who breaks the will, gets back her own, and in time marries Sir Hugh, while she also finds several high-born relatives of whom before she had known nothing. The story is very slight, but it is well told. There is a great deal of love-making, and it is prettily managed; there is, too, some amusing caricature in the curiosity of Lady Styles and of Dr. Slade. It is a clever touch which tells us how Mrs. Travers gets word to the villain who, out of love for her, has wrought the mischief, and gives him a chance to run away. As for Tom and Fanny, the second pair of lovers, they bear a strong likeness to the young couples in Mrs. Stowe's later novels, and the impatient reader yearns to throw them over the cliff at the sea-side resort where most of the scene is laid. If the moralist has to draw the lesson that respectability is the best policy, he will find it agreeably sugared by Mrs. Alexander's humor.

Miss Amanda M. Douglas takes life more seriously; the ordinary inanities of courtship in which there is nothing more serious than a misinterpreted frown have no charm for her; she reads between the lines those deep tragedies which escape Mrs. Alexander's smiling notice, and when she sets about writing a novel like 'Drifted Asunder; or, the Tide of Fate' the reader is pretty sure to get his money's worth of excitement. 'Drifted Asunder' is something of a misnomer, however, for Dora Tremaine is abducted from her husband Ralph after they had been two years married, and on the very day she for the first time feels herself really in love with him, by a very unpleasant Enoch Arden of whom Ralph had never heard. Still it would be the right word to use about Ralph's conduct when his wife was taken away and he did as little as he conveniently could about it, and consoled himself with an old flame whom he invited to stay with him. Justice though slow is sure, and when everybody turns out to be everybody else matters get straight.

Miss Douglas is an old offender who does not improve. Mr. Justin McCarthy, on the other hand, has not always succeeded in writing the best novels in the world, but his last one—'Dear Lady Disdain'—is certainly deserving of commendation. The heroine, whose nickname gives the title to the book, is an attractive creature, as honest as possible, with a sort of manly generosity and heartiness which distinguish her from most heroines, and bring her close to some real human beings. The name, Lady Disdain, does not suit her over well, for, so far from being disdainful, she has a very pleasing comradeship with every one she meets. The men are reasonably well drawn; the successful lover is somewhat vague and misty, but the aspiring barber, Natty Cramp, and the lover of old china, Ronald Vidal, are well set before the reader—the former especially. Throughout, Mr. McCarthy has shown his earnest desire to improve, and his knowledge of the right method by holding his hand and not overdoing either the unattractive or the ridiculous side of what he has undertaken to describe. In what he has written about this country this discretion is very noticeable, and he has avoided the easy temptation to make too much of its lack of fascination and rawness. Even Natty Cramp, whom many story-writers would have blackened with obloquy, is treated with great fairness, and there is something very pleasing in the lack of exaggeration in describing the woman's-rights advocate—Miss Sibyl Jansen.

'Mathilda of Canossa, and Yoland of Groningen' is a novel with a strong theological bias, and although, as the translator tells us, it contains "a true and accurate account of the great struggle between the Emperor Henry IV. and Gregory VII., the great Pope, involving as it did the most sacred liberties of the Church," yet it is but a parable serving to throw light on the struggle at present going on between Germany and the Vatican. Some readers will prefer to get their information about these matters from the newspapers; others, again, may think it wiser to wade through this historical novel, which is full of gems like this:

"The landlord, on his part, seeing that his customers were becoming animated, leaned his elbows on the table, his chin in his hand, and began thus: "'I would fain know, indeed, who could stand against ye, my gallants? Ye are the most famous marksmen of the neighborhood, they who strike the stoutest blow. . . . Ye are out for work to-night, I wot me; and they who would bar your passage will feel the point of your lances or the weight of your battle-axes.'"

And yet the author charges those who hold different theological views from his own with reproducing them "more or less openly every day under the exterior of an elegant and florid style."

'The Little Joanna' is a novel of Southern life since the war in a community which keeps alive the old traditions of society, and which seems to be as ignorant of Whipper and Moses and of the Ku-klux as of snow and ice. The heroine has some natural traits, and there is something amusing in the first chapters; but when the very elegant Anita appears and begins to talk, the story becomes too high-toned to charm the fastidious reader. The slender vein of talent which it shows hardly suffices for a whole volume.

'Jonathan' is one of those clever English novels dealing with rustic life which are written with the utmost care, and profess to give an accurate representation of the country people and their humble ways. At times it reminds us of parts of 'Far from the Madding Crowd' with one important element, the humor, left out; and, as in that novel, we have rather tense dramatic situations prolonging themselves at times almost to morbidness. The characters are well drawn, although the feeble-minded Priscilla is hardly so impressive as she was apparently meant to be made, and the story is well arranged to bring out the main qualities of the different *dramatis personæ*. 'Jonathan' is decidedly above the average of novels, although it approaches that class which so busy themselves with the pathology of the human mind that after reading them one wants a long walk in the fresh air. But this one escapes that danger, it is only fair to say.

'Throstlethwaite' is another readable story, the main interest of which lies in a young girl's troubles with one lover who is unworthy of her, and her final freedom from him, and her attainment of greater happiness with another man much more deserving of her. She is well drawn, and in good contrast with her stands her fashionable married sister. The two young men, too, are natural and lifelike, and although the villains of novels are apt to carry with them a strong, unmistakable odor of brimstone, in this case the evil heart is hidden beneath a calm, but not too calm, exterior, and the good young man is no shadowy supporter of all the virtues, but is a very good copy of a human being.

In 'My Young Alcides' Miss Yonge has taken the old myth of Hercules and his doings, and retold the story, substituting a modern Australian for Hercules, and an escaped menagerie lion for that which the god slew, and making such other changes as give a general resemblance to the traditional fable without slavish adherence to it. Some of the incidents are cleverly managed, as that of the Augean stables, the apples of the Hesperides, and the Lernæan hydra; others are less well treated, but, no effort having been made to adapt everything which has been said about Hercules, the story has a consistent life of its own which gives it a place among Miss Yonge's good works, though not with her best. Even if her novels do not carry a great many guns, they are very much liked by a large class of readers. They have a homelike flavor which many people find very acceptable.

'Wooed and Married' bears in its title a rather frank avowal of those subjects which writers of fiction have seldom found it to their interest to eschew. Here we have our old friend, the poor governess, apparently insignificant and girlish; but, although she has a way of yielding to her quick temper, she has the good fortune to interest a number of people in her, and in time, after much delay, she marries the squire "with the quizzical eyes." There is in all this a good deal of "gushing"; but there is less of it when the author fairly buckles down to business, and it is her digressions which are the most tiresome things in the book. There is

'Drifted Asunder; or, the Tide of Fate. By Amanda M. Douglas, author of 'In Trust,' etc., etc.' Boston: William F. Gill & Co. 1876.

'Mathilda of Canossa, and Yoland of Groningen. By Rev. A. Bresciani, S.J., author of 'The Jew of Verona,' 'Lionello,' etc.' Translated by Anna T. Sadlier. New York: D. & J. Sadlier & Co. 1875.

'The Little Joanna: A Novel. By Kamba Thorpe.' Appleton's Library of American Fiction. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1876.

'Jonathan: A Novel. By C. C. Fraser-Tytler, author of 'Mistress Judith,' etc.' Leisure Hour Series. New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1876.

'Throstlethwaite. By Susan Morley, author of 'Aileen Ferrers.'' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1876.

'My Young Alcides. By Miss C. M. Yonge.' New York: Macmillan & Co.

'Wooed and Married: A Novel. By Rosa Nouchette Carey, author of 'Robert Ord's Atonement,' etc.' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1876.

besides this a more serious fault—the wholesale slaughter and maiming of so many of the characters. Rheumatic fever, dislocated ankles, blindness, heart disease, hunting accidents, and sudden death make the story almost as alarming reading as a report of sewage commissioners; but then they supply incidents enough to interest the most callous.

JORDAN'S NIBELUNGE.*

WITH the exception of the Homeric controversy, no literary subject has attracted so much study and elicited such diversity of opinion as the investigation into the authorship and composition of the Nibelungenlied. The *odium theologicum* has been equalled, if not surpassed, by the *odium philologicum*. On the one side, Lachmann and his followers, nicknamed Lachmannians; on the other, Holtzmann; more in the middle, Zarncke. For a long while it seemed an insoluble problem whether the poem was indeed an artistic unity, the production of one man, or only a string of loosely joined rhapsodies. It was not until quite recently, when Pfeiffer, and especially Bartsch, discarded prior methods of investigation, and subjected the poem, line by line, to the minutest analysis of rhythm and rhyme, that the real facts began to appear. It will not be necessary for us to do more than refer our readers to a masterly prize essay, by Hermann Fischer (Leipzig, 1874), entitled 'Die Forschungen über das Nibelungenlied.' This essay gives a just and clear survey of the question in all its stages and bearings. We have not the space for even the briefest *résumé* of Fischer's conclusions. Suffice it to single out a few of the more prominent. The St. Gall manuscript (Codex B) is upon the whole the best, but both it and the Lassberg manuscript (Codex C) are probably revisions, made about 1200 and independent of each other, of an elder form of the poem, made about 1170. This elder form was itself the revision of a still older poem, the oldest *German* form, composed about 1150, probably by the poet called the Kürenberger. But the Kürenberger's version was based in turn upon a Latin work, whether in prose or in verse is uncertain, made by Konrad, the clerk of Bishop Pilgrim of Passau, about the end of the tenth century. All these forms prior to B and C are no longer extant. The structure of the poem, as we have it, consists in part of ancient Teutonic myth and hero-legend, the Sigfrid saga, and in part of historical legend embodying the overthrow of the Burgundians by Attila. The peculiar character given to the Huns in the poem, and the transfer of the scene of the overthrow of the Burgundians from the Rhine to the Danube at Gran, are due to the influence of the Hungarian wars of Henry III. in the middle of the eleventh century. The tone and style of chivalry pervading the poem are the product of the latter half of the twelfth century.

It is thus evident that the poem, as recorded in Manuscripts B and C (the leading versions), has been shaped by forces and impulses, some of which outdate all history, others of which are perfectly susceptible of historical analysis. The tendency of recent investigation is to strip the Lied of its whilom atmosphere of mystery, to show how the several ethical and historical motives have been introduced one by one, and thereby to make it more human, so to speak, and more attractive as a study. The Lied is undoubtedly the most curious blending of myth, history, tradition, and individual authorship. Those who wish to study it cannot do better than to read Bartsch's annotated edition (in Brockhaus's series of German Classics of the Middle Ages) in connection with Bartsch's or Simrock's translation and Fischer's essay. Birch's English rendering (Berlin, 1848), although grievously defective, may be of help. Jordan's Nibelunge, be it said once for all, is anything but the Nibelungenlied of Bartsch, Simrock, and Fischer. The difference is twofold: of form and of substance. In form Jordan has attempted the alliterative measure. The Nibelungenlied is written in stanzas of four lines, each pair of lines making a rhyme-couplet. Jordan discards rhyme and governs the flow of the line by what he would have us accept as alliterative beats. Whoever has read ten lines of Beovulf, or the genuine Hildebrandslied, or the Muspilli, will feel the difference. True alliteration is rugged and powerful, the emphasis falls naturally upon the alliterative syllables, dragging the rest of the line after it. Jordan's verse is smooth and discursive, emphasis and alliteration do not coincide, and the flow is iambic or anapæstic. It would be easy to select pages by the score where one can disregard initial syllables and read the lines as mere irregular blank verse, to say nothing of incessant and complicated *enjambements*, which are contrary to the very being of true epic simplicity.

To show the difference between Jordan and the 'Nibelungenlied' in substance, would require a volume. We can only indicate a few salient points. The 'Sigfridsage' is, in the main, the first part of the 'Nibelungenlied,' down to the assassination of Sigfrid. In 'Hildebrants Heimkehr' the hero is Hildebrant, into whose adventures the account of the destruction of the Burgundians, as given by the second part of the 'Nibelungenlied,' is intercalated piecemeal. Both of Jordan's songs are great expansions of the primitive myths and legends. The relation of 'Hildebrants Heimkehr' to the 'Sigfridsage' is that of the 'Odyssey' and the 'Æneid' to the 'Iliad.' Jordan has borrowed allusions, traits of character, incidents, episodes from far and near. Greek, Latin, and mediæval mysticism is put under contribution. The gods of Northern mythology sit in council on the Brocken, after the fashion of Jupiter and his court on Olympus. Volant reminds us of Goethe's Mephistopheles. The incident with the love-potion reminds us of Tristan and Isolt; the suckling of Sigfrid by the doe, of Romulus and Remus. Hildebrant is a northern Ulysses and Æneas. His return, which is barely outlined in the original 'Hildebrandslied,' and which—so far as we can judge from the fragment—has a tragic issue, is expanded by Jordan into a glorious life with peace and prosperity at its close. His wife Ute is a Swabian Penelope, and his son Hadubrand a mediæval Telemachus. Kriemhild's daughter, Swanhild, whom Hildebrant rescues from captivity in Norway, is in certain respects the Gudrun of the Low-German saga. Finally, there are passages in which the poet alludes to events of our own day, with intent to make the Hohenzollern-Brandenburg dynasty the continuers, as it were, of the fabulous Wölsungs.

We have said enough to make it plain how Jordan's song-cycle differs from the true Lied, which is a simple, straightforward story with but two themes—Sigfrid's glorification and Kriemhild's revenge. But while warning our readers not to look in Jordan's verses for the Sigfrid and Hildebrant stories as embodied in the mediæval song and reconstructed by modern scholarship, we do not join in the hue-and-cry raised in Germany against the author's innovations. German scholars are too much given to regarding folk-lore as their especial domain, upon which no one can poach without incurring the penalties of the law. This is a view which we cannot share. It seems to us that any one in thorough sympathy with the subject, and sufficiently learned to read the originals, has a right to treat these topics as he may see fit, provided he treat them in the poetic spirit. The mediæval poets themselves did so. We think that Jordan has displayed much ingenuity in grouping and expanding isolated fragments, and remarkable power of invention. There are passages, it is true, where he becomes trivial and almost commonplace, and very often his reflections are abstruse and wearisome from their length. On the other hand, there are other passages full of beauty and dramatic or epic force. His range of vocabulary is remarkable. The reader who gives himself up to the perusal, without concerning himself about the true Nibelungenlied, will probably come to the conclusion that he has enjoyed two exciting and well-told stories. We think that the insertion of brief arguments at the opening of the cantos would make the thread of narrative less difficult to follow, and that the want of occasional foot-notes is a decided defect. Few unprofessional readers will recognize, for instance, in Bern the mediæval form of Verona.

Saxon Studies. By Julian Hawthorne. (Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 1876.)—Mr. Hawthorne is decidedly disappointing. He strikes us as having inherited a certain portion of his father's genius. He writes with vigor and vivacity, and his style has a charm of its own; but he perpetually suggests more than he performs, and leaves the reader waiting for something that never comes. There is something masculine and out of the common way in his manner of going to work, but the use he makes of his talent is not characterized by a high degree of wisdom, and the reader's last impression is of a strange immaturity of thought. 'Saxon Studies' is such a book as a very young man might write in a season of combined ill-humor and conscious cleverness; but it is a book which most young men would very soon afterwards be sorry to have written. We suspect that this intelligent compunction will never be Mr. Hawthorne's portion, and the feeling makes us judge his volume with a certain harshness. The author fairly convinces us that he is not likely ever to understand why the tone in which he has chosen to talk about the worthy inhabitants of Dresden is not a rational, or a profitable, or a philosophic, or a really amusing one. Mr. Hawthorne spins his thread out of his own fancy, and at the touch of reality it would very soon snap. He had a perfect right, of course, to produce a fanciful book about Dresden; but such a book, as it gives our imagination some trouble, is more than usually bound to justify itself. It must have a graceful, agreeable, and pliable spirit to reward us for the extra steps we take. But Mr. Hawthorne has quite violated this canon

* 'W. Jordan's Nibelunge. Erstes Lied, Sigfridsage; Zweites Lied, Hildebrants Heimkehr.' New York: Westermann. Part first, second Am. ed. Part second, first Am. ed.

and has been fanciful only to be acrimonious, and reflective only to be —it is not too strong a word—unwholesome. He has written a *brooding* book, with all the defects and none of the charms of the type. His reveries are ill-natured, and his ingenuity is all vituperative.

He declares, in an amusing preface, that "his interest in Saxony and the Saxons is of the most moderate kind—certainly not enough to provoke a treatise upon them. They are as dull and featureless a race as exists in this century, and the less one has to do with them, the better. But the plan of his work requiring some concrete nucleus round which to group such thoughts and fancies as he wished to ventilate, and the Saxon capital chancing to have been his residence of late years, he has used it rather than any other place to serve his turn in this respect." This strikes us as an explanation after the fact. In so far as 'Saxon Studies' had a "plan," we suspect it consisted of the simple desire on the author's part to pour forth his aversion to a city in which, for several years, he had not been able to guard himself against being regrettably irritable and uncomfortable. Dresden has served his turn, and enabled him to write his book; he ought at least in fairness to admit that there was something to say about her. But in truth, of what there was to say about her, even for ill, Mr. Hawthorne strikes us as having made but little. Of "plan" his volume contains less than the pardonable minimum; it has little coherency and little definiteness of statement. It is taken for granted in the first few pages, in an off-hand, allusive manner, that the Saxons are an ignoble and abominable race, and this note is struck at desultory intervals, in the course of a good deal of light, rambling talk about nothing in particular, through the rest of the volume; but the promise is never justified, the aversion is never explained, the story is never told. Before we know it we have Mr. Hawthorne talking, as of a notorious fact, about "the cold, profound selfishness which forms the foundation and framework of the national and individual character in every walk of life, the wretched chill of which must ultimately annul the warmth of the most fervent German eulogist," etc. This is a sweeping but an interesting charge, and the reader would have been glad to have the author go a little into the psychology of the matter, or at least into the history of his opinion—offer a few anecdotes, a few examples of Saxon selfishness, help us to know more exactly what he means. But Mr. Hawthorne is always sweeping and always vague. We can recall but two definite statements in his volume—that bearing upon the fact that the Germans, indoors, are pitifully ignorant of the charms of pure air, and the other upon the even more regrettable circumstance that they condemn their women to an infinite amount of hard labor. Here is an example of some of the reflections provoked in Mr. Hawthorne by the first-mentioned of these facts: "As might be imagined, such lung-food as this gets the native complexion into no enviable state; in fact, until I had examined for myself the mixture of paste and blotches which here passes for faces, I had not conceived what were the capacities for evil of the human skin. I have heard it said—inconsiderately—that the best side of the Saxon was his outside; that the more deeply one penetrated into him, the more offensive he became. But I think the worst damnation that the owner of one of these complexions could be afflicted with would be the correspondence of his interior with his exterior man."

In spite of Mr. Hawthorne's six years' residence in Dresden, his judgments appear to be formed only upon those matters which limit the horizon of a six weeks' sojourner—the tramways, the cabmen, the policemen, the beer-saloons. When he invites us to penetrate into a Dresden house, we find he means only to gossip rather invidiously about the parties, and to talk about the way the doors open and the rooms are distributed. The most successful pages in his volume are an extremely clever and amusing supposititious report, from a local newspaper, of the appearance of the first street-car, and a charming sketch of a beer-maiden, or waitress in a saloon, who invites the author and his friend to be her partners at a ball. These are the only cases we can recall in which Mr. Hawthorne's humor is not acrid and stingy. For the rest, he gives us no report of his social observations proper, of his impressions of private manners and morals; no examples of sentiments, opinions, conversations, ways of living and thinking. Upon those other valuable sources of one's knowledge of a foreign country —the theatre, literature, the press, the arts—Mr. Hawthorne is entirely dumb. The only literary allusion that his volume contains is the observation that the relation of Schiller and Goethe to the Germans of the present day may be described as sublimity reflected in mud-puddles. The absence of those influences to which we have alluded makes 'Saxon Studies' seem unduly trivial and even rather puerile. It gives us the feeling that the author has nursed his dislikes and irritations in a dark closet, that he has never put them forth into the open air, never discussed and compared and intelligently verified them. This—and not at all the fact that they *are* dislikes—is the weak point of Mr. Hawthorne's volume. He had a perfect right to detest the Saxons, and our strictures are made not in the least in defence of this eminent people, but simply in that of good literature. We are extremely sorry, indeed, that so lively an aversion should not have been better served in expression. Even if Mr. Hawthorne had made the Saxon vices much more vivid, and his irritation much more intelligible, we should still find fault with his spirit. It is the spirit which sees the very small things and ignores the large ones—which gives more to fancy than to observation, and more to resentment than to reflection.

Angola and the River Congo. By J. J. Monteiro. (New York: Macmillan & Co. 1876.)—This book is somewhat of a rarity in African literature. It contains no hair-breadth escapes nor improbable hunting adventures, and it is written by a trained scientific observer, who has a distinct idea of the sort of information he desires to impart and a very lucid method of imparting it. He is fortunate, too, in writing of a country which is practically unknown, being that part of Lower Guinea intermediate between the scenes of Andersson's travels on the south and those of Du Chaillu on the north. Mr. Monteiro does not give us much geographical information beyond a conjecture as to the course of the River Congo, concerning which we may hope for more definite information from Lieut. Cameron, but devotes himself to a description of the resources of a country of tropical luxuriance and to the customs of the various tribes of blacks, as observed during a residence of fifteen years. Interspersed with these are descriptions of birds and plants, written in a style sufficiently plain for a mind of ordinary culture, and supplemented, for the benefit of the scientific zoölogist, with reference notes to the published Transactions of zoölogical societies.

The resources of the country are principally "Andansonia fibre" (the inner bark of the baobab-tree), for use in paper-making, coffee, ivory, gums, india-rubber, and several kinds of nuts for the extraction of seed-oils. The supply of these would seem to be almost unlimited, and the exports are yearly increasing in spite of hindrances from the ignorance of the blacks and the corruption and carelessness of the Portuguese officials. The principal food of the negro is the mandioca root, which is eaten raw and in various preparations; it is cultivated by the women, and requires but little attention. Copper and malachite mines were worked in several localities, but were not profitable, owing to a variety of adverse causes, none of which are, however, considered insuperable. The character and customs of the natives are described at great length. According to Mr. Monteiro, the negro of that part of the coast is simply an imperfectly developed being, with "an organically rudimentary form of mind," and cannot be judged by the same standards as other human beings. "He knows not love, affection, or jealousy"; he steals and lies, not from viciousness, but from an incapacity to appreciate the wrong of it; "he has no idea of a Creator or of a future existence, neither does he adore the sun nor any other object, idol, or image; his whole belief is in evil spirits and in charms or fetishes; mere peaceable, vegetarian, prolific human rabbits and guinea-pigs, in fact." Missionary labor, as it has been conducted among them (*i.e.*, without first inculcating habits of industry), is a cruel waste of money which might have been charitably expended elsewhere with beneficent results. The reason of the rudimentary character of the negro is found in the climate, whose malaria has in countless ages killed off the more highly developed, and, on the principle of the survival of the fittest, has left those who have sluggish physical natures, without delicate nerves or sensibilities, and whose minds are of a correspondingly imperfect quality. The author is of opinion that the full development of the riches and capabilities of Tropical Africa can only be attained by the introduction of Coolies and Chinese, and the gradual extinction of the negroes, or the merging of them into a more highly organized race. On the future of their successors, exposed to the same climatic influences, he does not permit himself to speculate.

The Centennial Book of the Signers. By William Brotherhead, author of the 'Book of the Signers,' etc. (Philadelphia: W. Brotherhead. 1876.)—Mr. Brotherhead's second venture in reproducing facsimiles of autograph letters of the signers of the Declaration of Independence makes, with the accompanying letterpress, a heavy portfolio containing nearly three hundred pages, printed upon large paper. Any one who has learned the necessity of economizing shelf-room may well hesitate before accepting even as a gift so ponderous a memento of our centennial festival, nor will his hesitation vanish on reading the "Historical Monograph" with which the work opens. This is an odd jumble in the guise of a review of the progress of the century, as a sample of which we take at random the following passage:

"Among the numerous great men which [*sic*] this country has added to the roll of science, Agassiz, David Dale Owen, Leidy, and Silliman are prominent"—certainly a most curious selection. We have, in fact, encountered in this "Monograph" but a single sentence which has repaid us for reading it, and even that is very clumsily expressed. Mr. Brotherhead states from his experience as a librarian, and taking an average of fifteen years, that "where one book of any other author is read, Cooper's works are read ten times oftener." The "Monograph" is followed by "Brief Histories of the Original Thirteen States," also written in a singularly careless manner, as in the failure to enumerate Cornell among the leading colleges of New York, and in endorsing by adoption a statement such as this: "The University of Pennsylvania, the Pennsylvania Hospital, and the medical department of Pennsylvania and Jefferson Medical College, are 'the most celebrated and successful of their class in the country.'" The "Lives of the Signers" are next briefly sketched; then come "Proceedings in the Congress of the United Colonies respecting a Declaration," the text of the Declaration itself, an interesting but (we must say) thoroughly muddled discussion of the place in which Jefferson composed the Declaration, an account of the present Exposition buildings with views, and, finally, the autographic facsimiles. Here at last, one might think, is ample reason for giving house-room and shelf-room to 'The Centennial Book.' But the letters, except as mere specimens of handwriting, have little value. A considerable number are letters either of introduction and recommendation, or relating to business matters of purely personal interest. One, by Thomas Lynch, is supposed to be the only autograph of this signer, save that affixed to the Declaration, extant; and one, by John Adams, is genuinely characteristic of the man as well as reflective of the spirit of the time. Each sheet as a rule contains the writer's likeness, or a view of his birthplace or residence, or some memento of his career. But all this lithographic work seems to us very poorly executed. The letterpress, on the other hand, is exceptionally handsome. Mr. Brotherhead's own designs of shields for the several States are as inartistic as possible, yet have (with a few anachronisms) an archaic look in keeping with the period commemorated, and are not altogether unpleasing.

Memoirs of Rev. Charles G. Finney. Written by Himself. (New York: A. S. Barnes & Co. 1876. 12mo, pp. 477.)—The publication of President Finney's life is certainly very opportune in these days of revivals, for he was the great revivalist of his day—a man of genuine and original power, by the side of whom we fancy that even Moody would shrink into very small dimensions. How completely this subject gives a character to the book is shown by the fact that "Revival" appears as the heading of eighteen out of the thirty-six chapters, and is a topic in most of the others. Even to one who wholly disbelieves at once in the theology and the religious philosophy of the book, it is interesting reading. The man was heartily in earnest, and tells his story with the graphic power that made him an effective preacher of the first rank. Of the value of his revival work, as of revival work in general, we do not propose to speak in this place. We shall content ourselves with alluding to one out of many cases of conversion described in this memoir—namely, that of the daughter of a certain Mrs. B. (p. 149), "manifestly regarded by the family as almost perfect." There is a certain naïveté in the remark that follows: "Her life had been so irreproachable that it was very difficult to convict her of sin." But it was Mr. Finney's business to convict her of sin. If she had committed no sin, she must, at any rate, be made to believe that she had; so he proceeded deliberately to worry the poor girl until, as usually happens when a strong and plausible man gets hold of an innocent and trusting nature, "she broke thoroughly down, and came out into the kingdom, as beautiful a convert as, perhaps, I have ever seen."

Channing, sa Vie et sa Doctrine. Par René Lavollée. (Paris: Plon; New York: F. W. Christern. 12mo, pp. 301.)—The reputation of Channing is not one of those that become less as time goes on. The principle with which his name is most associated—the dignity and perfectibility of man—has in many quarters been diluted to a weak sentimentality, inconsistent with good government and the order of society; but if we go to Channing's own words we find constant recognition of the limitations and necessary safeguards which must accompany it. With these limitations and safeguards, it is the indispensable foundation of all progress. It is exceedingly interesting to meet with an appreciative treatise upon the life and labors of this American Unitarian by a sincere and devout French Catholic; and the publication of this little book ("couronné par l'Académie des Sciences Morales et Politiques") is enough to prove that the "liberal Catholic" (pronounced a logical impossibility) is still to be found—in larger numbers, no doubt, than the Ultramontane leaders would desire. The most interesting parts to us are those which make a practical application of Channing's principles to the situation of France; for example, p. 151, where we find a long and instructive passage upon the character and aspirations of the laboring classes. M. Lavollée does not appear to have studied our party politics so carefully as our theology and social philosophy; the "Whig or Republican party" is said to have represented "the principles of union between the States, of individual liberty and popular government, in opposition to the Democratic party, favorable to the independence of the States, the restriction of the individual franchise, and aristocratic ideas"—a curious mixture of correct and incorrect, not at all unnatural, however, in the curious phases through which party principles passed before the war.

A Few Suggestions on Tree Planting. By C. S. Sargent, Director of the Botanic Garden and Arboretum of Harvard University. (Boston, 1876.)—Nurserymen and dendrophilists never tire of quoting the Laird of Dumbiedikes' advice: "Be aye sticking in a tree, Jock," etc. The Laird, being then *in articulo mortis*, may be excused for not having followed up his excellent advice with practical directions how to do it; and the present pamphlet, more leisurely prepared, does not supply the omission. In his next contribution to the Massachusetts State Board of Agriculture (from whose Report for 1875 the article before us is reprinted), we hope Prof. Sargent will do so; for not a little zeal in tree-planting loses its reward for lack of knowledge in this seemingly simple matter. However, as trees will never be planted in the large and systematic way here recommended until the importance of the culture is demonstrated, it is well that the present publication should deal, as it does, with this preliminary question, and show, first, that a reclothing of otherwise nearly useless soils with forest may have an appreciably good effect in the increase or more equable distribution of summer rain; and, secondly, that in the long run it must needs be, when judiciously managed, a profitable employment of such land. It is stated "that forests, in order to maintain normal physical conditions and to supply the materials so essential to every branch of industry, should occupy about twenty-five per cent. of the area of the country to be influenced and supplied by them." New England could surely supply her quota, and be beautified as well as enriched thereby; while in our Western States the greater dearth of lumber may soon make it profitable to cover even that amount of arable land. Prof. Sargent indicates the trees which may be most advantageously planted in his native State, viz., first of all white ash, then European larch, Scotch pine, then hickory, sugar-maple, and the European as well as the American elm. The case is strongly presented, without being overdone, and in a practical way, the financial part worked out with estimates.

Fine Arts.

PAINE'S SYMPHONY IN C MINOR.

THE favor with which Mr. Paine's new symphony has been received in New York and Boston cannot be surprising to any one who is familiar with the noble music of his oratorio "St. Peter" and other earlier works which have obtained less general recognition. For original talent, when aided by diligent labor and single-minded enthusiasm, is pretty sure, sooner or later, to win the attention and enlist the sympathies of the world; and in this new work, with all its beauties, there is nothing for which the oratorio and the D minor trio might not have prepared us. Its well-earned success is due perhaps partly to the fact that the earlier works have in some measure reconciled the public to the idea of good music originating in America; but chiefly, no doubt, to the fact that it was thoroughly well performed, and its beauties distinctly set forth, by a sympathetic and well-trained orchestra. Mr. Theodore Thomas is a conductor to whom the most exacting composer need have no hesitation in submitting a new work, and to the execution of Mr. Paine's symphony he seems to have devoted as much scrupulous care as if it were a composition long since ranked by general consent among the classics of the art.

The symphony is, indeed, one which well repays careful study. For while it cannot be said to indicate a "new departure" in the art of symphonic writing, it illustrates forcibly how much can be achieved without overstraining the mould elaborated by Beethoven for this form of music. It serves to support the opinion of those who hold that in many respects the extravagances of modern instrumental music are due to insufficient mastery of the technique of contrapuntal and thematic treatment. For want of skill in the use of the legitimate means of developing a funda-

mental melody, modern composers have too often resorted to the excessive multiplication of themes, or to ill-organized modulations, or to sensuous effects of rhythm or of instrumentation, surprising for the moment, but in the long run tedious and unsatisfactory. Schubert and Schumann, and among second-rate composers Liszt, are all in some degree amenable to this criticism; while Mendelssohn, on the other hand—the one modern symphonist who in mastery of form rivals the older masters—with all his Virgilian elegance and majesty, is lacking in the deeper emotional qualities to which Mozart and Beethoven gave expression. Hence the inference has been frequently drawn that further progress in the path marked out by Haydn, Mozart, and Beethoven is impracticable, and that the greatest wealth of musical expressiveness can only be attained at the present day by partially or wholly discarding the strict sonata-form in which these masters developed their greatest thoughts. Without seeking to decide so far-reaching a question, we think one may safely cite Mr. Paine's symphony as valuable testimony to the unsoundness of this inference. Mr. Paine's easy mastery of the whole technique of musical form is so conspicuous that no competent listener can fail to be struck with it. As a contrapuntist he has few rivals, and of the various resources of thematic development he has acquired such thorough control that the art is ever concealed by its own perfection. A musical critic will soon be struck with this on studying the score of the first movement of this new symphony or of some of the principal choruses in "St. Peter." The listening public, which does not understand the technical secret of such effects, will still recognize the masterly comprehension which foresees the end from the beginning, which never gropes or fumbles for a decisive chord or leading turn of melody, but promptly strikes it as if its position were foreordained and could admit of no doubt or misgiving. This mastery of form is still further exemplified in the clearness with which the musical themes assert themselves amid the sweeping current of subordinate sounds, so that they are easily carried away from the concert-room and dwelt upon in memory. A thorough master of form never loses sight of the fact that the most complicated symphony is but a highly-developed song, and this fact Mr. Paine has not lost sight of.

Now, along with this formal power, which enables the composer to make two or three bright phrases tell a long and consistent musical story, we think it may be fairly conceded that the new symphony shows marked originality in invention of themes. It is not easy to decide such a point upon technical considerations, but every one accustomed to hearing music knows the characteristic turns of melody which distinguish the works of original composers—the ear-marks, as it were, by which their style of thought is betrayed. One would no more hesitate between the melodic phrases of Chopin and Mendelssohn than between the literary phrases of Carlyle and Macaulay. In this respect, if Mr. Paine sometimes recalls to us the tones of Bach and again of Schumann, yet on the whole there is a freshness and novelty about his themes which awakens interest, while it is saved from provoking us by the formal skill which elucidates each motive, until on its final recurrence it compels our assent and causes all our mind and heart to go along with it.

Such an interesting combination of melodic fertility with classical form should be enough to make us reconsider some of the questions which there has lately been a disposition to let go by default. Such a work as Mr. Paine's symphony is in itself a protest against the inferences which might be too hastily drawn from the recent prevalence of compositions in the various styles of Raff, Rubinstein, and Liszt. Indirectly, it is a protest against unreserved acquiescence in the methods of composition of which Wagner is the great representative; although, with his close adherence to classical form, Mr. Paine has drawn upon modern sensuous resources of instrumentation to no less an extent than Wagner, and in so doing the sympathetic skill with which he has considered the idiosyncrasies of every instrument is by no means the least of his merits. Both in melodic development and in orchestration the significance of Mr. Paine's work lies in its attempt to attain originality of musical expression without deserting classical form, and by its success in this will its permanent value be estimated. For the present, we think its favorable reception augurs well for the success of future attempts which, with wider experience and in yet bolder mood, its composer is likely to make in this direction.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 6, 1876.

The Week.

GENERAL SCHENCK has appeared before the committee which has in charge the Emma Mine investigation, and fully explained his connection with the Company. He admits, of course, his secret contract with Park, dated November 1, 1871, by which he was guaranteed first two and then one and a half per cent. on his stock; that he paid no money for it, and that he had the right for a specified time, in case of any danger of loss, to make Park take the stock off his hands; but he says that this was a perfectly *bonâ-fide* agreement, which Park made because he was a "liberal" man and wanted to do the General a good turn. We have always thought, however, that the story of this contract and Schenck's note for £10,000 given to Park was incomplete without details of the settlement between the parties, and we now find that the settlement was made in this way: Whenever any payments were made on account of the note, they were, as is usual between business men, endorsed on the back of it. There are endorsements for £500, for £1,897, and for £2,500—the first representing the value of shares which Schenck sold to "a friend"; the second some "stock speculations" of Park's, the details of which Schenck says he does not know; the third (to the amount of £500) represented cash; the rest (£2,000), being put down to "commissions" paid to and "refunded" by Albert Grant, making an actual payment of £500 out of endorsements to the extent of £4,897. In May, 1874, the transaction having meantime been subjected to some venal criticism by the licentious press, Park and Schenck settled their accounts, when Park told Schenck that there was a sum due General Schenck on account of some other "stock speculations" sufficient to balance accounts. Here, it seems to us, Schenck made his only mistake in the whole transaction; for, instead of taking this as a final settlement, he declared that he owed money to Park, and insisted on transferring to him a quantity of stock, valued (by whom does not appear) at $32,000, and $1,700 cash, thus manifesting a total disbelief in Park's statements, which is, to say the least, singular. At the same time, Schenck is to retain the income from this stock, and has the right to redeem it within three years. On being asked why, if Park said that he was Schenck's debtor, the latter should have insisted on transferring his property to him, he said that this was on account of the public criticism of his connection with the Mine. He also gave his note for $3,000, on which Park will no doubt, in due course of time, make endorsements. At the same time he borrowed $15,000 more of Park and gave him the mortgage of his house in Washington, of which we have heard so much before, and which, it now appears, was not given as security for his purchase of shares at all. It also appears that he received about $10,000 in dividends, and still holds 475 shares, worth about $2,500 more. So far as any cash transactions are concerned, therefore, the account stands as follows: Schenck's receipts, $12,500; payments (£500 + $1,700), $4,200; Schenck's profits, $8,300. General Schenck has also fully explained all the matters in dispute connected with his resignation. It will be recollected that he mailed his resignation to Washington on the 19th of February. On the 2d of March he begged that his resignation might not be accepted; on the 3d, his request was refused; on the 4th, the resignation was received; on the 6th, accepted; and on the 6th, the same day, the writ served on General Schenck was withdrawn, with an apology from the English lawyers, who said they had been "under the impression" that the General "had resigned."

This explanation resembles, in one respect, those of Professor Silliman and Mr. Stewart. Mr. Silliman, according to Lyon, sent a despatch to England in 1872 to this effect: "Eight thousand tons discovered since last report; sample assay, two thousand dollars per ton." This he indignantly denied, and declared that what he did telegraph was: "Sample assays twenty-eight per cent. lead and $2,000 silver. Reserves discovered since last report, over eight thousand tons." Mr. Stewart was declared by Lyon to have written a letter in which he spoke of the Emma as a "worked-out" mine. This he indignantly denied, and says that he takes the ground that the phrase a "worked-out" mine does not mean that the mine has been worked out. In the same way, General Schenck denies that there was any want of good faith in his transactions with Park, and then, by way of proving this, makes the explanation we have just recapitulated. The Committee are now engaged in cross-examining Lyon, the Emma partners being desirous of showing that he is a bad character and unworthy of belief. But nothing that is proved about Lyon can have any bearing on the facts already proved by other evidence. Schenck's explanation, any business man or lawyer can see, is a confession of facts which would in civil proceedings render him liable to the shareholders, and which would make it necessary for a grand jury to indict him for a conspiracy to defraud if he was within reach of process.

By a vote of 31 to 17, the Senate has passed the resolution reported by the Foreign Affairs Committee, "That the Senate does not advise and consent to the nomination of Richard H. Dana, jr., to be Minister to England." An analysis of the vote shows that Mr. Dana's support was entirely Republican, the Democrats either refusing to vote, pairing, absenting themselves, or voting against him. Of the 31 votes against the nomination, twenty were Democratic, so that if the Democrats had really treated the matter, as some of them affected to consider it, as a party question, with which they had nothing to do, there would have been a majority in Mr. Dana's favor.

The House Judiciary Committee has reported on Mr. Pierrepont's letters to the Western district-attorneys which he drew up, and Babcock got hold of and published, censuring him for his behavior. The Committee truly observes that "the testimony of accomplices has been used against their associates from the early ages of our jurisprudence." This is no more news to Mr. Pierrepont than it is to the public, or to Babcock. The question is not as to the existence and necessity of the practice of using the testimony of accomplices under promises of immunity, nor of the probable effect that the letter, even if sent privately, would have had on the minds of the prosecuting officers in St. Louis and elsewhere. When we find the President and the Attorney-General making arrangements to prevent the production of material evidence for the prosecution in Government cases, the only question is, "What are we going to do about it?" Still further light promises to be thrown on Babcock's case by the evidence of a man named Bell, who swears that he was employed by Babcock or his friends to steal evidence for him in the West. We know of nothing in the character of the "tarnished" man to render the story improbable.

The Senate has passed a law amendatory of the Bankrupt Act, to the effect that *bonâ-fide* voluntary assignments made (without preferences) under State laws shall not be a bar to a discharge of the debtor, if afterwards adjudged a bankrupt in involuntary pro-

ceedings. Besides this the Senate has done little of general interest, except with reference to the regular appropriation bills. Messrs. Boutwell and Bayard have had an encounter over Mr. Morton's resolution for a committee of investigation into the political affairs of Mississippi (subsequently passed), which went off, as we fancy most encounters with Mr. Boutwell would be likely to, rather tamely. In the House, the Belknap articles, based on the evidence of the Marshes, have been adopted, managers appointed, and Belknap formally impeached before the Senate. The investigations are going on as usual, and early in the week it was reported that "Robeson had been caught," or, in other words, that the Secretary of the Navy had been detected in crimes and misdemeanors of some kind. But it is as yet too early to say positively what the precise nature of the transactions between the Government and Jay Cooke will turn out to be. The Real-Estate Pool witness, Kilbourne, is still incarcerated, and his ingenuity seems to be now devoted to the discovery of new and hitherto undreamt of ways of "getting even" with the Government. It seems that he is, while in prison, eating and drinking at the rate of from fifteen to twenty-five dollars a day, and, in fact, gives what may be called Bastile Banquets from day to day, to which he invites Boss Shepherd and the other gentlemen connected with the Pool. The Democrats, who now begin to fear that investigation in this way may defeat its own ends, and, instead of benefiting the Government, lead to pecuniary loss, are going to look into these bills (they include, by the way, $3 a day for "drayage," this term being the political equivalent of restaurant carriage-hire), and if it cannot be stopped we trust they will release Kilbourne at once.

The House of Representatives on Friday committed itself by a vote of 122 to 100 to the folly of substituting silver coins for fractional notes, and further to the enormity of making silver tokens a legal tender for $25, and "trade-dollars" a legal tender for $50. That the important principles involved were not understood by many who voted for the bill is evident from the weight which was given to Mr. Randall's representations that it was simply a question of expense—that is, whether the Government should be burdened with a heavy charge in keeping up the fractional notes, or should save the public money by issuing silver. The falsity of this claim was thoroughly shown up by Mr. Hewitt, but apparently not to the satisfaction of the duller members of the House. The pretension put forward when the subject first came up, that the substitution of silver for fractional notes would be a step towards resumption in 1879, was abandoned, but no one showed that the bill would have the tendency of driving California or rather the people of the Pacific coast into suspension and into the use of the paper legal tender with which the Atlantic States have been cursed since 1863. The only legal tender in use on the Pacific coast is gold; and subsidiary silver coins, which can only be passed here as the fractional parts of the paper dollar (worth about 88 cents in gold), can be passed there as the fractional parts of the gold dollar. It will be strange therefore if, when the silver tokens appear, they are not gathered up and sent to California and gold obtained for them. This movement might continue until California had lost a good part of its gold. The third section of the Silver Bill, which makes the silver tokens a legal tender for $25, will of course aggravate this tendency, and the country may be prepared to hear very soon after their appearance that California and the Pacific States have, by the "step" which Congress has taken towards resumption, been carried or driven into suspension. The panic of last summer in San Francisco was indirectly caused by the execution of the first section of the Sherman Bill; and if another crisis should be precipitated the people of that section may well pray to be delivered from their friends—the Big Bonanza princes.

There is another feature of this silver question which short-sighted advocates of a sound currency will do well to consider. The old silver dollar was not demonetized until 1873, and was, therefore, part of the lawful coin money of the country up to that time. Should Congress, while the silver fever is on, restore that coin, there is nothing to prevent the establishment of the claim that the Treasury notes can be redeemed in silver as well as all the bonds of the United States issued since the outbreak of the war. Of course, silver with such an extended use for it would advance in price, but, nevertheless, the public creditors would be swindled out of a good part of what is due them. This, while the same kind of a fraud as that for which Mr. Pendleton was so great a stickler, could be committed in the name of "hard money." It would be well, therefore, for senators and members of Congress who favor hard money to be on the lookout for such a scheme, and we also respectfully suggest to some of the newspaper writers who have approved of the House measure to be on the lookout for pitfalls.

The Alabama Claims report will shortly come up in the House, and we trust that in the debate the attention of the members may be called to the opinion of the present court of Alabama Commissioners, in the case of West *v.* The United States. This commission was created by the act of 1874, when the job had only gone so far as to involve a swindle of the insurance companies, and when nobody yet dreamed of carrying out the idea of which this was the germ to its logical consequences of a general "grab." The Court use the following significant language: "Does not national courtesy and good faith require of us to suppose that Congress, in creating this Court, never intended we should distribute this fund other than for the purposes for which Great Britain supposed she was paying it? For instance, suppose Congress had chosen to keep half the fund and convert it into the Treasury of the nation, or had directed this Court to distribute it among those whose commercial interests had been injured by the terror and alarm caused by the insurgent cruisers, or among those who had suffered loss by the depredations of rebel cruisers other than the *Alabama*, *Florida*, and *Shenandoah*. In such cases, would not Great Britain have had cause to complain that she had been misled, overreached, deceived? Would our Government have been acting in good faith in making such disposition of this fund?"

The Connecticut election, on Monday, went, as it was generally expected to, in favor of the Democrats, but by a largely reduced majority. The total vote was less than that of last year, and the Republicans announced beforehand that they had little hope of carrying the State. Mr. D. A. Wells made a good canvass in the Third Congressional District, and drew off a heavy vote from the Republican candidate, who only won the day by a majority of a few hundred. There could not have been a better proof of the vastly greater importance the average voter attaches at the present time to character, ability, and reputation in a candidate than he does to any other considerations. The other political news of the week chiefly consists of the meetings of Republican nominating conventions in Mississippi, Pennsylvania, Vermont, and Ohio. Mississippi is for Morton, Pennsylvania for Hartranft, Ohio for Hayes, while the Vermonters have not declared their preferences. All the platforms are very much alike, and strongly in favor of reform, particularly that from Mississippi, where Governor Ames has just resigned to escape impeachment, as Cardozo, the State Superintendent of Education, did before him. Nothing but a new Force Bill will now save the State, and Mr. Morton has given notice in the Senate of his intention to pass one which the Supreme Court will not be able to upset. "Morton and Equal Rights" will be the cry from the Mississippi Valley to Cincinnati.

The week has brought forth little of interest in Wall Street, except the decline in the gold premium, the price as expressed in Treasury

notes having fallen to 112¼@112⅜. This decline, while in a measure speculative, was due to the fact that the amount of gold in the New York banks is more than twice what was held a year ago, and that it will not be a long time before the May interest comes out of the Treasury. The London money market also continues very easy, and, as the Bank of England is steadily gaining gold, it is thought the official rate of the Bank will be lowered this week. The small exports of gold from here show that few remittances are sent rather than that there is an abundance of sterling bills offering. The Stock Exchange, notwithstanding that the crisis in the contest between the Panama Railroad and the Pacific Mail Steamship Co. has come, has been very dull. Complaints pour in from all parts of the country that trade is poor, and that the weather is such that transportation off the railroads is almost impossible. Of course more than fine weather is needed to make trade active, but, with a tendency towards dulness, bad weather becomes a serious matter. New York merchants complain of the absence of Western and Southern buyers, and say that except for the trade of which New York is the jobbing centre, they are doing almost nothing. The New York banks have stood the April drain of currency without reducing their surplus reserve much below $10,000,000, which is nearly double what they held a year ago. The value in gold of $100 greenbacks has ranged during the week between $87 62 and $88 59.

In England, the prolonged debate on the bill providing for the assumption by the Queen of the title of "Empress of India" seems likely to end in the abandonment of the measure by the Ministry, in spite of the majority by which the second reading was carried in the House of Commons. A more puerile discussion than it has called forth has not taken place in England in modern times. The comic element in it has been heightened by Mr. Disraeli's avowal of his desire to accommodate the people of India in the matter, whom he represented as largely desiring the assumption of a title of some kind different from "Queen," but what title he was unable to say exactly, nor did he produce any evidence of the desire. There has consequently been much discussion as to whether the Hindoos would be best satisfied by having her called "Malikah," or "Malik," or "Sultana," or "Shâhin-Shah," or "Padishah," or "Mahârani," all of which are objected to on one ground or another. At this point Mr. Max Müller appears on the scene, and cuts the knot in a letter to the *Times*, showing, by reference to the old Sanskrit of the Rig-Veda and the Atharva-Veda, that the right name for the sovereign of India is "Adhirâja" or "Samrâj," but that there is "a still grander title" than this, viz., Râjadhirâja, which he "feels certain would be understood, appreciated, and loved by every true son of India." Naturally enough, the sober English people have been every day growing more and more disgusted with this stuff, and the opposition to the bill out of doors been becoming stronger and more bitter. As the Queen could, by the exercise of her prerogative, give herself whatever title she pleased as ruler of India, the only object in passing an act about it is to make the formal assumption of any title more solemn and impressive, and all the virtue of the act would, therefore, lie in the unanimity with which it passed. If bitterly opposed, as this is, it is generally felt it ought not to pass, and since the Opposition have resolved on the extreme measure of trying to address the Queen asking her not to take the title of "Empress," the Ministry doubtless feel that the scheme ought not to be pressed further. It has been thoroughly theatrical and ridiculous from the beginning, and touches English sentiment in a very tender place. Mr. Gladstone's protest against it has been one of his ablest speeches.

The Ministry has also been getting into trouble about India through the action of Lord Salisbury, who seems to be too high and mighty a personage for our time, both in sending a very peremptory despatch to the Governor-General directing all proposed Indian legislation to be submitted to the Secretary for India at home before being enacted, of which there is universal disapproval, and in directing the removal of the Indian duty on cotton goods at a certain fixed date—a measure avowedly projected in the interest of the Manchester manufacturers, and not in obedience to the principle of free-trade simply, because there are other portions of the Indian tariff which are much more objectionable on economic grounds. He has defended this proceeding so fully in the House of Lords that, coming so close on other mistakes, it helps to make the position of the Ministry almost precarious, and it would be decidedly precarious if the Liberals had bold and enterprising leaders and some settled policy.

The French Ministry have read a "Declaration," in the nature of a presidential message, to the Chambers, containing a sort of outline of their policy. It recognizes the legitimacy of a government based on universal suffrage; professes fidelity to the "liberal conservative spirit"; promises that the subordinate functionaries will make the Republic understood and appreciated by the people, by showing them how much more than any other form of government it rests on the general virtue and intelligence; proclaims a peaceful foreign policy; announces that, in renewing the commercial treaties shortly to expire, the Government will persevere in "the wise policy of free trade," and will shortly submit measures dealing with the problems of municipal government and university education. The correspondent of the London *Times* reports the comments of a member of the Cabinet on the Declaration, which means, he says, that ten or twelve of the present prefects, who have been plainly reactionary in their conduct, ought to be and will be dismissed; but that, apart from this, everything will be done to give good men a feeling of security in their places; that the state of siege now maintained in four Departments will be brought to an end on the 1st of May; that the Government will bring in a bill for the reform of the municipalities—that is, making the mayors elective, but will endeavor to provide that the elections will not take place within the present year, to avoid the agitation they would cause; that the act of the last session, making university education free, of which the Catholic clergy are so largely availing themselves, will be modified so as to reserve to the Government the right of granting the degrees. All this is very promising, and it is made all the more so by the fact that Gambetta's organ announces that the Ministry will, as far as the Left is concerned, be judged by its acts.

The statement of the Italian Minister of Finance, made to the Chambers a fortnight ago, seems to indicate that Italy has turned the corner in her finances, and that a steady process of deliverance from her burdens may now be looked for. In the first place, the unpaid arrears of taxes, which amounted in 1874 (the fiscal year in Italy is the solar year) to $40,000,000, amounted in 1875 to only $4,000,000, and all the items of the internal revenue had increased to such a degree that the deficit, which was expected to be $16,000,000, was only about $5,500,000, although in this is included a vote of $3,000,000 for railroads. The income of 1875 was $277,500,000, and the outgo was $283,000,000. In taking up the estimates of 1876, he said that, considering that they included considerable sums for railways and other internal improvements, he had at first set down a deficit of $3,000,000, but after seeing the results of 1875 he felt warranted in predicting that not only would there be no deficit, but that there would be a surplus of $3,500,000. No wonder this announcement caused a "sensation" in the Chamber. The law obliges the Minister, besides presenting the estimates for the current year in the month of March, to present also "a provisional estimate" for the year following, and accordingly Signor Minghetti set down his surplus for 1877 at $5,000,000, which caused another and greater sensation. In taking this highly favorable view of the future, he relied much on the working of the new commercial treaties, through which he expected much advantage for the treasury, while remaining faithful to the principles of free-trade introduced into Italy by Cavour, the furtherance of which was to him (Minghetti) a matter of pride.

THE SENATE.

IT is useless to deny that a feeling of great anxiety and apprehension, which is not likely to diminish, has been produced in the minds of intelligent and upright men of all parties by the conduct of the Senate in the Dana case. We do not know at this writing whether he will be confirmed or rejected—probably the latter; but as far as regards the feeling of the country about the Senate, it now makes no difference which is done. The important fact is that the affair has revealed a state of morals on the part of both Democratic and Republican sides of the Chamber which is very injurious even of what remained of popular confidence in the body and respect for it. Nor is the public judgment about the matter shaped by the contrast between Mr. Dana's character and position as an American citizen and that of those senators who have assailed him, though it is painful enough and humiliating enough to the national pride. This contrast was depicted in a powerful and impressive article, entitled "Tableaux," in the *Tribune* of last Wednesday, which we wish every man and woman in the country could read and digest. What Mr. Dana is, however, as compared to Messrs. Cameron and Morton, is a matter of comparatively small moment. What troubles people is that a body charged with such high and weighty functions, and surrounded by so many guarantees for its integrity and independence, should be capable of acting in this way towards any man, even if, instead of being a famous lawyer and literary man, and an honest gentleman, he were an unknown A or B. To hear and *act* on charges made secretly by personal enemies, themselves of bad or doubtful reputation, no matter who was the object of their attacks, were things unworthy of men fit to assist the President in administering the foreign affairs of a great nation. This, however, might have been excused on the ground of haste, and atoned for by a prompt retreat from an unfortunate situation; but the persistence in the original error, on the ground that the letter which this outrage called forth from their victim was not sufficiently respectful, indicates a state of moral dilapidation in which, taken in connection with the recent revelations made about the condition of the civil service, thoughtful men see reason for genuine alarm. For it must be remembered that the Senate is now the greater part of the Government. It has an absolute veto on all legislation and, through its share in the appointing power and in the making of treaties, paramount influence on administration. In fact, it is now half the legislative and two-thirds of the executive branch, and exerts a strong influence on the composition of the Supreme and subordinate Federal Courts. Moreover, it has more permanence than any other branch of the Government. It is the only portion of it which passes through a Presidential term without submitting itself to the popular judgment, and its permanence has been made the more striking of late years by the growing evanescence of the various civil officers. Its character is, therefore, of enormous and increasing importance to the country. Filled with pure, honorable, well-informed, and patriotic men, it is the first deliberative assembly in the world; made up even in great part of jobbers, adventurers, peculators, or demagogues, it becomes a political nuisance of the worst kind —a pest-house the infection from which will eventually poison the atmosphere of the whole country.

That such powers as the Senate was armed with would beget temptation to encroach on the other departments of the Government was foreseen in the earliest days of the Republic. Madison, in discussing the chances of encroachment on the part of the Executive or the Senate, said the danger lay with the latter, but concluded that on the whole more danger lay with the House of Representatives than with either. But Madison formed this judgment without foreseeing the enormous change which has since his day taken place in the constitution of the civil service, and therefore in the power of the Senate over the Executive and the whole machinery of government. Still less did he foresee the control which the civil service would one day exercise over the expression of the popular will, both in the nomination and election of Presidents and legislators. The Senate's share in the appointing power was a comparatively trifling matter when the office-holders were a small body, of whom "few died and none resigned." When they number 80,000, and there is a clean sweep every four years, this share constitutes both an immense privilege and one of the most corrupting agencies to which any legislative body was ever exposed. That the Senate has succumbed, too, few who know it will now deny. It is the very fountain-head of the great national disease which is day by day filling us with shame and foreboding. When the Postmaster-General turns a postmaster out of office, he now formally requests not the President, but one of the senators to fill the vacancy, and he fills it. The Custom-House and revenue offices and those of the Department of the Interior are filled in the same way, and, in fact, there may be said to be nothing left for the President but the diplomatic service and the consulates. If the appointing senator was supervised by his colleagues, the system might not be very bad, however unconstitutional; but he is not. Under what is called euphemistically "the courtesy of the Senate," but which is in reality a sort of corrupt covenant for a proper division of the spoils, each Senator is protected by his colleagues in the arbitrary use of his patronage, without enquiry or hindrance, and the same phrase is made to sustain the arbitrary control of foreign appointments by the Committee on Foreign Affairs. To complete the picture, we must recollect that nearly all appointments are made with a view to regulating the expression of public opinion in the nominating conventions and at the polls—or, in other words, to managing the electoral machinery, which is now of extraordinary complexity—and we then see how vast and far-reaching is the power, either direct or indirect, which the Senate has acquired over the Government through the appointing power. It has already filled the civil service with its creatures, and we are now witnessing an attempt to put its creature in the White House. General Grant has notoriously been for some time in the hands of a kind of managing committee, which *Harper's Weekly* calls the "Senatorial Group," and the rejection of Dana is due far more to irritation at the President's insubordination in sending in a name which was not on their "slate," than to anything else.

It is impossible in the limits of a single article to describe the variety of influences which have combined to build up this remarkable system, but among them may be mentioned, besides the great increase in the number of Government officers since the war, the decline in the character of State legislatures which the past fifteen years has witnessed; the increase in the size, complexity, and costliness of the political machine produced by the growth of population; the vast recent additions of ignorant and manageable voters; the absence since 1860 of a respectable opposition; and the injection into the Senate from the Southern and new Western States of a considerable body of members without character or lawful calling, and without other qualification than recently-acquired wealth. The presence of even a small body of adventurers of this sort speedily lowers the *tone* of a legislative assembly otherwise respectable, through the necessity, which one party or the other experiences daily, of negotiating with them or conciliating them; and for such persons "the courtesy of the Senate" of course only serves the purpose of the light overcoat which pickpockets carry gracefully on their arms when they enter a street-car in quest of purses and watches.

Under all these circumstances, the management of the party machinery falls naturally into the hands of the senators. They are more permanently in office and wield more power than any other members of the party, and have not unfrequently reached their places by the practice of the very intrigues which they are called on to superintend on a larger scale when they go to Washington. The local "managers" all work under the senator as their superior officer, and his failure or refusal to direct them actively is likely to cost him his place. Mr. Conkling, for instance, relies or relied for his chance of controlling the State delegation and getting the Presidential nomination on the skill with

which the Government offices had been used for partisan purposes under his orders.

This leads naturally to the last thing we have to say at present on a subject of no ordinary moment, and that is, that this enormous power of patronage, and the use of patronage in withdrawing nominations, and through them elections, from the control of public opinion, naturally begets a contempt for non-official expressions of public opinion—that is, all expressions of it that do not reach the Senate through the regular channel of the district association, the "pre-primary," the county and State convention, or the district-attorney, marshal, or collector, if there be one. The criticism, for instance, of a hostile newspaper or of a hostile meeting is nearly as revolting or contemptible to a hard-working "Administration senator" as it is to a Prussian general of cavalry, though for less respectable reasons. The curious but incautious outburst of Mr. A. B. Cornell against the Union League resolutions as "impudent," was an interesting revelation of a state of mind which is now that of a large number of the senators, so much so that some of them already boast that they never read the newspapers. Why should they? They have acquired their power, and keep it, through machinery which is not affected either by popular opinion or passion. In fact, they have converted the "ship of state" into a steamboat, in which we are all passengers, but are not allowed either to speak to the man at the wheel, enter the engine-room, or ask for the reckoning, though we see the officers through the glass door playing poker and drinking champagne. The moral of it all is, that to bring them to their senses, and to reform abuses and prevent corruption and make elections free, we must leave them fewer offices to fill.

THE *ALABAMA* JOB.

UNDER the award of the Geneva Court of Arbitration the United States received the sum of $15,500,000 in gold for damages caused through the negligence of the British Government in permitting the escape of Confederate cruisers during the Rebellion. The Treaty of Washington, drawn up in the spring of 1871, was very definite and precise in its provisions. By the first article, reference was made to "differences" between the two Governments "growing out of the acts committed by the several vessels, which have given rise to the claims generically known as the 'Alabama Claims,'" and agreeing that "all the said claims" "be referred to a Tribunal of Arbitration," to be composed of five arbitrators. By the sixth article, the Treaty provided three rules of international law with regard to the duties of neutrals, and, having laid down the law, proceeded to define its application in the seventh and tenth articles by the following very strict clauses:

"The said Tribunal shall first determine as to each vessel separately whether Great Britain has, by any act or omission, failed to fulfil any of the duties set forth in the foregoing three rules, or recognized by the principles of international law not inconsistent with such rules, and shall certify such fact as to each of the said vessels. In case the Tribunal find that Great Britain has failed to fulfil any duty or duties as aforesaid, it may, if it think proper, proceed to award a sum in gross to be paid by Great Britain to the United States for all the claims referred to it.

"In case the Tribunal finds that Great Britain has failed to fulfil any duty or duties as aforesaid, and does not award a sum in gross, the high contracting parties agree that a board of assessors shall be appointed, to ascertain and determine what claims are valid, and what amount or amounts shall be paid by Great Britain to the United States on account of the liability arising from such failure, as to each vessel, according to the extent of such liability as decided by the arbitrators."

By the final article, the Treaty provided that "the result of the proceedings of the Tribunal" or of the "board of assessors" should be "a full, perfect, and final settlement of all the claims." Under these rules, the Tribunal, having the whole case left to them by both Governments, decided, 1st, that Great Britain was liable for "direct losses"—*i.e.*, losses of ships and cargoes, etc.; 2d, that she was not liable for any indirect losses, such as the enhanced rates of insurance caused by the war; 3d, that the United States had no claim for what were known as "national losses," such as the transfer of the commercial marine to the British flag, or the prolongation and increased expense of the war.

They also decided that the only cruisers for whose acts under the Treaty the United States could recover were the *Alabama* and *Florida* (with their tenders), and the *Shenandoah* (after leaving Melbourne). Having thus determined the extent of the liability "as to each vessel," the only remaining questions were, first, whether the Tribunal would award a lump sum or send the case to assessors; and, second, whether they would allow interest, and if so, at what rate. As to the first, the question was merely one of convenience. It has since been suggested that the "lump sum" was really a means of giving damages indirectly for claims which the Tribunal had in so many words directly ruled out. If this country had been represented in the court by B. F. Butler, and Great Britain by Dr. Kenealy, there might, perhaps, be some ground for such a suspicion; but, inasmuch as the American and English representatives were Mr. Adams and Sir A. Cockburn, it is no more than fair to suppose that they did not perjure themselves when they agreed to determine judicially, in accordance with certain rules laid down by the parties, the amount of damages to be awarded, and did not stultify themselves by first unanimously declaring that certain claims were not allowable by international law, and then admitting them by a contemptible quibble. There is certainly no trace of any such intention in the record of the proceedings. With regard to the rate of interest, seven per cent. was claimed by our Government, and six per cent. was allowed by the Tribunal.

Thus far, the reference of the Alabama Claims to the High Court had produced the following results: The Tribunal had decided that Great Britain was liable for the acts of the three cruisers mentioned above, and also expressly decided by separate votes that she was not liable for the acts of the *Georgia*, *Sumter*, *Nashville*, or any of the others. It had also decided that the United States had no claim for "national losses," nor for "indirect damages"; that the "war-premium" men had no claim; that the total amount of direct damages caused by the three cruisers was, with interest, $15,500,000, or in round numbers, calling the time during which interest was running twelve years, $13,500,000 principal, and $2,000,000 interest. This sum the Tribunal gave to the United States as a "trust-fund," to be distributed "according to the tenor and spirit of the award" (we quote the language of the counsel of the United States) among the claimants. It could keep none of it itself. It had collected it as an agent, and must pay it over as an agent. These claimants were now reduced to three principal kinds—shippers, ship-owners, and insurers. As to the latter class, there was no dispute before the Tribunal that all underwriters who had paid as for a total loss stood in the shoes of the original owners, and were, in the technical language of the law, "subrogated" to their rights.

Now, what has Congress done with this trust-money? For nearly two years after the decision of the Tribunal—namely, till the passage of the act of June, 1874—absolutely nothing whatever was done. For nearly four years, during which time it has accumulated from $15,500,000 to more than $20,000,000, drawing interest at five per cent., it has remained in the Treasury. By the act itself the insurers, who had been from the first, by our Government and by all the arbitrators, decided to have the same rights to the money which the claimants themselves would have had, were deprived of half their rights; and a new Court of Alabama Claims was convened, directed not to allow any insurer's claim unless he could show that the sum of his losses exceeded the sum of his premiums, and then to no greater extent than the difference between the two—or, in other words, was expressly directed not to give to the insurers the money which the Government had just collected in court for them. In the second place, the act provided that the claimants should be entitled to interest at four per cent., the difference between this rate and that of six per cent. awarded by the Tribunal being kept back, on what ground nobody has yet had the assurance to state. This, however, was only a beginning. After all the payments that may be made under the act of 1874 there will be a large surplus, and it

remains to be decided how it shall be distributed. The majority of the House Committee have accordingly gravely recommended that the money be paid, first, to the claimants who lost by the vessels for whose acts the Tribunal expressly decided Great Britain was not liable, and for whose acts she paid none of this money; second, to the war-premium claimants, whose claims were expressly ruled out; and then, if there shall be any money left, to the insurers, who are the only one of the three classes who have any valid claims at all. Meanwhile, the State Department, which collected the claims and turned the money into the Treasury, stands by as if it had nothing to do with the case.

It is difficult to say whether the case is made more or less monstrous by the fact that the Committee is very evenly divided in its report, there being a bare majority in favor of the bill reported. This shows that the decision arrived at has been no hasty determination, but is the result of discussion, argument, and examination of evidence; so that it appears, taking this bill and the former act together, that the result of judicial discussion of private rights in a Committee of the House of Representatives is more likely on the whole, after due consideration, to be in favor of simple robbery than anything else.

But the effect of the disposition of this fund made by Congress upon the rights of the particular claimants is a matter of comparatively small concern. The disastrous part of the whole business is the effect upon the reputation and character of the Government and the nation. The *Alabama* Treaty and the subsequent proceedings have not been transacted on a narrow and provincial stage; we have called in the world to witness the noble example set by the two foremost nations of modern times in substituting peaceful methods of settling quarrels for violence, bloodshed, and war. We not only virtually, but in express terms, offered to show a benighted and barbarous generation our love of justice and law by submitting a grave international dispute to the decision of a court of justice. The submission of the Alabama Claims to a *court* was received the world over as a harbinger of the new gospel which was finally to do away with war altogether and put justice in its place. There is now no escape for us. The result will be judged in the light of the promises; and the question that the public will ask will be, not simply has something been substituted for violence, but what is presented to us in exchange? Can it be fraud? When we recall the glowing language that was used six years ago about the "principle of arbitration," it is difficult to believe that the management of the business by the Government has not been from first to last a roaring farce, got up for the purpose of bringing arbitration into contempt. Certainly, if that had been the object, no means could have been better adapted to the end than the submission of a dispute by a trustee to a voluntary court of justice and to rules of law until judgment was rendered in the plaintiff's favor, and then, walking off with the money out of the reach of the process of the court, defying it to enforce its decree for the distribution of the trust-fund, and proceeding to do what he pleases with the money. Bismarck and Moltke, when they hear of this queer triumph of justice over the barbarous instincts of human nature, may well doubt whether there are not some things that are even worse than war and bloodshed. Isolated as America is from the rest of the world both by position and circumstances, and exempted as we are by our immense material wealth from many of the consequences which bad government would naturally have brought in its train, we are always inclined to look on "the bright side" even of our worst errors. But such mistakes as the *Alabama* business has thus far been have no bright sides. It would have been a thousand times better than what has happened that all the money we received from England should have been sunk in the sea, and that the High Court should never have met to illustrate the "principle of arbitration" at all. We should have been then, at least, spared the shame of seeing the Government submitting to rules of law to evade those of justice, and swindling its citizens at home to disgrace them abroad.

THE BATTLE OF THE BOOKS.

MR. DANA may fairly be congratulated, from one point of view, on his treatment by the Senate, for the opportunity it has afforded him of making the public acquainted with the real nature of a transaction in which there was a vague impression in the minds of many people that he had been in some way to blame—an impression which was confirmed or strengthened by the fact that in the controversy between him and Lawrence there had been a judicial decision against him, in which he had, to some extent at least, been held answerable for an infringement of Lawrence's copyright. The shape which the story took in the minds of many people, to our own knowledge, was something of this sort: That Mr. Lawrence was a great master of international law, who had with much honor and authority annotated two editions of Wheaton at the request of and for the benefit of Wheaton's family, but that his last edition gave dissatisfaction to the Republican party during the war, on account of its views on the right of secession and the rights and duties of neutrals; that Lawrence was, therefore, roundly abused as a "Copperhead" and "rebel sympathizer," and that, at the suggestion of Mr. Seward, Mr. Dana was induced to undertake a "loyal" edition of the work as a rival to Mr. Lawrence's, with notes taking the Northern view of the various questions of public law raised by the Rebellion, and that Mr. Dana went to work and did bring out such an edition, but stole extensively from Mr. Lawrence's notes on non-controverted points, and endeavored in a crafty and fraudulent manner to supersede Mr. Lawrence's work in the market, and that on Mr. Lawrence's suing him he (Dana) swore roundly that he had carefully abstained from any use whatever of Mr. Lawrence's labors, but was speedily found out by the Court and exposed in a decision which the New York *World* and General Butler knew of, but nobody else, or nobody but Mr. Dana's unscrupulous partisans, who of course tried to keep it secret. This was the story in its worst form; as it spread it assumed among some of those more friendly to Mr. Dana the form of a charge that Mr. Dana had undertaken a rival edition of Wheaton, and had, being an honorable man, meant to abstain religiously from any use of Mr. Lawrence's notes, but that, being very busy with his professional practice, he had left the greater portion of the work to certain young lawyers, who had helped themselves freely to Lawrence's accumulations, with resulting damage to Mr. Dana's reputation. Of course the great body of the public knew nothing about the matter and cared nothing, and, owing to its nature, probably no effort on Mr. Dana's part would, under ordinary circumstances, have been sufficient to obtain for him a fair and intelligent hearing of his case. His nomination to the Senate would not have procured it either, because outside the small circle who took any interest in his copyright quarrel his character stood too high to call for enquiry or hesitation of any kind. But Providence so ordered it that his two worst enemies, one of them notorious for the badness of his character and the other with a temper that would bear some improvement, rushed on to Washington, on hearing of his nomination, with charges which would have fallen stillborn if the Committee of the Senate had been a tribunal composed of honorable men, and Mr. Dana would thus again have lost the opportunity of a vindication. It so happened, however, that the nomination was very distasteful to some of them, who had other ends in view, and accordingly the appearance of Lawrence and Butler was very welcome and their charges very grateful, and they were promptly acted on and the President requested to withdraw Mr. Dana's name. This at once aroused the attention and indignation of the country, and Mr. Dana has obtained a hearing which the public does not accord to a private controversy once in a century.

It has now been brought out clearly that, whatever Butler said before the Senate Committee, the letter published by him in the New York *Tribune* was the composition of a liar and a ruffian, and that Mr. Lawrence, in acquiescing in it, even tacitly, as a statement of the case against his opponent, rendered himself an accomplice in the lying; that Mr. Dana was not a rival of Mr. Lawrence, but a successor—that is, that he was employed by the Wheaton family to do for them a piece of work which they had previously employed Mr. Lawrence to do, and in which there would have been no question of Mr. Dana's right to use the results of his predecessor's labors but for one thing, viz., an alleged agreement between Mr. Lawrence and Mrs. Wheaton, the evidence of which was a "memorandum" signed by Miss Wheaton, her daughter, but not by Mr. Lawrence, binding Mrs. Wheaton in certain conditions not to make any use of Mr. Lawrence's notes in a new edition without his written consent, and to give him the right to make any use he pleased of his own notes. This "memorandum" never grew into a formal agreement, and was returned by Mr. Lawrence after much fruitless negotiation,

and its validity forms the principal point in the suit now pending. Mr. Lawrence maintains that although he returned it and never signed it, it is a binding contract ; the Wheatons, that, if a contract at all, it was obtained by false and fraudulent representations. There is strong evidence in support of the latter view, that of Professor Parsons and Mr. Little, and the agreement of the Wheatons with Mr. Dana was made in the belief that they had no contract with Lawrence, but were the full possessors at law and in equity of the copyright of his notes, and that therefore Mr. Dana, acting for them, might make what use he pleased of them. The Court, however, held that the "memorandum" was a valid agreement. This was the first point in the case.

The second was whether Mr. Dana had sufficient notice of the existence of the agreement to make him a participant in the infringement of the copyright—if any such infringement there was—and therefore a proper defendant in the suit along with the Wheatons. The Court held that he had no *actual* notice of it. But then, he was intimate with the Wheatons ; he knew that they had a controversy with Mr. Lawrence, although, in order not to be mixed up in it, he declined to receive any communication from them about it or to read the correspondence, and declined, as a matter of propriety, to read a long letter from Lawrence to Professor Parsons, who was the Wheatons' adviser, which Parsons had not read himself, and which did contain an assertion of the Lawrence claim ; and therefore the Court decided that he (Dana) had constructive knowledge of it—that is to say, it decided that if he had heard things which he did not hear but might have heard, and read things which he did not read but might have read, he would have known that Lawrence claimed an interest in the notes. This is the link, and the only one, which connects him with the case.

The third question was, did Mr. Dana, as a matter of fact, the foregoing points being settled against him, infringe Mr. Lawrence's copyright ? Of actual copying of Mr. Lawrence's notes there was no proof, but Mr. Dana himself acknowledged that he used the Lawrence edition as freely as, but no more freely than, he used other works on international law. In passing on this point, the Court followed the rule laid down in England with regard to the copyright of a map, guide-book, or directory, in these words : "Express decision in Kelley agt. Morris is that in the case of a map, guide-book, or directory, or the like, where there are certain common objects of information which must, if described correctly, be described in the same words, a subsequent compiler is bound to do for himself that which was done by the first compiler ; that he is *not entitled to take one word of the information published* without independently working out the matter for himself so as to arrive at the same result from common sources of information ; and that the only use he can make of a previous publication of that kind is to verify his own calculations and results when obtained." (The italics here are ours.) One does not need to be a lawyer to see the extraordinary vexatiousness of a rule of this kind applied to a work on international law, in treating which the illustrations used must needs be prominent historical events, and the literature of which is small in volume and composed very largely of mere iteration of opinions. No man could undertake for a second time the annotation of a work like Wheaton's and pass through a net as fine as this is, and there was, therefore, nothing wonderful in the finding of the Court that Mr. Dana had in some places trespassed on Mr. Lawrence's rights. But it made no decree giving Mr. Lawrence the relief he sought ; it did not enjoin the sale of Mr. Dana's edition ; it simply decided that under this rule there had been infringements, and directed a Master to report what they were. Whether such an application of the rule will stand, will be decided by the Supreme Court. Seven years have elapsed since then and no report has been made. The present position of the matter may be illustrated thus :

Dana is building a house on land adjoining Lawrence's, who asserts (1) that the lot on which the house is going up is his ; (2) that, if not, Dana has agreed never to build on it ; and (3) that he has agreed not to build nearer than within one foot of the boundary-line, and sues him in equity. Dana claims the whole lot, denies having ever made any agreement about it, and maintains that, in any event, the house is not nearer to the line than one foot. To settle the matter, there has to be a prolonged examination of old deeds, surveys, and correspondence, extending over many years, and the Court decides (1) that Lawrence has no claim to the lot, and that it belongs to Dana ; (2) that Dana never agreed not to build, (3) but that there was correspondence between them which did amount to an agreement on Dana's part not to build within a foot of the line ; (4) that the line is difficult to determine accurately, but does lie from *a* to *b* and from *b* to *c*, and that, while no part of Dana's house overruns it, it appears that parts of the out-offices do, and that his eaves overhang it ; but the Court is unable to examine the matter for itself, and refers it to a surveyor to report how it stands with regard to the line as thus laid down, and refuses Lawrence's prayer for an injunction or conveyance, and leaves him to await the result of the report. Dana then says he will appeal to the Supreme Court. In the meantime, three notorious faro-bankers and mock-auctioneers, named Butler, Cameron, and Morton, hearing of the affair, and learning that Dana has been appointed to a foreign mission by the President, collect in the street in front of his house, headed by Lawrence, and begin to shout "Thief ! thief !" and protest against such a man's representing the country abroad. Dana appears at the window and warns them off, and threatens that he will call the police, and then they go back to their business, telling everybody that they knew he was a bad fellow, for he had just lost his temper. In this bit of exegesis we have made no use whatever of presumptions derived from the reputation and history of the parties to the controversy, powerfully as these would tell in Mr. Dana's favor. On this point, indeed, we are inclined to think that all who know them both will concur heartily in the opinion expressed some time ago by a distinguished American scholar and diplomatist *apropos* of this matter, "that Richard H. Dana would steal from no man, and no man would steal from William B. Lawrence."

We must in closing say one word about the letter of which the Senate Committee has made such ridiculous use to cover its retreat from the discreditable position it first assumed. In hearing Lawrence and Butler in secret, and on the strength of their *ex-parte* statements requesting the President to withdraw Mr. Dana's name, it inflicted on him the grossest outrage, as far as our recollection goes, ever committed on an individual of good character, and belonging to an honorable calling, by an official body of dignity or authority. The offer, unofficially and indirectly made, after the insult had been inflicted and made public, to hear Mr. Dana in his own defence, was not a reparation but an aggravation. If Mr. Dana had gone down to Washington and addressed the Committee under these circumstances, his address would not have been an answer, but an appeal *ad misericordiam*, which it would have been degrading to any man of honor to make. As soon as he received an authoritative account of the Committee's action, he wrote the letter to Mr. Boutwell which has been published, and which we are sure will be and has been pronounced by men of character and intelligence on both sides of the Atlantic a perfectly proper letter under the circumstances, containing the right thing said in the right way. The irritation over it displayed by a portion of the Senate we believe to be for the most part feigned. Everybody who knows anything of these gentlemen, and their social and political history, knows that the goodness of their temper and their calmness under harsh language is one of the conditions of their success. So that we are, we think, only doing them justice in treating their horror of Dana's intemperate language as a sly caucus joke which they enjoy mightily among themselves.

THE ROYAL TITLES BILL.

London, March 21, 1876.

PUBLIC interest this week has been concentrated upon one subject—a most important one—the Royal Titles Bill. I have not seen so much unpleasant feeling upon any subject for a good many years as has been exhibited upon this during the past ten days. I do not know that the feeling has yet had time to penetrate very deeply into the lower strata of society, or to take hold on the public mind in the larger towns outside London. But a moaning sound is even now heard in the republican centres, in Newcastle, Sheffield, Manchester, and Birmingham, which may be the prelude to a storm of indignation shortly to arise against the House, or may merely be the distant reverberation of the outburst which undoubtedly is now going on in the metropolis.

When it was first announced in the Queen's speech that the present was deemed a fitting opportunity for making a formal addition to the style and titles of the sovereign, the matter, as I wrote to you at the time, was considered as another piece of *mauvaise plaisanterie* on the part of the Prime Minister—a vulgar joke this time, and smacking more than ever of Mr. Disraeli's passion for the footlights and tinsel of the theatre. But people were interested in other things of graver moment, and if the Queen did not mind gratifying her Premier's fancies, and allowing him the satisfaction of mouthing big words about Oriental potentates and august dignities, it really did not much matter. Mr. Disraeli was getting old, and he had done some public service, and if it was a satisfaction to him to make a grandiose speech about the royal house and the Eastern Empire, and to bring in a bill to add India to the crown titles, the people would not grudge it to him. It was like giving an old circus-horse a sniff of the sawdust to remind him of the antics of his youth. It was, indeed, whispered that it was possible, but highly unlikely, that some members of the royal family were like-minded with Mr. Disraeli ; that they considered the

title of King or Queen not good enough for them ; and that it would be a fine thing to be called Imperial Highness, and to take social position in the courts of foreign emperors along with their connections of imperial rank without question of precedence. But this was hardly credited. We all thought better of the sons and daughters of Queen Victoria, and of Queen Victoria herself, and we could not believe that any Ministry—even the Ministry of Mr. Disraeli—could seriously propose that the addition to the style and titles of the Crown was to imprint the brand of Imperialism upon the British dominions. The first rumor of a suspicion of this proposal that came to my ears was a casual bit of gossip at a dinner-party that Mr. Bright was seriously disquieted on the subject. The popular instincts of the old tribune of the people were excited ; he feared that Mr. Disraeli might make such a proposal, and he would not answer for the consequences in the country if he did.

On the first reading of the bill, the Prime Minister was interrogated upon the subject, but he declined to answer. He, as his manner is when he wishes to impress the House with the solemnity of the occasion, raised himself erect, and, in that style which Mr. Bright once happily characterized as a "mixture of pompousness and servility," dilated upon the impolicy of interfering with the royal prerogative. This solemnity was the reverse of tranquillizing. The Opposition were alarmed, and they plied him with questions as to what title the Ministry would recommend the Queen to take. But again and again he declined to answer, and he wrapped himself up in a mysterious mannerism that argued badly for his cause. It was not until a notice to reject the bill unless the House were told what the title was to be was put upon the Order-Book that Mr. Disraeli consented to come down from his pedestal, and broke his silence with the announcement that the Queen was henceforth to be known as the "Empress of India." "For the future her title will run thus," he said, and he rolled out the words with unction, "Victoria, by the grace of God, of Great Britain and Ireland Queen, Defender of the Faith, and Empress of India"! How the old circus-horse pranced and neighed as he uttered these "august designations"! But the House of Commons, the Ministerialists no less than the Opposition, did not participate in his prancings. They looked, on both sides of the House, and obviously felt, uncomfortable. The House of Commons, whatever some few of the individual members may be, is, in its corporate feeling, a refined and cultivated body. It has no sympathy with the intellectual propensities of charlatanism. In its entirety it is a collection of high-spirited English gentlemen, and it is not easily carried away by the emotions of sycophancy or courtiership. The members felt on this occasion that they were most unnecessarily being dragged through the dirt by the fancies of the Prime Minister—the gilt and tinsel dirt of an inferior theatre ; and not they only, but the prestige, the honorable dignities, and the grand traditions of the British Crown. "Mr. Disraeli," as one man said to me as the Prime Minister sat down with an air of ineffable self-satisfaction on his generally immovable countenance—"Mr. Disraeli, not being content with the degradation of the Tory aristocracy, is now trying to degrade the Crown." This was no overcharged expression of opinion. It described the prevailing feeling of discomfort and degradation, and that feeling of discomfort and degradation has been growing ever since. The metropolitan press, or at least that portion of it which is independent of the Conservative party, has been unanimous in condemning the proposal. Every man you meet in the street, and every sensible woman whom you meet in society, talks of the suggestion with undisguised contempt. The cynically-minded in the clubs make pretty good fun of the thing, but their kindliest criticisms contain a sting—a sting directed not against the Prime Minister or the Ministry alone, but against even more important personages. Only to-day I heard a lamentation that Thackeray was gone. It was thought he might have added an Imperial chapter to his 'Book of Snobs.'

Last Wednesday it was announced that Lord Hartington, the leader of the Opposition, was to move a resolution the object of which was to run the title of Queen against that of Emperor ; and when this was known a sense of relief was felt by all independent men who take an interest in politics. The Ministry, it was thought, would now withdraw their bill, or drop their fantastic proposal to foist this un-English exotic on the Crown, and rest content with the simple incorporation of the word India into the existing attributes of the Queen. But this was not to be. The Ministerialists came down in masses to the House, sick men and cripples even being brought out of their beds to vote, and they carried the bill into committee in spite of their opponents. Lord Hartington never spoke better, and he was well supported by Mr. Forster and Sir William Harcourt. But it was all in vain. The Chancellor of the Exchequer and a young understrapper of the Government called Lord George Hamilton, a son of one of Mr. Disraeli's mushroom dukes, were put up to answer, and the Prime Minister was so assured of victory that he did not think it worth his while to speak. The division was taken at half-past one on Friday morning, and the Opposition were defeated by a crushing majority, larger than any they have had against them on a party fight in this Parliament. And why, you may ask, should this have been if the feeling outside Parliament is as strong as I have said ? The reasons are not quite clear as yet, perhaps they never will be. The Ministerialists strained every nerve of party allegiance, and not one man among them voted with the popular side. The same cannot be said of the Opposition. The leaders and the Radicals were staunch enough ; but in the miscellaneous cohorts which make up the followers of Lord Hartington there is a section who are hardly independent of the influence of the Court. They are a heterogeneous crowd, consisting of ex-lord-mayors and lord-mayors expectant, young noblemen connected by friendship or otherwise with the members of the reigning family, Home-Rulers looking for the release of the Fenian prisoners, and a few others who are drawn by temperament and disposition towards royalty like flowers to the sun. All this section of the Liberal party voted with their natural political enemies on this occasion. Some have seen in this an indication that the whispers, spoken of at the beginning of this letter but discredited, had something in them. I express no opinion upon this point. The Republicans in London, however, have lost no time in drawing some such inference. They seem to think that they can make political capital out of the transaction. The following petition, relative to grants to members of the royal family, has been addressed to the House of Commons, and is being signed extensively throughout the metropolis :

"That no further grant or allowance may be made to any member of the royal family. That an account should be brought before the House, showing the total real and personal estate and income of each and every member of the royal family who may be in receipt of any pension or allowance, and also showing all the positions and places of profit severally held by members of the said royal family ; also showing all pensions, if any, formerly charged on any estate now held by any member or members of the royal family, and, if any such shall have been transferred, at what date such transfer took place" ;

and it cannot for a moment be disputed that the Republican party in the state—at present a very small one—is the one party that has got any good out of this untoward business. The moderate Liberals, who compose the Opposition, have gained nothing, neither have they lost anything. They represented moderation and conservatism by resisting a hateful innovation, and they sustained a crushing defeat. Their action in the matter will tell in the long run, but for the moment it has not apparently done so. The Ministerialists secured a party triumph, but it is no real victory. Already Mr. Disraeli has seen the serious mistake he made. He has damaged himself and his Ministry in the opinion of his own supporters and of all sensible men both inside and outside the House of Commons ; he has pleased no one ; and by his action last night he has apparently failed to ingratiate himself even with the Court. He made a statement to this effect : that under no circumstances would the Queen, by the advice of her Ministers, assume the title of Empress *in England*, and that she would not under any circumstances be advised "to confer a title upon her royal children and her agnates that would denote the Imperial connection." This assurance is satisfactory so far as it goes, but it does not go far enough. If the Imperial title is assumed anywhere in relation to British dominion, it will be only a question of time how long it will be confined to the limits assigned to it. There are always courtly and official persons who will make it their interest and their pleasure to extend the designation ; and that is what excites the suspicions of the country. Why did not Mr. Disraeli make this statement long ago, they ask, if this is what is really meant ? "Why," rather, in the words of Lord Melbourne, "did he not let it alone from the beginning ?"

The bill, however, is regarded as practically safe, and as very nearly sufficiently harmless. It is not likely that the House of Lords will raise any serious opposition to it, though they may press for the exclusion of the word Empress in the proclamation which will follow. Lord Granville will perhaps speak out his mind, as he is understood to have been in close communication with Lord Hartington in the matter, and to have counselled him as to his course of action. Some of the young Liberal peers may also express the views which prevail among all men of sense and taste in the country. But the great majority of noble lords are too closely bound by social ties to the Court to say in public what many of them do not hesitate to say in private, and that is, that the proposal to assume the parvenu title of Emperor is vulgar and demeaning, and even the wish to assume it, if brought home to any member of the royal house, could not fail to slacken and almost to cast adrift the feelings of loyalty and affection with which that house has ever been regarded in this country and throughout the colonies.

THE RUSSIFICATION OF THE BALTIC PROVINCES.

LONDON, March 9, 1876.

A FUNERAL procession always awakens a feeling of sadness, even if the deceased has been wholly indifferent or quite unknown to us in life. Should it then be possible to pass the corpse of a body-politic quite unmoved? Perhaps its life was for a century or more only like a faintly-glimmering spark. Then its death will not strike us much. Perhaps it will even meet with the fate of the Abbé Sieyès, the announcement of whose death made quite a peculiar kind of sensation, because everybody thought he was dead long ago. Yet the fact that a life is extinguished will never fail to make an impression on those who are still living.

It is a very curious coincidence that the political resurrection of Germany is followed so soon by the agony of the only colony proper ever founded by Germany; for, so far as my information goes, everybody is agreed that the Imperial decree abolishing the governor-generalship over the three Baltic or German Provinces of Russia is meant to be their death-warrant. When, about thirteen years ago, I left Livonia, half resolved never again to return to this my native country, I incurred the severe blame of most of my old schoolmates and university comrades, because they thought no one ought to leave the ship when everything indicated a storm infinitely more dangerous than any she had ever had to weather before. My opinion was that she was doomed to inevitable destruction, and that a martyrdom which can do no possible good is simple foolishness. This was, of course, denounced as a threadbare veil with which I was trying to cover a mean egotism and a despicable lack of patriotism.

I should not have dared to tax the patience of your readers with what I have thought or done if it had not been for the reason that I wanted to introduce myself as one who knew something about those hapless provinces, and who has something to support his pretension that he judges them and their sad fate correctly. Only two months ago I spent some weeks in Riga. Nobody had as yet the faintest idea that such a blow was impending over them. And yet the very men who had once judged me so harshly now unanimously declared, heaving a deep sigh: "If we had no family to care for we would at once emigrate to Germany; here is no life; we are barely allowed to vegetate." You may judge what are their thoughts now—for they are confined to thinking; speak so that the world may hear them they cannot. When I complained of the absolute emptiness of the *Rigaische Zeitung* I was answered: The editors are not to be blamed; they dare not, they cannot say anything, and they curse every hour the day on which they turned journalists, for their work is more fruitless than that of the Danaïdes. I venture to assert that now, in all the three Provinces, not a single sober-minded and reflecting man will be found who still believes that the contest allows of any hope, that it is anything but a death-struggle. The abolishing of the governor-generalship in itself can, of course, not have such an effect, though it is important enough. It is the old story of the bundle of sticks which successfully resists every effort, while each stick, taken separately, is easily broken. The immediate effect of the Imperial decree is just the separating of them, but nobody has as yet had the folly or the impudence to suggest that perhaps nothing more is intended. If there could have been any doubt about the ultimate object for which this preliminary measure is to pave the way, the Russian papers have taken good care to remove it. With the utmost directness, they declare that everything peculiar to the Baltic Provinces which distinguishes them from the rest of the empire shall be levelled to the ground, and already they demand with vehement impatience that the axe shall at once strike at the root of the tree by depriving the University of Dorpat of its German character.

The German papers say as little as possible about the whole matter, partly because they do not like to give offence to Russia, partly because we are, in a political sense, a nation of yesterday. Heinrich von Treitschke, in one of his essays, remarks that the political age of a nation is indicated by the time covered by its historical recollections—*i.e.*, not as these are laid down in the writings of the learned, but as they really live in the people; and he points out how short a time that is with us in comparison with England or with France. Here is a proof of the truth of this assertion: the important part for a long time played by these Baltic provinces is so entirely forgotten even by the higher educated classes that it happens quite frequently to a Livonian or Esthonian to be complimented on speaking German so fluently and correctly. So there is nothing astonishing in the fact that the sympathy now bestowed upon them resembles the sun on a somewhat foggy day in December. Two or three saltless phrases of hardly lukewarm commiseration are followed by a long explanation of how the Baltic Provinces are now only reaping what they have sown, and the whole is generally wound up with the exclamation, How can we blame Russia, while we are doing exactly the same thing in Schleswig and in our Polish Provinces?

The first assertion is undeniably true. If the example of the German Knights (*Deutsche Orden*) in Prussia had been followed by their cousins, the Knights of the Sword (*Schwertbrüder*), in the Baltic Provinces, they would have conferred a blessing upon the vanquished natives and secured their own existence. They did not do it for exactly the same reason that it was forbidden in your Southern States to teach the slaves how to read and write. And it was not from indifference or negligence that they did not Germanize the natives. It was left undone with full consciousness, for to elevate them economically or mentally was to endanger the absolute sway of the masters over them. When they at last began to be aware of their fatal mistake, it was already too late; for their eyes were only opened under the pressure of the first half-covert and stealthy attempts of Russia to Russify as well the Germans as the natives. Russia has, of course, not been slow to answer all complaints with the question: Where is your right to call the Provinces German, as only about one-tenth of your population really is German? And it was not possible to give an effective answer. But this narrow-minded and short-sighted spirit has by no means, as all the German papers seem to suppose, been confined to the landed feudal aristocracy, who have thus far, to the almost entire exclusion of all others, constituted the "province" as a body politic. In the Livonian Diet (*Landtag*), in which every nobleman who is the owner of an estate (*Gut*), or who has charge of one, has a seat and a vote, Riga, to-day a city of more than one hundred thousand inhabitants, and with a tonnage larger than that of Hamburg, has but two representatives; and twice it has been due to the objections of Riga that the smaller cities did not get the representation which the nobility was willing to grant them. The peasantry had no political rights whatever, and the cities had no connection either with the nobility or with one another. In short, the whole province was a curiosity-shop of relics from the Middle Ages.

And yet it is not true that Russia is now only doing what Germany does with regard to Schleswig and her Polish Provinces. No one will contend that with these a necessary or likely effect of the Germanizing process will be a more or less considerable loss in their general *status* of culture. This, however, must be the inevitable effect of the Russification of the Baltic Provinces, although it cannot be denied that, so far as the mere laws are concerned, they have of late remained behind Russia in many and very important respects. In spite of that, taken as individuals, they are still, morally and mentally, by far the superiors of the Russians in the average. This the latter themselves acknowledge by constantly complaining that a really enormous percentage of all the offices of trust and responsibility is held by the Germans. And if it is admitted that, in the average, the Germans are still morally and mentally the superiors of the Russians, then also it must be acknowledged that the forcible Russification of the Baltic Provinces is a high-handed attempt against civilization, since, in this case, nobody has dared to plead a paramount political necessity as with regard to ever-revolutionary Poland. If this be so, then just so far as Russia succeeds in her designs she will deprive herself of the best and most tried levers for lifting her from the position of a semi-Asiatic power to a level with the rest of the Western world; for it is universally acknowledged that the Russified German is not only not better but even much worse than the Russian. And she will have to suffer the more from this most impolitic course because the struggle will be extremely stubborn, though it is utterly hopeless for the Provinces. The Germans of those regions are an exceedingly tough race, as is abundantly proved by every chapter of their history, and they have a shield against which many a strong shaft will be dashed to splinters; they are Lutherans, and, upon the whole, not only very orthodox Lutherans, but also Lutherans with the primitive faith of children, which they have remained in so many respects. As long as they are not deprived of their Lutheranism—and, so far as one can see now, neither force nor craft will accomplish that—the mother will lull her child to sleep with a German song, and the dying father will bless his son in German words. And as long as this is so, the Russification will not be complete.

Correspondence.

A SHORT COMMENTARY ON PROFESSOR TIMOTHY DWIGHT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I beg a small space in your columns for a brief commentary on the *Epistles of Timothy*. I regret that the work of the Advisory Council so soon requires a defender, and that the defence requires so much artifice

As common fame attributes a very large share of the deliverances of the Council to the astuteness of the lively professor, he may naturally be expected to speak of them with the affection we feel for our own offspring, whether of the body or brain. The Council was compurgator for Plymouth Church, and Professor Dwight is compurgator for the Council. It might be curious to enquire how far in an ascending series the process of compurgation can be efficaciously carried. Coleridge hinted at a difficulty attending the process :

> "The river Rhine it is well known
> Does wash your city of Cologne;
> But tell me, nymphs! what power divine
> Shall henceforth wash the river Rhine?"

The Jesuit fathers were famous experts in moral and theological casuistry. The great Pascal, in the immortal 'Provincial Letters,' exposed and ridiculed their adroit sophistries about "proximate power" and "sufficient grace." "Proximate power" was given to all men to keep the commandments (including the seventh commandment, of course), but all men had not "sufficient grace" to keep them. Those learned fathers also taught that a man might pay another for burning an offending neighbor's barn, if he did it with the right motive ; and the motive *was* right if the money was paid for the *favor*, and not for the *fire*. That precise case is put in the "Eighth Provincial Letter" :

> "A person asks a soldier to set fire to the barn of a man that has injured him. The question is whether, in the absence of the soldier, the person who employed him to commit the outrage is bound to make reparation out of his own pocket for the damage that has followed? My opinion is that he is not. For none can be held bound to restitution where there has been no violation of justice ; *and is justice violated by asking another to do us a favor?*"

See how adroitly the proposition is changed from asking a man to burn another's barn to asking him "to do us a favor"! Upon the same principle, the pious father would say that the wrongdoer is not bound to make restitution to Mr. Tilton for firing his premises, if the wrong was not done with intent to injure Mr. Tilton, *but from another motive;* for "the intention determines the quality of the action." In another letter, Pascal quotes the casuist as saying that if a holy father is caught in a brothel, he may deny it, if his motive is to save the credit of the church ; and in another place he adds that he may *swear* he was not guilty of fornication (interpolating in an undertone that he did not do it before he was born).

By artfully changing the terms of propositions as the argument proceeds, it can easily be proved, as no doubt it often was proved in that Yale College Debating Society the Professor mentions, that a horse-chestnut is a chestnut horse. Was not the Professor himself a burning and a shining light in that debating society? He evidently has given his days and his nights to the study of those Jesuit fathers, and in the practice of casuistry can give odds to his famous teachers. My task, now, is to expose some of his bold fallacies.

Fallacy No. 1.—That the proffer by the Andover Church of a mutual council to investigate a scandal seriously affecting the brotherhood of Congregational churches was invalid, because *only a church can try a church-member*.

The fallacy is in the assumption that the Andover Church proposed a mutual council *to try a church-member*. Any procedure is to be defined, and to be characterized, by the effect it is legally competent to produce. The procedure of a church-trial is competent to the effect, first, of *determining* the question of guilt ; second, of *pronouncing sentence;* third, of *executing* the sentence by excommunicating the convicted member ; but no one pretends that a council can try, sentence, or excommunicate a member of a church. The Andover letter does not hint at a proposal to try, sentence, or excommunicate anybody. The brotherhood of churches was interested to have a thorough investigation, and the Andover Church asked Plymouth Church to join it in calling a mutual council for that sole purpose. Its letter, as quoted by Professor Dwight, says : "We therefore ask you to unite with us in calling an ecclesiastical council *empowered to make a thorough investigation* of this painful case." If Plymouth Church had assented, and a thorough investigation had followed, the council could not have sentenced or excommunicated the member, but must have left *the church* to deal with him according to its own sense of right. If the church had then failed to do what it ought, a council might have been called to consider what further should be done to vindicate the brotherhood of churches. The Professor has the temerity to call such a procedure by a council a *trial* of a church-member. That an investigation is not a trial is shown by the scheme of a commission to investigate, for the Professor does not pretend that the commission can do anything more than investigate, and then leave it to the church to deal with the member.

Fallacy No. 2.—That a council cannot lawfully investigate, but that a committee called a commission, constituted by a council, can.

It is as true in law as in physics, that a stream cannot rise higher than its source. It certainly is true that if a council cannot investigate, it cannot confer a valid authority upon its creature to do so. If a council cannot try a church-member, its creature, whether called a committee or a commission, cannot try him. Having affirmed that a council cannot investigate because it cannot try, the Advisory Council and the Professor turn a sharp corner and upset both their major and minor premiss by affirming that a council can, by its creature, investigate and so try a church-member. If they attempt (as I think they do) to escape this dilemma by saying that the commission can investigate if the church consents, I answer it must be equally true that a council can investigate if the church consents ; and that is what the Andover Church asked, and what the Council advised Plymouth Church not to consent to. The Professor must therefore give up his proposition that an investigation is necessarily a trial, or give up his proposition that a council can constitute a committee to investigate ; and he must also give up his proposition that a consent of Plymouth Church to an investigation, as proposed by Andover, would not have been as valid as its consent to an investigation by a commission. Indeed, the Professor afterwards acknowledges that the local ministers' association may, without the consent of Plymouth Church, investigate and expel the pastor from the association ; and that a council may finally investigate with a view to disfellowshipping Plymouth Church ; but is such an investigation any more or less a trial, or any more or less determinative of the *status* in the church of the incriminated member, than the investigation proffered by Andover?

Fallacy No. 3.—The letter-missive having asked the Council to advise Plymouth Church whether the investigation by the pastor's committee was proper and sufficient, and the Council having advised that it was, that *therefore* the Council had authority to advise upon matters the letter-missive did not submit, viz., (1) That Plymouth Church should reject the proffer of the Andover Church, (2) *and* institute and constitute an investigating commission, (3) *and* enact a sixty days' statute of limitations, (4) *and* hedge the commission with conditions and limitations calculated to shut out more truth than they can let in.

If, as all the church platforms affirm, the authority of a council lies within the four corners of its letter-missive, Jordan overflowed its banks in all the Council did towards further investigation. In advising that the investigation by the pastor's committee had been proper and sufficient, it fully answered the question submitted, and went to the verge of the letter-missive ; and in going further it stepped out into boundless space. The Professor affirms that it would be foolish to advise the church it had done enough, without telling it what more to do ; on the contrary, it was foolish and illogical to advise that it had done enough, and then say it should do more. He is fond of illustrating by supposititious cases assumed to be analogous, but in every case the supposed analogy fails. The validity of all analogical reasoning depends upon a true likeness of the instances. How absurd, the Professor says, when Jones, who has written to be advised whether he has done enough to compose a strife, comes to receive an answer to his enquiry, to refuse to tell him what more to do because he did not ask that in his letter. But Jones and his letter, taken together, are competent to ask any and every thing ; but Plymouth Church and its letter are competent to ask a council to answer only what is in the letter-missive —for the delegates were authorized by their constituent churches to answer nothing else. That the enquiry was not in Jones's letter was of no consequence to Jones and his friend when he came in person to enlarge his enquiry, but that the enquiry was not in the letter-missive was of the most absolute consequence ; and when Plymouth Church asked the Council a question not in the letter-missive, and which the constituent churches, therefore, had not authorized their delegates to answer, any answer to it was as void of validity as if made by a mob assembled at the door of the Council. So the Professor's supposed analogy is specious but not sound.

Fallacy No. 4.—That because a party negotiating for the call of a mutual council may, for a good cause, object to a church or delegate nominated by the other party, therefore it may, as matter of strict right, object, with or without cause, to any church or delegate so nominated, even after having assented to the nomination.

The specific case on which the Council was asked by the letter-missive to advise was, Whether Plymouth Church, after assenting to the nomination and notification of the Church of the Pilgrims and the Clinton-Avenue Church, did right to object to them with the known and declared effect of its defeating the effort to convene a mutual council? That question could have been answered in either of two ways, viz. : (1) By affirming the general proposition that each party had an unlimited *right* to object to any

church or delegate nominated by the other; or (2), by affirming the limited proposition that such objection could be made only for good cause—*i.e.*, the known partiality of such nominee. Affirming the general proposition, viz., the unlimited right to object in all cases, that would include every case, and of course the case of the two churches. Affirming the limited proposition, the propriety of the objection to the two churches would depend upon whether they were in fact partial. If the Council had decided the case on the narrower proposition, it would have been bound to enquire as to the fact of the alleged partiality, and to decide that question of fact; but it is not pretended that it made any such enquiry, or pronounced upon any such alleged fact. It was, therefore, not in a situation to advise that the objection to the two churches was proper unless it affirmed the large general proposition; and it did explicitly affirm it. Instead of supporting that general proposition against Dr. Storrs's formidable assault, the Professor goes off in a tangent about the right to compose the Council of impartial members, and to imagine extreme and exceptional cases of unfitness. Would the Professor, on his own principles, be a fit member of a council to which Plymouth Church or its pastor was a party? But I will not press the *argumentum ad hominem*, and I will content myself with saying that he has failed to support the unqualified right to object; that the Council did affirm that unqualified right; and that the Council had no other basis for its advice that Plymouth Church acted properly in its negotiation with Mrs. Moulton; for it will not be pretended that the Council affirmed, or meant to affirm, that Dr. Storrs and Dr. Budington were by reason of partiality disqualified to be members of the mutual council asked for by Mrs. Moulton.

FALLACY No. 5.—The question the Professor was discussing when he uncaged his allegorical tiger was, Whether the Council properly advised that a member who had *absented* himself, and was also charged with a *scandalous offence*, could, in the exercise of a wise discretion, be dropped for his *absence* without taking notice of his *scandalous offence?* Having stated that question, the Professor introduces his royal Bengal tiger, and supposes himself to say to his neighbor: We can, in the exercise of a wise discretion, determine what animals we will turn loose in our court-yards with low palings. The Professor then triumphantly asks, Because I spoke of animals and discretion, is it to be inferred that I meant I could properly turn a tiger loose in my court-yard? My dear Professor, the question whether, in the exercise of a wise discretion, a tiger could be turned loose in the court-yard, was the very question in debate; the "scandalous" member was the tiger. If you admit that he should not be turned loose, there is no dispute between us. It is the Council's declaration that he may be turned loose, without taking notice that he is a tiger, that we have taken the liberty to controvert. The Council's rule merely provided for a *selection* of the tigers to be loosed; the principle governing the selection being the danger of holding on to the tigers, and not the danger of turning them loose.

Finally, the Professor seems greatly agitated by his apprehensions that Andover will persist in calling a council, and that certain obnoxious persons named by him may be members of it. I am not authorized to say anything to increase or tranquillize his fears. With his knowledge of the extraordinary pains taken by Plymouth Church to exclude from the late Council all delegates who might be suspected of a bias in favor of that church or its pastor, why should not that happy experience reassure him? And as he believes that the action of that Council was inspired, and that its deliverances are stamped with infallibility, why should he not pray for and expect the like heavenly endowment of the next?

Whatever good or ill success has attended the nine-columned effort of the Professor to vindicate the deliverances of the late Council, he has certainly succeeded in making apparent to the public how distressingly anxious he will be to select as commissioners only such persons as will be eager to decide that the accused pastor is guilty.

JOSHUA M. VAN COTT.

BROOKLYN, April 3, 1876.

Notes.

J. B. LIPPINCOTT & CO. publish in several languages the 'Visitors' Guide to the Centennial Exhibition and Philadelphia.' It has very clear maps of the Exhibition grounds and buildings and of the southern half of the city, on which all the points and buildings of interest are designated. The condensed text seems to contain all the information necessary to the tourist for getting about without loss of time and without imposition. A sentence on p. 24—"In population *and commercial importance* it [Philadelphia] is the first city in the State of Pennsylvania *and the second in the United States*"—stands in need either of revision or of division.——F. W. Morris, Springfield, Mass., publishes in a tasteful volume an address on the 'Early History of Springfield,' delivered Oct. 16, 1875, on the two-hundredth anniversary of the burning of the town by the Indians, by Henry Morris. The burning is the principal theme of this address, which is written with great simplicity and clearness, and is excellent of its kind. A steel portrait of William Pynchon serves as a frontispiece, and autographic facsimiles of the early settlers are given in the appendix, which contains a number of original documents relating to Springfield.——A. S. Barnes & Co. announce a 'Report of the Advisory Council held at Plymouth Church, Brooklyn.'——Elihu Burritt will shortly issue, through Brown & Gross, Hartford, a 'Sanskrit Hand-book for the Fireside.'——Macmillan & Co. will publish 'Notes of an Indian Journey,' by Mrs. Grant Duff.——The London *Printing Times and Lithographer* is now bringing out a 'Bibliography of Printing: an Alphabetical List of Books in all Languages relating to the History and Art of Printing (including Typography, Lithography, Chalcography, etc.); with copious Biographical, Historical, and Critical Notes, and numerous Illustrations.'——The Clarendon Press has lately added to the series of Italian texts begun two years ago by Mr. Cotterill's 'Selections from Dante' the first two cantos of Tasso's 'Gerusalemme liberata,' edited by the same gentleman, who has prefixed a life of Tasso and a grammatical introduction, and accompanied the text by copious notes, historical as well as philological. Although so little of the text is given, it can hardly fail to inspire students with a desire to read the whole work, an excellent, inexpensive edition of which for beginners is that edited by Domenico Carbone and published by Barberà at Florence in 1870.—— The 'Théâtre Complet' of M. Emile Augier will shortly be published by Lévy. It will fill six volumes.——The Stuttgart publisher, Auerbach, has honorably sent a compensation to "Edward Strahan," of this city, for using his novel, 'The New Hyperion,' in a German edition just issued.—— We learn from *Nature* that ten unpublished letters of Gilbert White, addressed to Robert Marsham, a Norfolk gentleman, have recently come to light, and are to appear in the Transactions of the Norfolk and Norwich Naturalists' Society. It is a pity they were not in time to be included in the new edition of White's Selborne.——For the purpose of preparing a series of articles on commercial and industrial co-operation in the United States and Great Britain, Mr. Charles Barnard has been sent abroad by the publishers of *Scribner's Monthly*.

—We have before us a copy of the *California Star*, Vol. II., No. 13, for April 1, 1848—"a weekly journal, devoted to the liberties and interests of the people of California, and published in San Francisco." The new territory had just been annexed by treaty to the Union, and the American settlers were being rapidly reinforced by fresh arrivals from "the States"; and this particular issue of the *Star* was prepared for the better information of "our Eastern friends, or residents of any part of the globe." The agricultural resources of the Territory are strongly insisted on (seven men breakfasted on a garden radish "and found it well flavored") and the future of San Francisco as a commercial port anticipated without exaggeration. Judicious prophecy also occurs in this paragraph:

"The gigantic project of Mr. Wilkes, of a railroad from the States to these shores, is rapidly gaining ground and favor in the United States—a project which will ultimately be carried into execution, and needs no comments to show its influence over the destinies of the country. Besides, it appears that the American Government has resolved upon securing the right of establishing a ship-canal near the neck of land which divides the two Americas. If we are to judge from the highly interesting letter of Hon. G. M. Dallas, the Isthmus of Tehuantepec is already selected, and there is every reason to believe that this grand and beneficent project will be realized."

Pending the construction of the railroad, emigrants are earnestly reminded of "the importance of keeping the well-defined '*old road*' to California," and of avoiding short cuts, if they value their lives and property. "The horrible sufferings of those who were overtaken by the winter snows on the California mountains in 1846 are enough to appall the stoutest heart." The white population of San Francisco twenty-eight years ago consisted of adults —males, 575; females, 177; children, "of ages proper to attend school," 60. "Scarcely eight months since, the total number of whites was 375." This was still far behind the "Salt Lake Settlement," from which the advices were to December 24. "Six hundred families are now located in the great valley, with a supply of provisions calculated to maintain them until the season of harvest." The editor has "received information from a reliable source that a large immigration from China may be expected here. We have already two or three of the 'Celestials' among us, who have found ready employment. The mechanics, cooks, and other working-classes of

China would be exceedingly useful here, and would undoubtedly find it to their advantage to emigrate. They would be especially invaluable for the introduction and manufacture of silk in this country." The disadvantages of the Heathen Chinee had not then been thought of.

—While we are on the subject of California, and in contrast with the day of small things just reviewed, we may notice the report of the health officer of the city of Oakland for the calendar year 1875, which has just come to hand. In June of that year Oakland had an estimated population of 25,000 inhabitants—an increase of 20 per cent. over the preceding year. Its health department was organized in 1868, but records were not begun till June, 1870. Judging from the report, the department is now well manned by intelligent officials. The health-officer, Dr. George E. Sherman, has illustrated his vital statistics by the graphic method devised by Mr. Wines and already effectively used by Gen. Walker in his 'Statistical Atlas of the United States.' In this particular the Oakland report is in advance of any similar publication with which we are acquainted. Noticeable points in it are these: that the city has an excess of 2,640 males; that a steady decrease in the birth-rate is apparent of about two in every thousand; that "while more children are born of foreign parentage, the aggregate number of children with parents born in the United States who survive the first year is greater." In the graphic chart of mortality, still-births are indicated. The percentage of mortality among females seems to be greater than among males. On the whole, the death-rate of Oakland is encouragingly low, and with so enlightened a board of health it ought not to get higher.

—In the number of *L'Art* for January 2 (New York: J. W. Bouton) are given two fine woodcuts and an etching as large as the original figure, from parts of Meissonier's "1807." The etching is a fine study by Monzies from the equestrian portrait of Maréchal Duroc, represented by the painter at the Emperor's right hand; and the cuts, almost equally good, are large representations of the rider at the head of the column and the rider flourishing his clarion. The accompanying article by M. Ballu differs from some of the French criticisms which came out on the news that the picture was going to leave the country, in being frankly encomiastic. The purchaser even comes in for a share of the writer's eulogy, and his best friends cannot complain of a want of appreciation in the following little rhapsody: "'1807,' its painter's most important work in size, has been bought for 300,000 francs by Mr. Alexander T. Stewart. This royal art-lover, whom the magnificence of his New York establishments has caused to be named the merchant-prince, possesses one of the largest picture-galleries in the world. It is fine to play thus the part of the Medici in the nineteenth century; and, to sum up in the fashion of an apotheosis, I will say that I seem to see French art covered with gold by American industry." The *Portfolio* (same publisher) commenced in the February number Mr. Hamerton's important series of articles on Turner, and gives another instalment for March. We observe a rather ominous burnishing of weapons preparatory to a bout with Mr. Ruskin. Such an admission as that in the first chapter, that Turner never equalled hundreds of his predecessors in the use of oil-color and the handicraft of their common art, would have seemed treasonable to the "Oxford Graduate," and by him would never have been even introduced for consideration without some contradiction or qualification to deprive it of its force. Mr. Hamerton makes a good point in congratulating Turner in not having been born in a higher class of society—the respectability of 1775 having among its traits a contempt for the practice of art "as deadly to genius as an unbreathable gas is to the animal organism." The illustrations of the *Portfolio* have been quite up to the mark the present year, but we are not entirely reconciled to the cessation of Goupil's fine photogravures, giving the identity of various fine paintings in all but the color. There are three etchings for March, two of them architectural, in which the robust sureness of M. Queyroy's hand and the tentative delicacy of Mr. George's are the exponents of two art-schools; and the third, better than either, executed by Rajon from a fine portrait, self-painted, of Gerard Dow, where that master is represented as a Dutch exquisite in velvet, with a pie-shaped cap adhering by special affinity to the right ear, and the hair in curls.

—As a substitute, perhaps, for the too long discontinued literary and dramatic annual of M. Vapereau, or perhaps as a mate to the 'Année Politique' of M. André Daniel, now in its second year, there has just been published 'Les Annales du Théâtre et de la Musique' (Paris: Charpentier & Cie., pp. xii.-333), edited by MM. Edouard Noel and Edmond Stoullig. To match M. Daniel's book, the best title for this one would obviously have been 'L'Année théâtrale' had it not been pre-empted by the volume of almost worthless newspaper gossip of M. Georges Duval. The value of the volume before us is warranted by the writer of the preface, M. Francisque Sarcey, whose name would never be lent to anything unworthy of careful consideration. From his few words we learn that this is the first of a series to be annually continued. Although inferior in typographical beauty and pictorial embellishment to the dainty and delicate little 'Almanach des Spectacles' which we reviewed upon its appearance last year, it is more ambitious in scope, as it is not content to give merely the facts and figures, the names and statistics, of the French theatrical year, but subjoins criticisms as well. It even notes the novelties of the foreign stage—after a fashion. The sole entrance for these United States is: "Philadelphie—'Ostrolenka,' opéra de Henri Bonewitz (janvier)." It also surpasses the 'Almanach' in the attention it pays to music. Its bibliographical chapter is not as comprehensive as could be wished—no mention, for instance, is made of 'Foyers et Coulisses,' a series of little histories of each of the Parisian theatres now issuing by Tresse. In the summary or review of the year a distinct trouble of the French stage of to-day is well defined—that it is "sterile without losing its fecundity"; and, indeed, the only play of any poetic pretensions which achieved success during the year was the "Fille de Roland." Yet the gross receipts of the twenty-five metropolitan theatres exceeded twenty-five millions of francs, while the general curiosity to see the new opera-house is said to have paid its manager a profit of over a million, although as yet not a single new opera or ballet has been heard in the building. The grand staircase and M. Baudry's pictures have rendered unnecessary any demand upon the muse of either M. Gounod or M. Thomas. Fortunately for the fate of French music, half a score of novelties, from which much may be expected, have been accepted by M. Vizentini, the director of the new Théâtre Lyrique, shortly to be installed in the Théâtre de la Gaieté.

—In Mr. Frederick Martin's 'Statesman's Year-Book' for 1876 (Macmillan & Co.), the part devoted to the United States shows the usual marks of judicious revision and substitution. We observe, for example, statistics, heretofore unpublished in it, concerning churches and schools, commerce and railways, the national debt, etc., etc. Rather curiously, the compiler falls into an important misstatement about school attendance in the United States. Thus he correctly gives, from the last census, the total number of school children as "6,596,466, being upwards of one-sixth of the population." But he adds that "out of this total 6,361,422 were *children of natives of the United States*, and only 235,044 *children of foreigners*, showing an extreme disproportion between school attendance and actual numbers of the existing native and foreign-born population." There is a double error here. The 6,361,422 were *natives* (not "children of natives") of the United States; the 235,044 were *foreign-born* (not "children of foreigners"). The total number of foreign-born children of school age (5 to 17 inclusive) was 546,317, so that the school attendance was 43 per cent. The total number of native children of corresponding age was 11,509,126, so that the school attendance for them was 57 per cent. This disparity is neither very great nor more than was to be expected. On the other hand, probably two millions of our school children were Americans of the first generation, if we include in that category all having a foreign-born father or mother. Mr. Martin's 'Manual' is so valuable and so generally trustworthy that a correction like this becomes of some consequence to those who resort to it.

—The harvest of ethnological publications for the past year has been unusually rich in works of permanent value whose contents bear in an important manner on the general progress of anthropological study. We desire to call attention to two works just issued. The venerable Middendorf, in the 'Transactions' of the Imperial Academy of Sciences at St. Petersburg, has opened his portfolios, closed thirty years ago, and given to students sixteen lithographic plates, representing line for line, without attempt at artistic remodelling, his original sketches from life of the people of Siberia. With this, under the caption of 'Die Eingeborenen Sibiriens,' appear 220 quarto pages, plentifully illustrated by woodcuts and containing his contribution to our knowledge of these singular nomads as a part of his yet unfinished 'Sibirische Reise.' That these sketches are faithful and characteristic is evident at a glance, and they are by no means lacking in expression. One plate is from photographs and represents Samoyeds of the Lower Yenisei. The strange forms of the head, of which these drawings offer a succession of examples, seem more misshapen and Caliban-like than those of any other people, not even excepting Africans. A singular want of uniformity in these misformations is very noticeable, the individual heads varying from cylindro-conic to truncate-pyramidal, but agreeing in receding forehead and deep, coarse, and massive rather than prognathous jaws. There is not that marked resemblance to Eskimo which some writers have fancied they could detect, nor yet any very decided Mongolian physiognomy. No summary appears in the paper of views in relation to the affinities of the various tribes. Indeed, it does not seem evident that

the ethnic relations of the people were deeply studied or were specially interesting to the traveller. It is rather a contribution of solid but not much generalized facts that he presents to us. He remarks that the affinities of the Samoyeds are with the Finns on the one hand and the Mongols on the other, and that this opinion, expressed by him thirty years ago, has been confirmed by philological investigations. The work relates chiefly to the Ostiaks, Yuraks, Samoyeds, Tunguses, and Yakuts; the woodcuts mainly illustrate implements, dwellings, or articles of dress. For the ethnology of the eastern branches of the Ural-Altaic family it is indispensable and almost unique.

—Another and nearly as important work is that of Dr. Georg Schweinfurth ('Artes Africanæ.' Leipzig: F. A. Brockhaus; London: Sampson Low & Co. 1875), which treats of the productions of the industrial arts of the tribes of Central Africa. It relates chiefly to the Dinka, Dyur, Bongo, Mittu, Niam-niam, Monbuttu, Sehre, and Golo tribes, of which it illustrates implements, weapons, dress, ornaments, utensils, and dwellings more or less fully. The writer divides Africa in regard to culture into three districts, corresponding to the movements of trade. Across the northern half of the continent, which maintains a more or less direct commercial intercourse with Europe, we have the district of firearms. Further in the interior is a region supplied by intertribal traffic with European cotton stuffs, with which the inhabitants are chiefly clothed. Lastly, in the very heart of the continent spreads the territory almost free from any contact with Europeans, and where the natives are thrown upon their own scanty resources for clothing and utensils. Throughout Africa a change is progressing which is the reverse of that which would ordinarily be supposed to follow contact with civilization. Intercourse with the outer world, instead of promoting and stimulating, has everywhere had only a destructive influence on native art. The greater the progress on the path of external culture made by any African tribe in modern times, the greater has become its dependence for all objects of refined culture on European industry, which, incessantly intruding by the cheapness of its manufactured articles and the high price it offers for indigenous raw material, everywhere excludes native competition and stifles the inventive impulse. This phenomenon, according to the author, is most marked in the negro states of the central Soudan, where, since their adoption of Islamism, a gradual retrogression of native culture has resulted, and the last traces of native industry threaten shortly to disappear. Hence the fact that in the very heart of Africa, among the rudest, partly cannibal, most secluded tribes, where cotton stuffs and even glass beads are almost unknown, the indigenous mechanical instinct, the delight in the production of artistic work applied to the embellishment and refinement of daily life, the satisfaction in self-acquired property, are best preserved. The Kaffirs and Hottentots, not many decades ago, produced a variety of the neatest works of art, and now offer an almost barren field in this branch of ethnographic research, while their utensils and implements, like archæological objects, must be sought in the incomplete museums of Europe. To this fact the great value and interest of the work under consideration are due, and it is to be hoped that others as competent may follow Dr. Schweinfurth's example. Among the most interesting illustrations are the forms of sleeping-houses and granaries, ingeniously contrived to protect from the attacks of wild animals and termites; also the incision of the lips for labrets and other ornaments, a custom which appears sporadically in Behring Strait, the Sitkan Archipelago, Mexico, Brazil, Borneo, and Africa. The work is neatly published, in parallel columns of German and English, making it available for any American student; and the plates are of excellent execution.

LYTE'S HISTORY OF ETON COLLEGE.*

IT is true that public education came with Protestantism. But Protestantism itself did not come suddenly and abruptly, though a critical point in its ascendancy and the fall of Catholicism is marked by the appearance of Luther. Ever since the thirteenth century the foundation of colleges had been increasing, while that of monasteries had been decreasing. Walter of Merton, who founded Merton College in the end of the thirteenth century, had marked a momentous antagonism, destined to be continually more developed, by excluding monks from his society. In Oxford and Cambridge the monastery school prevailed over the monastery itself, and expanded into a university. At length, in the reign of Henry VII., when Fox, Bishop of Winchester, Henry's great ecclesiastical councillor, was about to found a monastery, his friend Hugh Oldham, Bishop of Exeter, advised him to found a college instead, warning him in words which, vivid as the handwriting on the wall of mediævalism then was, denote remarkable prescience on the part of a bishop, that if he founded a house of "bussing (praying) monks," his monks would be turned out of doors before the building was finished.

William of Wykeham, "the sole and munificent founder of the two St. Mary Winton Colleges," to use the sonorous title which is appended to his name in University exercises, was a zealous Catholic, specially addicted to the worship of the Virgin, and an opponent of the Wycliffites; yet his figure as an artist and statesman-bishop belongs to the Renaissance, and his foundation does so still more decidedly. The Oxford branch of it might in those days be emphatically called "New" College. As in its architecture (the founder's own creation) it marks the close of the scale of beauty through which mediæval art passed, so in its statutes it marks the commencement of classical education. It may be said also to herald the dissolution of the monasteries, for its endowments were provided in part by the confiscation of alien priories. Wykeham's foundation was double: it consisted of a college at Winchester with a school attached to it, and a college at Oxford which received the boys trained in the school at Winchester and carried them through the university part of their education.

Wykeham's two colleges proved a great success, and were imitated by Henry VI. in his foundation of Eton and King's Colleges, Cambridge, as they were afterwards by Wolsey in his foundation of Ipswich and Christchurch; though in the case of Wolsey Henry VIII. broke in, and of the Cardinal's magnificent scheme one portion only, the Oxford College, was carried into effect, and even this on a reduced scale, while Ipswich perished with Wolsey's greatness. Eton may be regarded as a direct offset of Winchester, for it was under the influence of a group of Wykehamists that Henry VI. conceived and executed his noble plan. The king seems in his youth to have shown not only a good and religious disposition but intellectual sympathies, though there must always have been that weakness in his character and understanding which made him a puppet in the hands of his she-wolf of a wife. The details of the foundation, including the negotiations with Rome for ecclesiastical privileges, are fully given by Mr. Lyte, and may be interesting to those who are specially connected with Eton. Perhaps the thing which most strikes the general reader is the commercial value attached to relics and indulgences in an age when religious faith was almost dead and Alexander Borgia became Vicar of Christ amidst general approbation. Before it was completed, the foundation was overtaken by the civil war of the Roses, and, as the work of the Lancastrian king, narrowly escaped destruction at the hands of the triumphant Yorkists. The original design for the buildings was shorn of its sumptuous proportions, and an architectural deformity in the arch of the east window of the chapel remains a monument of the political tempest which had nearly levelled the whole with the ground. The cruel and unscrupulous politicians of that day, however, in England as well as in Italy, were often patrons of art and letters; such was Tiptoft, Earl of Worcester, justly nicknamed the Butcher, and Edward IV. himself was a man of the same character. Nor were the authorities of the college wanting in practical wisdom. With no false delicacy, they threw a cloak over their Lancastrian origin, and removed the effigy of their ill-starred founder from their seal.

The foundation at Eton consisted of a college of priests (a solemn college of ten sad priests, as it is called in one of the documents), a school, and an almshouse. In this we see clearly the filiation of the new educational institution with the monastery; only that the school, which, in the case of the monastery was quite subordinate, has become the important part of the institution, while the strictly monastic element is on the point of disappearance, the fellows of the college being secular priests. The eleemosynary element also has dwindled to small proportions. Thus the Darwinian finds his law of heredity and adaptation preserved; and if he chooses to designate the intellectual influences under which the educational organ of the monastery was developed, while its religious, ascetic, and eleemosynary organs lost their importance, as mechanical, his case will be complete.

Eton College passed like other colleges through the religious vicissitudes of the sixteenth century, the triumph of the anti-ecclesiastical element being marked by the appointment to the provostship of two eminent laymen, Sir Thomas Smith and Sir Henry Savile. During the provostship of Savile the college was visited by Elizabeth and James I., who were received with the usual fireworks of adulatory rhetoric in turgid Latin. Savile tried to give the college, as distinguished from the school, a real importance as a place of learning. He set up a press at Eton which brought out Greek books, and among them the splendid edition of Chrysostom with which his name will be always associated. Savile, in fact, was evidently a man of the Baconian type, and working for the fulfilment of the ideal of which the

* 'A History of Eton College: 1440–1875. By H. C. Maxwell Lyte, M.A.' London and New York: Macmillan & Co.

most elaborate exposition is the *Nova Atlantis*. Eton, however, was too small for a *Nova Atlantis*, and the position which Savile had given it in the European world of letters lasted no longer than his provostship. After Savile's death, Bacon himself was an unsuccessful candidate for the place, protesting (most truly) that he was able to "doe as much good to the college as another, be it square capp or round." Had he only been Provost of Eton or head of any place of learning and science, instead of being a man of the world without real worldly wisdom, what might he not have done, what might he not have escaped!

In the middle of the sixteenth century the system of education is disclosed to us in all its details by a *consuetudinarium* ascribed to Malim, then head-master. The curriculum is almost entirely Latin; Greek, which had flourished as a study in the spring-tide of the Renaissance, having now temporarily declined. The curriculum is:

In the first (lowest) form, Cato and Vives.

In the second, Terence, Lucian's 'Dialogues' (in Latin), and Æsop's 'Fables' (in Latin).

In the third, Terence, Æsop's 'Fables' (in Latin), and selections by Sturmius from Cicero's 'Epistles.'

In the fourth, Terence, Ovid's 'Tristia,' and the epigrams of Martial, Catullus, and Sir Thomas More.

In the fifth, Ovid's 'Metamorphoses,' Horace, Cicero's 'Epistles,' Valerius Maximus, Lucius Florus, Justin, and 'Sysembrotus.'

In the sixth and seventh, Cæsar's 'Commentaries,' Cicero 'De Officiis and 'De Amicitia,' Virgil, Lucan, and the Greek Grammar.

Latin versification, which afterwards assumed an almost portentous importance at Eton, was at this time not so much a part of the curriculum as a holiday exercise. There seem to have been only two masters, the *Magister Informator* and the *Ostiarius*, but the defect was partly supplied by the monitorial system, of which so much use was made at a later period, for the purpose of discipline, by Arnold. The discipline was pretty severe. The Eton scholars were awakened at five by one of the præpostors, who thundered "*Surgite*." While dressing they chanted prayers. Each boy made his own bed, and among them they swept the room. They then went down two-and-two to wash at the pump, which must have been pleasant in winter. Thence they went to the school-room, where the usher read prayers at six, after which hands and faces were examined by the *Præpostor Immundanorum*, and the unwashed were reported to the head-master, who came in at seven. There was a pause at nine, and, we will hope, breakfast, though Malim does not mention it. At ten, one of the præpostors shouting *Ad preces consurgite* recalled the boys to school, where, standing in order on either side of the room, they had to recite further prayers. At eleven came dinner, then school from twelve till three. The afternoon playtime ended at four, and was followed by another hour of lessons. At five the boys again left the school in procession, as Mr. Lyte surmises, for supper. From six to eight they went to work again, not under the master and usher, but under the monitors. At seven there was a slight break for a slice of bread and a draught of beer. At eight the boys went to bed chanting prayers. The holidays were short, and not unvexed by Latin composition. A good deal of the ecclesiastical formalism and "rotatory calabash" praying of the Middle Ages had also been kept up in ecclesiastical places of education, though the mediæval faith was dead. It must have been one of the plagues of a schoolboy's existence, and have effectually implanted in the youthful breast a distaste for religion. Punishments and sports were alike barbarous. The pleasure of tormenting a cock or some other bird was the schoolboy's privilege on Shrove Tuesday.

In the strong, the system no doubt produced fortitude and industry, while many a weak child, cut off from his home and subjected to rough treatment, physical hardship, and a round of dreary labor, must have led a life of misery, if he did not entirely succumb. Sweet indeed to these boys must have been the sound of *Dulce domum pergere*.

The modern character of the school arises from the disproportionate development of an element which in the original design was quite subordinate, if it could be called a part of the original design at all. This was the admission of pupils of the wealthier class, besides the boys on the eleemosynary foundation, as *commensales* or *oppidans*, the representatives of the young noblemen and gentlemen received for education by monasteries. The term *oppidans* (*oppidani*), which is still applied to Etonians not on the foundation (those on the foundation being called Collegers), denotes, however, that these pupils boarded in the town. The growth of this special element was due, no doubt, in part to the vicinity of the court at Windsor and to the smiles of royalty. Eton thus became the great aristocratic school. Winchester and Westminster have the historic character of the English "public school" as well as Eton, but Eton alone has the aristocratic character. It is true that the aristocracy of Eton has been considerably tempered by the parvenu element since commercial wealth has learned to come there for a patent of gentility.

The absurd educational conservatism of Eton, which, till a few years ago, confined a school in the nineteenth century to the curriculum of the sixteenth, besides keeping up a number of senseless and even barbarous rules and customs, may be traced to three causes: the endowments, the paralyzing pressure of the College on the School proper, and the connection with King's College. Endowments place education beyond the sway of mere popular caprice or parental humor; but it cannot be denied that they frequently have a benumbing influence, and that without some stimulating antidote in the shape of control and supervision, they are apt to lend color to the hard saying of Mr. Lowe, that the best thing to do with all the university endowments would be to throw them into the sea. The College had totally failed as a seat of learning—learning naturally tending, not to an isolated college at Eton, but to the great aggregation of colleges in the universities. It had degenerated into a mere almshouse for superannuated masters of the School. But the provost and fellows of the College were the governing body of the whole institution, which they paralyzed by their senile aversion to change. The connection with King's College was perhaps even more fatal to improvement. The fellowships of King's were all confined to boys on the foundation at Eton, who went off, not by examination or merit, but by seniority; and the masterships of Eton, in turn, by a selfish custom for which no justification but habit could be found, were confined to the fellows of King's. Thus Eton training revolved in an unvarying circle of self-complacent localism. To make the matter worse, King's College, in the days of the founder, like New College at Oxford, had obtained an exemption from the university examinations for degrees, the intention of the founder being, of course, to subject his students to a stricter system of examination within his own walls. Thus the single college from which the school could receive instructors was itself a paragon of torpor and isolation. No wonder if Eton education—which was the education of a large section of the governing class of England—degenerated into organized idleness, under pretence of exclusive devotion to classical culture. In the case of clever boys rewards and praise were lavished, and perhaps genius gained in freedom of development part of that which mediocrity lost by the want of a better system. The brilliancy of Canning was a genuine and characteristic product of Eton. But the consequences, on the whole, were disastrous to English society and government.

Of course, the school-life at Eton being very pleasant, and the place itself being beautiful and historic, Eton boys, as they always delighted to call themselves, loved their old school. Nor did the constant study of Homer, which was the great text-book, fail to impart something of a heroic tinge to aristocratic character. Mr. Arnold has somewhere given us an anecdote of an aristocratic statesman in the decline of life and health summoned to undertake a laborious embassy, and fortifying his sense of public duty by a quotation from Homer as a Puritan would by a quotation from the Bible. Perhaps the most graceful expression at once of attachment to Eton, and of the better side of its classical culture, is the epitaph composed for himself by the great Governor-General of India, Lord Wellesley, who, by his own desire, was buried at Eton:

> "Fortunæ rerumque vagis exercitus undis,
> In gremium redeo serus, Etona, tuum.
> Magna sequi et summæ mirari culmina famæ,
> Et purum antiquæ lucis adire jubar,
> Auspice te didici puer atque in limine vitæ
> Ingenuas vere laudis amare vias.
> Si qua meum vitæ decursu gloria nomen
> Auxerit, aut si quis nobilitarit honos,
> Muneris, Alma, tui est. Altrix da terra sepulchrum,
> Supremam lacrymam da memoremque mei."

There is nothing in these lines which, so far as our scholarship can discern, might not have been written by a Roman poet. Nor is there anything in the sentiments they embody which might not have been inscribed on the tomb of a cultivated and generous heathen.

The Public School Commission and the opinion of a scientific age have expanded and liberalized the Eton system of education. Dr. Hornby, the present head-master, among other improvements, has recently introduced music, a softening and refining element of more value, as well as of more universal applicability, than Latin versification. The only special difficulty with which Eton educators have now to contend is the laziness of pupils brought up in wealthy and luxurious homes, and conscious that they will never have to work for their bread.

SCHÉRER'S LITERARY STUDIES.*

WE have often wondered why M. Edmond Schérer, a critic whose privilege it sometimes is, by the acuteness of his insight or the felicity of his expression, to remind his readers of Saint-Beuve, has never undertaken a work of larger proportions than the short journalistic articles in which he has hitherto been content to record his opinions. Such an enterprise seems at present more remote than ever, for M. Schérer has for some time past been devoting himself with increasing zeal to practical politics, and has lately been elected one of the seventy-five life members (on the Republican side) of the new French Senate. Moreover, the present volume perhaps explains in a measure why the author has remained a desultory critic. Clever as he is, brilliant also, abundant in knowledge and excellent in style, he stops short at a certain point. He tends to fall within the limit that the reader has set for him. He often disappoints, he lacks imagination, and he is subject to odd lapses and perversities of taste. He is one of the very few French writers who give the reader a sense of any serious first-hand acquaintance with English literature ; and yet we remember his speaking some time since of the remarkable faculty of the English people for agreeing at a given moment to get excited or infatuated over a nothing or a trifle, as the necessary explanation of the popularity of Thackeray, "a cold, *ennuyeux* writer." A literary critic who does not enjoy Thackeray has certainly a limp in his gait. This impediment in his own carriage however, M. Schérer manages on the whole very skilfully to conceal, and some of the best pages in the present volume are devoted to English authors. They contain, among other things, one of the best criticisms of Taine's 'English Literature' that we remember to have seen—that extraordinary work in which a superb energy has vainly done its best to conceal a fatal want of familiarity with the subject. M. Schérer resents this want of familiarity almost as roundly as a native Englishman, and has in particular some excellent remarks about the author's perverse magnification of Byron. There are indeed few things more singular than the way in which M. Taine steps over the heads of the whole literary group ushered in by the present century—Wordsworth, Shelley, Keats, Scott—and fastens himself upon Byron for the reason that he is more an "Englishman" than the others—more a Viking, a Berserker, a product of north-winds and sea-fog ! M. Schérer well observes that, with regard to Byron, M. Taine stands just where French criticism stood thirty years ago. The author has a long, entertaining, and well-informed article upon Milton, whom he greatly admires, though perhaps the average English reader will wince at his summing-up of his judgment of 'Paradise Lost' :

"'Paradise Lost' is a false, grotesque, tiresome poem ; not one reader in a hundred can go, without smiling, through the ninth and tenth books, or without yawning through the eleventh and twelfth. It does not hold together, it is a pyramid balancing on its point, the most frightful of problems resolved by the most puerile of means. And yet, nevertheless, 'Paradise Lost' is immortal. It lives in virtue of some episodes which will remain for ever famous. In opposition to Dante, whom we must read altogether if we wish really to possess his beauties, we must read Milton only in fragments. But these fragments are part of the poetic patrimony of the human race."

In English we express the foregoing sentiments less trenchantly ; every one is waiting for some one else to begin. But even among ourselves it has been for some time tacitly admitted that with regard to 'Paradise Lost' some of the cargo must be thrown overboard to save the ship. In an article on Bossuet and some of his recent editors, M. Schérer has some equally downright remarks upon sermons in general. "I conclude as I began : the sermon is a false style, and it is false in particular because it has grown old. It has so little human and general truth that it is difficult to interest one's self in it even retrospectively. In vain we consent to place ourselves at the desired point of view, make allowance for time and change, take tradition into account. We must be very fond of eloquence to enjoy it when it is in the condition of pure form—that is to say, of empty form, of rhetoric." On Bossuet in general M. Schérer makes some remarks which have a rather wholesome freshness as against the conventional, superstitious deference to their great classics which has so long prevailed among the French.

"The fact is that Bossuet has no *stock* (*pas de fonds*), or, what amounts to the same thing, that his stock doesn't belong to him. He is neither a *savant*, a thinker, nor a moralist. He never has what we call views, still less audacities. He lacks invention, observation, intelligence. He has a great imagination, a consummate knowledge of the oratorical style, an abundant, magnificent movement of phrase, but he uses these things only to paraphrase the commonplaces of the ecclesiastical dogma and the ecclesiastical morality. His exposition, in spite of its amplitude of form, remains essentially scholastic."

The longest of M. Schérer's papers, and the one we have found most interesting, is upon Goethe ; its interest is the greater from the fact that it appeared after the Franco-Prussian war. Better than anything else, however, it illustrates what we have called the author's limitations and in particular his want of imagination. He remarks upon the fact that since the war the French have begun to pay a good deal of attention to German literature, and he thinks it an excellent sign.

"The Germans," to quote, "have revived against us the right of conquest ; they have attacked us with envious hatred and cowardly insult ; they have placed between us and themselves such offences as cannot be forgiven. But if it is just to detest Germany, it would be puerile on that account to seek to ignore her. It is at an end, we know ; the charm that formerly drew us towards her is for ever broken ; we shall no longer expect from her a single one of the ideas that elevate, of the sentiments that ennoble. So be it, we shall be but better placed to judge her. There had mingled itself with our inclination for German science and literature an enthusiasm which excluded discernment ; in future it will be easier to see things in their true proportions. . . . If we are able to preserve ourselves from the other extreme—deliberate and intentional disparagement—we shall have obtained the noblest of enjoyments : that of judging impartially those who themselves defy all justice."

If M. Schérer has made an effort to be impartial, it is evident that it has cost him something. It may be said, too, that he decidedly exaggerates the "charm" which the French public found, before the war, in German literature. If he speaks of a small coterie of highly cultivated men, his observations have a certain justice ; but French readers in general have certainly never given themselves the least trouble about the literature of the land of Goethe. If they find good reason to hate the Germans now, it is not that they ever loved them. The French have never been duped by the Germans or any one else ; for to be duped implies attention and acquaintance. They have never been duped by any people but themselves. Upon Goethe M. Schérer says a great many discriminating and excellent things, and his article is a very vivid piece of portraiture. But he is guilty of a strange dulness of vision when he declares that he can see nothing but dreariness in 'Wilhelm Meister,' and, indeed, in all the author's literary works except the lyrics and 'Faust.' "Goethe remains none the less," he says in conclusion, "one of the greatest among the sons of men. 'After all,'" he said to one of his friends, "'there are here and there some honest people who will be enlightened by my works, and whoever reads them and takes the trouble to understand me will recognize that he has gained by it a certain inward liberty.' I would write these words on the pedestal of Goethe's statue ; one can give him no juster praise, and, indeed, one can make of no man a higher or more enviable eulogy." We alluded just now to Sainte-Beuve, and it is in place to add that we have often wished that he might have witnessed and survived the late war, if for no other purpose than to show us how he would have spoken of the Germans. The situation would have been a most interesting test of that subtilized and almost etherealized faculty of impartiality which had developed in him in his later years. It would have given play to all his *finesse*—to that strange mixture of fatal compliments and flattering blame. Unfortunately, Sainte-Beuve's acquaintance with German literature was very limited ; one cannot know absolutely everything. He had written about Goethe and two or three other German authors, but he had evaded with characteristic skill any indication of whether he read them in translations or in the original.

The History of Landholding in England. By Joseph Fisher, F.R.H.S. (London : Longmans. 1876. 8vo, pp. 95.)—If Mr. Fisher had confined himself to the period of modern history, he would have produced a useful little book ; for in this period he is quite at home, and has collected a good store of valuable facts. For the early periods he is full of inaccuracies, unpardonable in one who undertakes to write upon this subject. He gives us (p. 18) three classes of the Anglo-Saxons (the upper, middle, and lower classes)—"Earls, Thanes, and Ceorls." He says on the same page that "the Germanic *mark* system has no counterpart in the land system introduced into England by the Anglo-Saxons" : this in the face of Nasse, Stubbs, and even Freeman and Kemble ! Folc-land and Boc-land are compared (p. 19) to freehold and copyhold respectively. On p. 28 we have the old exploded number of 60,215 knights' fees for all England. The name *villein* is said (p. 46) to have come in after the Norman Conquest ; but *villanus* is frequently found, as equivalent to *ceorl*, before this epoch. The "King-maker" is called (p. 50) *Guy* of Warwick. This inaccuracy is all the greater pity because Mr. Fisher has really a certain power of insight in his subject which only needs better knowledge to lead to valuable results. The comparison, for instance, of freehold and copyhold to folc-land and boc-

* 'Etudes Critiques de Littérature. Par Edmond Schérer.' Sixième Série. Paris : Michel Lévy ; New York : F. W. Christern. 1876.

land has, after all, an idea at the bottom of it, and the distinction pointed out (p. 44) in the bearing of the statutes *De donis conditionalibus* and *Quia emptores*, in their relation to feudal tenants and tenants in socage (*liberi homines*, he is fond of calling them), is worth working out with more fulness than he has done. As we have before remarked, the later portions are much better, especially the Tudor period; but even here, although we find much that is very good, we miss any clear statement of the causes which led to that most vital of all social revolutions which severed the English peasantry from the soil which had been their own, and resulted in the state of things which has just come to light in the New Domesday Book.

Memoirs of Eliphalet Nott, D.D., LL.D., for sixty-two years President of Union College. By C. Van Santvoord, D.D., with contribution and revision by Professor Tayler Lewis, of Union College. (New York: Sheldon & Co. 12mo, pp. 390.)—The name of no American college president is more widely known than that of Dr. Nott, and about none has there been more controversy. In spite of all criticism and ridicule, unmoved by the name of "Botany Bay" bestowed upon his college, he held to the methods of discipline which he adopted at the start, and had the satisfaction of living down much of the opposition before he died, conquering it by sheer success. However his policy may have worked in individual cases—and his most ardent admirers admit that no one but himself could have carried it out with equal success—he seems, at all events, entitled to the credit of having been the leader in a great and salutary movement. His administration of Union College was the first step away from the stereotyped routine of these institutions—a movement which has since gone so far and in so healthy a direction. The credit is claimed for him, for instance (p. 157), of having been the first to introduce a "scientific" course by the side of the classical. Still more important was his departure from the stern and rigid method of discipline which everywhere prevailed before his time. His policy was that of confidence, and reliance upon "the elements of a true manhood" which he recognized and relied upon in every young man. His treatment of "secret societies"—one of the great problems of college discipline at the present day—is worth considering. "Each society, as recognized, was required to have a regular or honorary member of the society in the existing faculty, and also a committee appointed by its president, whose duty it should be to consult and co-operate with the president of the college in relation to any of its members who might be becoming remiss in study or irregular in conduct" (p. 32).

The Black Hills. By Richard Irving Dodge, Lt.-Col. U.S.A. Illustrated. (New York: James Miller. 1876.)—Last summer the Interior Department sent a party into the Black Hills, under Mr. W. P. Jenney, geologist, to make a topographical and geological survey of the country, and to discover its real value in agricultural and mineral wealth, about which there had been so many conflicting reports. This party remained in and about the Hills for more than five months, and collected the materials for a good map, a comprehensive geological report, and a trustworthy estimate of the resources of the country. These results are not yet, however, in print. Col. Dodge accompanied this party in command of the escort, and being an officer of nearly thirty years' service, more than half of which has been passed on the Plains, and being also quite without prejudice in the matter, he is capable of giving a judicious account of what he saw; and this he has done, in a very readable little book, composed without any attempt at literary finish, from which the general reader will readily obtain all the information on the subject which he desires. The geological notes and sections, by one of Mr. Jenney's assistants, are sufficient to give a definite idea of the formation of the country, and this is supplemented by some fair lithographs and an excellent map—the most accurate up to this date. In addition, there are discussions of the climate and resources, the hunting, and the action of the miners who were expelled by military authority, considerable information of the guide-book sort, and a few very plain remarks about the Indian question, from the standpoint of what might be called the educated frontiersman.

Col. Dodge's conclusions are these: The Black Hills constitute an oasis, about equal to the State of Connecticut in area, in the dreary waste of alkaline plains; the climate and soil of the lower valleys are well suited to agriculture, and the upper valleys admirably adapted to stock-raising. There is enough gold to pay for sluice and hydraulic mining, but not for simple panning; "gold enough to make many fortunes and tempt to the loss of many more." The early settlement of the Hills is predicted somewhat enthusiastically, but not without the fear that the "squaw men" will first succeed in inciting the Sioux to war.

Fine Arts.

EXHIBITION OF THE NATIONAL ACADEMY OF DESIGN.

I.

THE display now on view at the Academy is very encouraging in quality. There is evidence of lively effort and of a better scholarship. The first is the cause of the almost total absence of slovenly work in the exhibition, and the second causes the artists to perceive more clearly what slovenliness really is, and that it may coexist with the most elaborate finish in the world, if the finish is languidly and unthinkingly applied. It is something rather new to see our artists really trying their strength in broad and strong effects, taking merit *as* effects. Mr. William Hart's cattle-sketch (337), with a touch as palpable and pasty as a Constable, would hardly have been either offered or accepted a few years ago, yet it is a serious advance for him. His thinking has spent itself this time on the composition, on the fling and movable look of the figures, and on the grand scale of values throughout the work; and his reward has come in the fact that this rude picture seems to pant and breathe with open-air life, and that it has a triumphant, luminous quality a thousand times more vivid than any of his "window-gardening" pictures, in which, like a lady concentrating every sort of colored bloom into her jardinière, he has aimed to bring in the whole solar spectrum, in close quarters and concentrated finish, within picture-frames of uncommon narrowness. Another artist who has dared to put his completeness into his plan and not into his pencilling is Mr. Eastman Johnson, whose "Husking-Bee" (285) is more vital than anything he has given us since the "Stage-Coach," and perhaps a little in advance of that. In such a scene as this, where a multitude of eager huskers, drawn up in two lines in battle array, are striving to outdo each other in amount of work, and carrying a tournament of effort over the whole sunny breadth of a corn-field, the sentiment of the scenery is what is paramount. The figures, very properly, are viewed as we view figures in a landscape, as parts of the general effect. It would be a greater fault if an old farmer or a pretty milk-maid reflected the light haltingly or made a false note in the general glitter than if an eye or a finger were imperfectly made out. The innumerable figures here accordingly present themselves, as they should, as attitudes; and in the variety and racy invention of a hundred poses, we are allowed to distinguish the coquettishness of youth, the plodding industry of old age, the tense ambition of the hard worker, winner of many shucking-matches, and the angular motions of extreme senility, good for little more than corn-husking. The golden light on the maize-stalks is more precious than any elaboration of figure could be; the effacement of the distance, where the luncheon-tables are being laid, and the near-at-hand flurry of eager cocks and hens, darting at the corn with the consciousness of a realized millennium, are touches that build up the scene in its completeness, and give us a picture realized in blurred colors—attitudes in landscape like a fair pastoral a little blotted in the humid eye that sees and feels it. This artist, by the bye, who has two styles as distinct from each other as the baritone and falsetto of the man in the comic story, produces a second picture in his "woolly" manner. It is a country father bringing in a milliner's masterpiece to his favorite daughter. This is elaborated in the colored cobwebs Mr. Johnson paints in his less inspired moments. Occasionally he shows, with all the pride of a man who has several handwritings, a picture in which the figure is woolly and the accessories are broad, or otherwise, the distance in Berlin-wool meshes and the figure as firm as sculpture. An artist who sees "breadth" in quite another way from Mr. Johnson, Mr. D. R. Knight, has borrowed from its owner for this exhibition his Salon picture of last year, the "French Washerwomen" (176). Here the idyllic tranquillity aimed at permits a more individual examination of the fair models; the washing-girls are accordingly treated in considerable detail, their beauty is elaborated, the twilight dwells lingeringly on their round arms and faces, the motion of the prettiest is arrested, and that of the others made rhythmic. A distinct poetic effort is admitted, and is not thrown away; for the composition is a harmonious, elegant bas-relief, set with all unity into a low Poussinesque landscape, whose broad dignity envelopes and enhances the human beauty.

A scholar-like intelligence, which we are very glad to see, is obvious in more than one contributor; a betrayal of acquaintance with schools of art that have gone before, in place of the barbaric determination to leap soil-stained from the American earth and instruct the schools that have had the misfortune to exist in other countries. Thus Mr. Samuel Colman, finding himself in the Low Countries, depicts contemporary scenes with a recognition of the way in which the tranquil, delicious Dutch masters portrayed their homes. The "Boats of Antwerp at Low Tide" (449) and "On the Scheldt" (227) are painted in the quaintest affectation of antique style,

just yielding in the proper place to a beaming modern touch of color of which time has bereft the original examples. Here we have the gables notched like staircases, and crowded on each other's shoulders, and the odd round trees appearing above them like chignons ; the lazy, unctuous lap of tideless water, the bat-like hovering of leathery sails, and then, in some happy focus, a glow of basking light in which the modern colorist exerts his freshest powers ; it is like the Van Kessels and Van der Heydens of the Museum, respectfully modernized with a dash wet from the palette of Clays. Mr. Miller, too, shows an intelligent study of past methods of art in his remarkably fine sunset view, "New York from Newtown Creek" (257). A good many Jacob Ruysdaels had been studied, we should say, before the painting of this effect, which respectably sustains comparisons with the best of them. The sky here is broadly intense, with a gradual dying away of light and color towards the zenith, where ranks of gossamer cloud are radiating in transient color-motives like the changeable lights of a pearl-shell. The composition, without being unpleasantly artificial, has a distinct focus and contrasting groups of forms. The narrow water and old rotting sails of stained boats give the scene a Dutch aspect ; and the whole picture has a strength, a reticence, a staying-power, an avoidance of clap-trap, suggestive of the sober poetry of Holland color at its best. Mr. Miller has several other pictures, in limpid gray effects, that are full of science and observation, and indicate a steady advance conquered through hard labor.

"A Woman Serving" (371), by M. R. Oakey, is large, striking, and ambitious. This lady has so often given indication of uncommon power in smaller works, and has promised so very much sometimes in her broad Velasquez-like charcoal sketches, that the exhibition of such a large picture is greeted with unusual interest. It is, however, obviously too heavy an undertaking. It is unmethodical, troubled, and anxious : we see the anxiety of the artist in drawing the hands and the mouth, and wish she could have been relieved of it ; the painting of the antique brocade is enjoyed as a relaxation from the more awful problems of design, and is enjoyed a little too much. But the pose is good—(it is a dark-haired girl of the last century carrying a salver of fruits, such a type as one fancies addressed in sinister tones by a Henry Esmond, with his "Drop the charger, Herodias !")—the flowing sense of a woman's motion in carrying a graceful burden is perfectly given. It is solidly modelled and effectively relieved, and Cottier has framed it in a dull wooden splendor that admirably comports with its sentiment. For a female figure in life-scale, however, if we wish to go to one which easily overcomes everything else in the exhibition, whether portraits or invented characters, we must approach Mr. Sartain's simple head of a contadina (490). No other study of the life compares with it in the most distant way, and from the point of view of its intentions and problems it may be called perfect work. It is a beautiful, plaintive Italian face, looking upward in prayer. The lifting of the brows over the forehead, the sockets of the black hollow eyes, the dark yet transparent olive of the cheek, and the flesh shadows so deep, yet not opaque, show the great promise and present success of this pupil of M. Bonnat. The work has a Southern intensity so imposing as to make it hard to do justice to other efforts very admirable in their way, but emanating from a different condition of feeling. Mrs. Loop's portrait (389), will, however, bear almost any comparison, it is so winning, fresh, honest, and obvious. It is painted in the simplest planes and breadths possible, is like a sculptor's bust just after the pointing-marks have been rubbed away. The expression is the bright and hardy look of a happy matron ; it is a picture we make friends with at once, and we can only congratulate the sitters whom Mrs. Loop will hereafter interpret in such a genial and admirable strain. Mr. Guy, who is now painting a good many life-sized figures, contributes another Italian girl, in carnival finery, and resting on a tambourine (207). The style is unrelenting, finished to the last polish of the epidermis, and completely superficial ; yet the wet globe of a gazing eye, the tough perfection of a healthy peasant's hand, are given, from the outside, with a vigor and perseverance that lend them a kind of interest, as articles of *ciselure* or *bijouterie ;* but the recent sight of a masterpiece like 490 has left the eye unprepared to appreciate a model treated as an object of virtù in the manner of M. Desgoffe. Among these life-sized studies, however, it is impossible to overlook the portrait by Mr. Page. It represents President Charles Eliot of Harvard, and it is a crisp utterance that the most careless promenader cannot pass without notice. It is the peculiarity of Mr. Page, in all his better work, to give us pictures that we cannot regard without the deepest curiosity and interest, whatever we may think of his very individual handling. We must observe that he has made a study of the sitter's character, and delivered a perfectly clear report upon it. However we may like his flesh-tones, his suffused demi-tints, his modelling of muscles or osseous protuberances by strange little clouds of reflected light that play around the temples and the jaws, we cannot but see that he works with intense conviction, and that he uses portraiture in the way of character-interpretation. Here, in a college president standing in his robes, a manuscript in his hand, and evidently addressing an audience, we have delineated the habit of mental command, an elegant self-possession, and that smile which a man's friends take to indicate imperturbable urbanity, but which, in the case of a lean New England professor with close-shaved face, comes very near the smile of the prize-fighter who accepts opposition and is ready to take as to give. Mr. Page exhibits another work, at once of portraiture and restoration, in the bronze bust of Shakspere taken from the German death-mask. We have not space to-day to allude to it, except to say that it is a labor rather of archæology than sentiment, and as such worthy of the closest attention. Beside it, in a very limited exhibition of sculpture, is a dark bronze of Mr. John A. Kennedy, by Mr. O'Donovan, in which the impasto of good painting is well represented, completely overcoming the stubborn tenacity of bronze surface ; and a little medallion by Mr. Warner, not much in itself, but irreproachable, and the work of an artist who has exhibited several works showing great merit and the best education

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 13, 1876.

The Week.

THE Senate devoted a good part of the week to the silver question. Mr. Randall's bill was deprived by the Finance Committee of the section which proposed that silver change should be made a legal tender for amounts not exceeding $25, and "trade dollars" for amounts not exceeding $50. Instead of this two new sections were offered. The first authorized a new silver dollar, to contain 412.8 grains of silver (instead of 412.5 grains, as did the old silver dollar demonetized by Act of 1873); the new dollar to be a legal tender for sums not exceeding $20, except for customs and interest on the public debt. The second of the new sections authorized the Treasury to exchange these new silver dollars, worth about 90¼ cents, at par for United States legal-tender notes; opened the mints to all who should wish to exchange silver bullion for these dollars at a price to be fixed by the Director of the Mint; demonetized the trade dollar; and provided that the notes taken in for silver should go to the Sinking Fund account. When the bill with these proposed amendments came up in the Senate a vast and varied fund of misinformation was poured into the debate, and, finally, Mr. Sherman withdrew the amendments and the bill was passed. As it goes back to the House, it appropriates money for printing United States legal-tender notes, also for printing bank-notes (this having been added by the Senate), and nothing for fractional notes. It directs the Secretary of the Treasury to issue subsidiary silver coins for fractional notes, and provides that all fractional notes taken in for silver shall be credited to the Sinking Fund.

The House has before it the report of a Committee recommending repayment to Japan of the balance of the so-called indemnity fund, which had its origin in the Shimonoseki affair. This affair may be briefly described as the forcible turning back from its course, in the inland waters of Japan, of an American steamer, the *Pembroke*, by a daimio in active rebellion against the Shogun. This happened in June, 1863. An American ship-of-war was immediately despatched to the disputed passage, and though no damage had been done the *Pembroke*, and the right to navigate the channel in question was by no means clearly within the Treaty, the daimio's fleet was attacked and disabled. Constructive damages to the amount of $10,000 were made out for the *Pembroke*, and were finally allowed, with interest, by the Shogun, in spite of the fact that he repudiated the acts of his rebellious vassal. The pressing of such a claim was most discreditable to our diplomacy, at a time, too, when the South might have placed us in a position exactly analogous to that of the Shogun. A French despatch steamer fared the next month like the *Pembroke*, and the attack was similarly avenged, this time the batteries being destroyed. A Dutch corvette next forced a passage after due warning. These two incidents presently led to a combined assault upon the daimio's stronghold by a fleet composed of English, French, and Dutch vessels, and by a steamer hired by the American Minister to represent this country and to secure a title to part of the plunder. The expedition was completely successful, and, as if it had been expressly authorized by the Shogun, a bill of $3,000,000 was immediately presented for expenses, etc., by the representatives of the powers engaged. It was made thus excessive in the hope that the Shogun would be unable to pay it, and would consequently submit to pressure for the opening of new ports as an equivalent. The pecuniary alternative was, however, preferred under compulsion, and the fine was ultimately paid in equal parts to the four powers—the United States receiving $750,000. The payment of the last instalment fell to the Mikado, who meantime had asserted his supremacy over the Shogun, and his endeavors to have it remitted were so successful in this country that in 1872 the House of Representatives passed a bill to that effect; but it failed to come up in the Senate, and the State Department feeling bound to press for the money, it was reluctantly paid over. After deducting what was paid out to meet claims good, bad, and indifferent, the sum has grown from $750,000 to upwards of a million and a quarter. It has never been covered into the Treasury, and is now in the custody of the State Department. No one can read the simple history of it without feeling that it was procured by extortion from a semi-civilized people in distress, and that, like all ill-gotten gains, it calls for prompt restitution.

The Committee which is investigating General Schenck's connection with the Emma Mine has come to the singular determination that it will allow the General to call witnesses to prove the value of the mine, and he has accordingly summoned fifteen persons, who will no doubt swear the mine is one of the most valuable properties in the world. Lyon will then, of course, have the right to call any number of witnesses he pleases to prove the contrary, and Schenck can subsequently bring up experienced "rebutters," who will make mincemeat of Lyon's case. Besides this, there will be room for searching enquiry into the character for truth and veracity of all the witnesses, so that there is no reason why the investigation should not go on all summer, or indeed should ever come to an end any more than the Beecher case. The absurdity of taking this kind of testimony is amply shown by the language of the resolution of the House under which the Committee is acting:

"*Resolved*, That the Committee on Foreign Affairs be instructed to ascertain and report what action, if any, has been taken by the executive department of the Government in relation to the connection of the United States Minister at the Court of St. James with the directory of the Emma Mine, so called, and also with the prosecution of the Machado claim against the British Government; and that said Committee be authorized to request the Secretary of State to furnish this House such information and correspondence upon the subject as may not be incompatible with the public interest."

Now, the Committee has already found out and knows perfectly what the Executive Department did about Schenck's connection with the Emma Mine, and are in a position to report it to the House. They have not yet looked into the Machado claim at all; and, with this duty unperformed, to go wandering off into an examination of what other people in no way concerned in the investigation think might, or might not, have been a "high price" for the mine, tends to bring the whole investigation into contempt. The opinions of Schenck's fifteen witnesses have no bearing on the question of his *bona fides*, because he did not take their opinion at the time of the sale. All that he knew was what Park and Silliman said about the mine; and it is evident he did not rely, at the time of the sale, upon the value of the mine, but upon Park's guarantee to protect him against loss. All the Committee are concerned with is the political bearing of the case, and as to this the facts are proved already. It looks now very much as if Park were making the same sort of use of the Committee he formerly made of Schenck—that is, he means to get a report from them which will bolster up the mine, and show, to quote the words of one of the gentlemen connected with the enterprise, that "only He who made it" can guess at its value.

Mr. Andrew D. White has written a letter containing his views about Mr. Conkling—both as a senator and candidate for the Presidency—which gives one an odd idea of the kind of political instruction he supplies to the youths at Cornell. It appears, indeed, that Mr. Conkling is his ideal public man. He says:

"The high expectations which led me, and which alone led me, to support him for the senatorship have been more than met, and, though I have differed from him on some minor points, he is so firm and strong on the great points, he has stood the hammering of the press so nobly, and he represents our State so creditably, striking the right key-note in every campaign, that my admiration for him has steadily increased."

Mr. White seems to entertain somewhat the same simple and childlike views about "the hammering of the press" as the President of the United States, but they are much too simple and childlike for the President of a University. Mr. Conkling has only stood "the

hammering of the press" in one particular. It has not brought home to him, as it has to so many of his brother statesmen, any charge of actual theft or embezzlement or fraud, but it has brought home to him the charge of having been the steady and unblushing supporter of the system under which and through which the fraud, falsehood, and peculation which are now being exposed at Washington took place, and of having for years unfalteringly resisted every attempt to enquire into it, and of having stood by every rascal on whom suspicion lighted, and of having during his term of service as senator of this great commercial State contributed little or nothing, either by speech or legislation, towards the solution of the two great problems of the day—the restoration of peace and confidence at the South, and the reform of the national currency. If Mr. White's "admiration for him has grown" under these circumstances, it is a most unfortunate thing that Mr. White should be entrusted with the task of teaching young Americans what and whom to admire. Moreover, to say that a "man has stood the hammering of the press nobly," is to say a loose and ambiguous thing. Whether it is to a man's credit that he has "stood the hammering of the press," depends on how he has stood it. If he has been enabled to stand it through brass and impudence, as Tweed or Fernando Wood, for instance, have stood it, or through conceit and thickness of the moral cuticle, as, in our judgment, Mr. Conkling or Mr. Morton has stood it, it is one thing; if it is through the possession of a good character and lofty conscience, it is another thing; and the difficulty we have in finding an illustration of this last form of endurance leads us to say that we can recall no instance of recent date in which a man of real honor and integrity has had to stand any "hammering" from the press very long. The press often does gross injustice, but we should like Mr. White to tell his young men who the upright men are who, during the last ten years, have been exposed for any great length of time to its assaults.

Great Britain has refused to surrender Winslow unless an assurance is given that he will not be tried for any other offence than the one charged against him, an Act of Parliament having been passed since the date of the last extradition treaty making the exaction of such a pledge a necessary condition of the surrender of all criminals. This is treated by many papers as if it were an act of pure "cussedness" over which Secretary Fish ought to boil with indignation, besides refusing to give the required pledge. That it is an improper mode of arriving at the desired result there can be little question, but that the result is desirable there is just as little. The Treaty is dated 1842; the Act of Parliament 1870. It is, therefore, not reasonable to give the act an *ex-post-facto* operation, so as to make it apply to the Treaty, and it is just as unreasonable to ask this Government to submit without notice to an alteration in a treaty by virtue of an act of the English legislature. But the grievance which the course of the English Government covers is by no means groundless. The Treaty of 1842 enumerates the offences for which extradition shall take place, and of course neither country will surrender for any offences not so enumerated; and Dana's 'Wheaton' lays it down that "nations bound by treaties of extradition have still the right to protect themselves against being defrauded of their right to give asylum. If, for instance, a political refugee, or an escaped slave, or a deserter from military service has asylum by the practice of a nation, it will look behind the mere formal proofs of a crime committed by such person to see that the real object is not to get possession of him for a purpose to which the treaty does not apply. In many cases, the Government of the country making the demand may not be cognizant of the real motives of the parties who have procured an indictment and set on foot the proceedings for a surrender." In other words, suspicion and enquiry are not on general grounds improper, and are not necessarily offensive, particularly when, as in cases like Winslow's, the indictment is not found in the United States courts by proceedings or parties of which the United States has exclusive jurisdiction.

Now, it so happens that at this moment there are two men—Caldwell and Lawrence—who have been surrendered by Great Britain for forgery, on trial before the United States Courts for offences not embraced by the Treaty—namely, smuggling and bribing a United States officer; and the Court has ruled in both cases that it can take no notice of the conditions of their surrender. Under these circumstances, it is eminently proper for Great Britain to look behind the indictment in Winslow's case, and ask for a guarantee that this is the only one on which he will be tried; first, because it has the right to do so on general principles, and, secondly, because the course of our Government in the two cases we have mentioned furnishes specific justification for doing so. The flaw in Lord Derby's case is his putting forward the Act of Parliament as governing his action and making his demand reasonable, as having, in fact, the power to modify a treaty already in existence. It has not and ought not to have any such power. Winslow's case, moreover, is more difficult to deal with than the Caldwell and Lawrence cases, because he may be pursued by the State of Massachusetts for other offences than the one with which he stands charged, and the General Government would have no power to interfere. The rational way out of the difficulty would seem to be to give the assurance, if possible, that what has occurred in the Lawrence and Caldwell cases shall not occur in Winslow's, and then call on Great Britain for a statement of her position with regard to the Treaty, and then either amend or abrogate it, as seems best.

There has been a split in the New York and Brooklyn Association of Congregational Ministers, arising out of the proceedings in reference to the Beecher scandal on Thursday last. The friends of Mr. Beecher produced and carried by a vote of 15 to 9 a number of resolutions providing for the appointment of a committee of five to aid in having whatever charges there may be against Mr. Beecher brought before the commission appointed by the late Advisory Council. Six members of the Association who are in favor of the Andover plan of investigation, Messrs. Budington, Macfarland, Martin, Storrs, Taylor, and Ward, thereupon presented a strong protest against the proceeding, on the ground that it can result in "nothing more than another of those superficial enquiries which have already provoked so much public dissatisfaction." After the adjournment of the meeting Messrs. Budington, Macfarland, Storrs, and Taylor formally withdrew from the Association. The dissentients base their action on the proposition "that the calling of a council by a church to consider its administration of discipline in certain cases without the agency or concurrence of the person affected by that discipline, is a violation of a fundamental principle of Congregational order."

The difference which lies at the bottom of the controversy between Mr. Beecher and the advocates of the Andover plan of trial is simple enough, although it is hidden somewhat under a great cloud of words and under the attempt to make it a question of Congregational polity rather than of general jurisprudence. Mr. Beecher and his church, and the majority of the Ministers' Association which has just split over the case, seek an enquiry conducted on what may be called the co-operative plan—that is, conducted by persons who on the whole believe him innocent, and think his sermons, prayers, and general reputation raise a strong presumption in his favor, and who, in examining charges against him, would be, as he says, "helping" *him* to prove his innocence. The Andover party, on the other hand, demand an investigation of the only kind for which the secular world, which has little faith in "the psychological argument," has any respect—namely, an investigation conducted jointly both by those who believe in Mr. Beecher and those who do not, under the old system of attack and defence, which has now been in use by the courts of the Anglo-Saxon race for a thousand years, and is recognized as the most satisfactory mode of getting at the truth through human testimony, but which the Andover people propose to improve on in this case by discarding the technical rules of evidence and hearing everybody who has anything to say. No other kind of enquiry will satisfy the general public.

We have commented more than once in these columns on the unwillingness of the chromo-civilized to hurt anybody's feelings. Their multifarious activity of course sometimes brings them into collision with each other, and compels them to use harsh language; but they always take the sting out of it by a plentiful intermixture of fulsome eulogy. They sometimes have to call a man a rascal, but they almost always add that they consider him also an accomplished Christian gentleman. An amusing illustration of their mode of "reprimanding" people occurred in the Legislature of this State on Thursday last. Mr. Felix Murphy, a member of the Assembly, got very drunk, broke into the post-office, and stole some of the books and papers belonging to other members. He was accordingly sentenced by a vote of the House to be reprimanded, and was brought to the bar for that purpose. What followed was very ludicrous. The Speaker described his offence, but mentioned in extenuation of it that Murphy was drunk when he committed it, and then said that he was directed to reprimand him for it. Lest Murphy should feel hurt, however, he proceeded to pass the following eulogy on him: "In so reprimanding you, I desire to say what I believe every member will concur with me in saying, that during your experience here as a member you have had always the confidence and the respect and the esteem of this Assembly. Never before have I heard a word uttered against you; never before, I think, have you committed an act which would diminish in any way the respect and esteem of your fellow-members for you." The effect of the address was in fact that of a strong public testimonial to the high character of the estimable Murphy, containing a passing mention of his having broken into the post-office while tipsy. He will probably pass the remainder of his days under the impression that a reprimand is a certificate of unblemished life.

The week in Wall Street passed without important changes. At the Stock Exchange railroad shares declined, tariff receipts and talk of another railroad war having been used by sellers of stocks. The war between the telegraph companies, the rival lines of the Western Union having reduced night rates for the public to the rates charged the press, promises to be destructive of stockholders' interests, although beneficial to the customers of the companies. The last bank statement showed a reduction in reserve which was wholly unexpected; it left the surplus reserve at about $7,000,000; as a result, rates for money were firm. The Bank of England continues to gain specie, and the London money market shows an unhealthy ease, the discount rate for three months' bills being 2@2½ per cent. anywhere except at the Bank of England, where the minimum rate is 3 per cent. After the Senate passed the silver bill, even as amended, the price of silver in London advanced to 53¾ pence an ounce. The gold value of $100 greenbacks ranged during the week between $88 30 and $88 79.

Signor Minghetti had hardly made the gratifying financial statement of which we spoke in our last number, when he was assailed by a combination which drove him from office by a majority of 61 in a total vote of 423. He at once resigned, and Signor Depretis, a member, though not the leader, of the Left, was charged by the King with the formation of a new Ministry. The news of this change came ten days ago by telegraph, the explanation of it comes now. There is no national question which divides parties in Italian politics at present. The Liberals have got all they ever looked for short of a change in the form of the government. There cannot be said to be any Republicans in the small constituency which in Italy elects the Chambers. There was the financial problem, which Signor Minghetti, as we showed last week, had fairly solved, and the country is extremely prosperous. He has fallen, therefore, before a combination of local interests. The grist tax, which is highly unpopular, as it involves a system of vexatious inspection at all the mills in the country, has formed the principal weapon of the Opposition against him; but it was well-known all along that no Ministry could give it up, as it yields $15,000,000 annually. His overthrow, therefore, did not come from this solely, although it was a strong motive with the Venetian deputies. It was the Tuscan members who turned the scale against him, owing to their fear that his scheme for the further Government purchase of railroads would lead to the withdrawal of the head offices of the Southern lines from Florence. They were also alarmed by the proposed removal of the Court of Cassation, which seems to have remained at Florence after the transfer of the Government to Rome. There is no probability of any change in the policy pursued by the old Ministry. The only thing that any Ministry can now do in Italy, or try to do, is to make ends meet.

Things look worse and worse in Turkey. The insurgents in Herzegovina, after a brief truce, have opened a desperate and determined spring campaign, and are applying coercion to the Bosnians to compel them to join them. This has led the Pasha of that province to recommend the proclamation of a "holy war," which used to be the old Turkish mode of rousing the fanaticism of the Mussulman population and getting them to do their best against the infidels; but they are wise enough now at Constantinople to know that the days of "holy wars" are passed, and so he has been recalled. What has unquestionably done most to sustain the courage of the insurgents is not their successes in the field, but the Austrian note, as laying a foundation for future interference, and the condition of the Turkish finances, which may now be said to have completely collapsed. The Imperial Ottoman Bank, through which the Government does its business, allowed it at the beginning of the year a credit sufficient to enable it to pay its January coupons and meet other pressing expenses, but this has been overdrawn, and the bank has peremptorily stopped supplies, and, if it had not been for the assistance of some of the private bankers at Galata, there would have been a default in March on the interest of the loan of 1858, which amounts to about $70,000; but this and all other resources are now cut off. Nobody will lend another cent, and even the salaries of the employés of every rank, except the Europeans, have been stopped. It is said the Treasury still finds the means of honoring the Sultan's drafts for his civil list, but how long this will last it is hard to say, and the opinion seems to prevail in Christendom that as long as it does last he will not know the real state of affairs, as nobody has yet dared to tell him. In the meantime every nerve is being strained to concentrate troops on the Upper Danube at Widdin, in preparation for the spring campaign, and for this purpose the last of the *Redif*—the *arrière ban* of the Landwehr—has been called into the field, in the fear, which is not wholly without foundation, that the Servians may take the field at the opening of the fine weather. The completeness of the financial breakdown must, in fact, bring on a great crisis of some kind before many weeks, and produce the anticipated Austrian occupation of the revolted provinces. Russia, as the St. Petersburg despatches show, is taking as alarming a view as possible of the situation. The spread of the contest into Bosnia, where the Mussulmans are in a majority, will doubtless lead to frightful atrocities.

The London *Times* has published a statement of the public debt of Spain, procured from official sources, which is an extraordinary document. The grand total is $3,500,000,000, or almost the same as the debt of Great Britain. The interest on this, at three per cent., is about $100,000,000, while the total revenue of the kingdom even in good years does not reach $90,000,000. All talk of paying the interest is therefore idle, and the financial question now is, How much must be repudiated? The most the creditors can hope for is 33 per cent., and they will be glad if they can get 3 per cent. even on this. There is not much likelihood, however, of any definitive financial settlement. The new monarchy will probably have to devote its attention to the task of raising more money by loan. That such governments find persons willing to lend is one of the marvels of our time, but the fact seems to be that the promise of an exorbitant rate of interest always draws a certain amount from some quarter or other.

THE NOMINATING CONVENTION.

THE address issued the other day in Massachusetts with the view of influencing public opinion, and through public opinion the National Republican Convention, in favor of a candidate who should thoroughly satisfy the existing demand for reform, will probably be followed by others of a similar character in other States, and it illustrates curiously the want of confidence felt by the best class of American voters in the nominating machinery. The theory of the nominating convention is excellent. Under it the party voters are supposed to select in each district the best men they can lay hands on, and the convention thus formed, after a careful "comparison of views" and much examination of candidates, provides the best possible nominee. The way in which the system breaks down in practice is now so familiar to the public that we need not attempt to describe it. No suggestion for reforming it that has yet been made has much appearance of practicalness. The one usually proffered—the close attendance of voters at primary meetings—has been proved futile, and its futility becomes plainer as population becomes more dense, and the play of political and social interests more complex. There are, in fact, few things more curious in American political history than the elevation of the nominating convention to the rank of an institution, and the addition to the list of each citizen's most solemn duties of that of attendance at the primary meeting. The nominating convention as it exists among us is no part of the American political system or a necessary adjunct of a republican form of government. It is simply an expedient which, when first resorted to, was convenient and useful for doing something which under our form of government may be done in half-a-dozen other ways. It had its origin in the democratic desire to take the business of nominating out of the hands of a class and bring it under the control of the rank and file of the party. As long as it furnishes the means of selecting good candidates, it is a good system; when it ceases to do so, it is a bad system; but there is nothing more sacred or solemn about it than about the paper of the ballot or the wagon which takes a voter to the poll. It is not part and parcel of popular government or of any government. Nor is the primary meeting, which may be called a constituent part of the convention, any more sacred than the convention itself. In fact, there is something almost farcical in the reverence with which the party newspapers and the professional politicians speak of it. To hear them, one might almost fancy that it was the cradle of free government, and that it was the election of delegates to county and State nominating conventions which suggested the idea of republicanism itself. They always talk of attendance at primary meetings as one of the fundamental obligations of man as a social being. The fact is, however, that the fundamental political duty of the citizen is to procure the election of good men to places of trust and emolument; whether he will perform this through the primary meeting and the convention or through some other expedient is a matter to be determined by his judgment as informed by experience. If experience has shown that primary meetings, as a preparation for the convention, do not provide adequate means for bringing the influence of the mass of the voters to bear on the selection of the candidates, so far from its being the duty of the citizen to attend it and give it the countenance and support which result from his participation in its proceedings, it is his duty not to attend it. Whenever any practice or institution has clearly become a delusion and a snare, good men owe it to the highest interests of the country to cease to uphold it.

The conviction that the present system of nominating by convention, beginning with the primary meeting, has ceased to work beneficially, and that there is no reasonable prospect of reforming it, is now a very widespread belief. It shows itself in such addresses as the one we have mentioned, and in the foreboding which finds such frequent expression both in the press and in private conversation as to the action of the approaching Presidential conventions. We presume that there is hardly a man in the United States who would tell you privately and with a grave face that he thought that a Republican Convention at Cincinnati would be governed in its action by a regard for the best interests and sincerest desires of the voters. Everybody fears, on the contrary, that the convention will be a part of what is called the "political machine," and managed by a very small knot of persons, who will carry out their own wishes under the form of popular deliberation. In weighing the chances of the best-known candidates, nobody ventures to assert that the esteem in which any one of them is held by the public affords any trustworthy indication of the fate that awaits him in the convention. In fact, the convention is discussed both in the press and in the market-place very much as if it were a force of nature, like the wind, the strength or direction of which it was impossible to calculate. Few, indeed, would infer from the popular talk about it that it was a direct product of the popular vote, and intended to be a direct expression of the popular will. In short, there is overwhelming evidence that the public confidence in it as an instrument of nomination is gone.

The suggestion of a remedy, however, is no easy matter. It would be difficult if the convention was simply a great assembly of professional politicians, elected by devices created by themselves. It is doubly difficult now that it has passed, in one party at least, completely into the hands of office-holders and of employés of the Executive, holding their places at will. Any attempt to overthrow or set aside machinery thus manufactured and managed is, of course, a work of great labor and expense. In our day the organization of a bolting movement against the party in power, or any movement short of complete desertion to the Opposition, has the proportions and some of the hardships of a popular rising against a large regular army. Leaders have to be improvised, organization perfected, funds provided, and ends and aims definitely settled, and even then the result must be very doubtful. A Presidential campaign in the present condition of American politics and society is on the financial side alone an enterprise of as much magnitude as the making of a great railroad. On the moral side, too, the difficulty would be enormous, even if the object in view were as plain and as widely attractive as that of the Free-Soilers when they broke away from the two great parties which divided the country twenty-five years ago. To-day, such a movement would be directed against corruption and intrigue; but corruption and intrigue are things hard to define, because they consist in the acts of a great number of individual men, and it is hard to form a party against them, because they have no open defenders. The minute we raise the standard of purity, all flock to it, the worst corruptionists among the first. Hence it is that the men whom we know to be most prominent in their debasement of American politics are among the foremost to applaud such mild modes of reform as raising the cry of "put none but good men in office." They know perfectly well that as long as the system which they manage remains intact, the efforts of patriotic citizens to put "none but good men in office" will do them no harm; and they know also that, as long as the duty of attending primary meetings is preached and the management of the meetings is perforce left in their hands, the system will not be shaken.

A remedy of a somewhat clumsy and imperfect kind for the existing evils of party management has been under trial in a half-unconscious way since 1872, and may possibly result in the discovery of some definite form of deliverance. It has been strengthened a good deal by the growing conviction that the Democratic party does not furnish an Opposition, in the proper sense of that word, into which honest men when dissatisfied with the party in power can go, because there can be no genuine opposition without a positive policy. A party which confines itself, as the Democratic party is doing, to simple obstruction, and offers no remedy for existing abuses except the substitution of one set of men in office for another set, is not an Opposition, but a faction. That portion of the Republican party, therefore, which is shocked and dismayed by the use now made of the party machinery, seems more and more disposed to form itself into a kind of corps of observation, with the view of frightening the managers into decent behavior at the convention by the threat of

something or other. It would probably be a threat of desertion, if the conduct of the Democrats in 1872 in nominating Horace Greeley had not taken away all hope and expectation of their offering any refuge to virtuous discontent. As matters stand, the threat is very vague indeed, and we greatly fear the managers of the Senatorial Group will not be much disturbed by it. They know perfectly well what a poser to dissatisfied Republicans the question, What will you do if you do not like the nomination of the convention? will prove. As long as this question cannot be answered in clear and set terms the professional politicians will not be seriously disturbed by the grumblings of what are called the "independent voters."

There is no doubt that much of the inefficiency of the convention system of making nominations would be removed if the civil service were reformed and the office-holders forbidden to act as political "workers," inasmuch as it is their interference which makes the attendance of good citizens at primary meetings abortive, and makes the convention itself a part of the political machine worked from Washington. Were they confined by law and usage to their proper sphere there would be, if not a fair chance, a much better chance of making conventions genuine exponents of the popular will. Indeed, no matter to what political reform we now turn our attention we find the first step towards it must consist in a reform of the civil service. But then, apart from this and besides this, the question presents itself, What is the use of having nominating conventions so large and elected by such complicated machinery? Why, when we wish to select, out of the ten or a dozen men in each party who are sufficiently conspicuous and sufficiently tried, a candidate for the first office in the Government, must we first go to the primary meeting and elect delegates for a county convention, and then have the county convention elect delegates to the State convention, and the State convention elect delegates to the National convention? Is not the direct result of this—we were going to say the direct object of it—to furnish professional politicians with the multiplicity, the complexity, and the troublesomeness with which they play their game and display their peculiar arts, and out of which they make their livelihood? Does not each step in this process add to the opportunities for intrigue, for wire-pulling and pipe-laying, for vexing, wearying, and defrauding the honest citizen who has a lawful calling to follow and believes government to be a means and not an end? Does it not increase the sense, now so prevalent and so productive of political indifference, of the remoteness of the voter's influence upon the actual work of government?

Then, again, when a convention meets for a task so difficult, so delicate, and calling for so much passionless deliberation as the selection of a candidate for the Presidency, why should it consist of five or six hundred members? The size of the body in no way increases its capacity for the work before it. It does not represent the party any better than a hundred men would do. The multitude of voices does not bring any increase of wisdom, because there is no debating, or, indeed, any attempt at persuasion, the opinions of the convention being carefully manufactured by four or five men in the committee-room. The truth is, nobody gains by the size of the convention except the professional managers. It gives them a wider field for the exercise of their art, affords a greater number of problems for their ingenuity to solve, and helps very effectually to conceal the responsibility for whatever makes concealment desirable. Though last not least, as everybody knows, the judgment of an assembly diminishes, one might almost say, in the ratio of its numbers. A large body of men is always ready to be dominated or carried away by passion, and is easily made the victim of deception. There is, therefore, every conceivable reason why the honest friends of reform should begin their work by refusing any longer to participate in or be bound by the huge mass-meetings which the Federal office-holders now get together every four years; and should they not make an honest effort to bring the voter into more direct participation in the work of nomination by the direct election of a body, say, of one hundred or thereabouts, large enough for fair representation of all sections of the country, but small enough for real deliberation, and small enough also to be composed of conspicuous men?

THE CALIFORNIA DISTURBANCE.

THE Supreme Court, in its recent decision on State laws affecting emigration, had not before them the "Chinese question," so-called, and yet it appears from the anti-Chinese outbreak on the Pacific coast that the decision is felt in California to be a blow at the defences erected by that State against the Mongolian invasion. The abstract of the decision already published shows that the Court merely laid it down that statutes (such as the head-money laws of this State) which impose a "burdensome and almost impossible condition" on shipmasters, as a prerequisite to the landing of passengers, "with an alternative payment of a small sum of money for each one of them," is, in fact, a tax on the right to land passengers, and, in effect, on the passengers themselves—inasmuch as they ultimately pay it; that such a statute is a "regulation of commerce," and, when applied to passengers from foreign countries, is a "regulation of commerce with foreign nations" such as is granted by the Constitution exclusively to Congress; and that though there is a class of State laws on such subjects which may be valid in the absence of Congressional action, these can have no reference to matters which are in their nature national, or which admit of a uniform system or plan of regulation.

There can be little doubt that this is a sound and wholesome decision, and, if anything were needed to prove it, we should want no better evidence than is afforded by the present commotion among the Californians over the Chinese immigration. Without going into the details of the matter, or attempting to decide how far the outcry against the Chinese is caused by simple race hostility, how far by the dread of competition in the labor market, and how far by a well-founded dread of the influence that may be exerted upon American institutions and society by the influx of a horde of barbarians, aliens in religion, language, and laws, and absolutely incapable of becoming a homogeneous part of our system, the fact of the existence of this hostility is undisputed, and it will have to be dealt with as a fact. The ground taken by a portion of the press, that the aversion of the Californians to the Chinese is a shocking piece of barbarism, and that what is needed is a change of heart on their part and a stern repression by the Government of all resistance to Oriental immigration, is open to the serious objection that the Californians give no evidence of a tendency to a change of heart, and that it is by no means difficult for them, provided they wish it, to make California so unpleasant a place for Chinamen that they will not come—no matter how much the Government may say they have a right to come. There are a great many ways besides laws affecting emigration by which this may be accomplished. Hitherto, notwithstanding the cruelty and bad treatment to which they have been subjected, they have continued to come, because they have seen an opportunity of making money here which was denied them at home. But if this should be cut off, and it were really discovered that the prejudices of the Californians prevented the employment of "Chinese cheap labor," they would soon cease to desire to emigrate, and the capitalists who have forwarded them here would soon cease to feel any interest in keeping up the movement.

In our indignation at what seems to us the absurd prejudice of the Californians against the Chinese, we are apt to overlook one important thing—the great depth of our own ignorance on the subject. California is the only American community, and, in fact, the only western community from the beginning of history, which has had any experience of the actual effect of a Chinese immigration. The immigration from which we in the Eastern States are obliged to draw all our inferences as to the probable effect of such an experiment has been from countries which are allied to our own by race, language, religion, or customs; and the few Chinese whose acquaintance we have made have been chiefly objects of curiosity to us. To California they have come in numbers, and, speaking a different language, worshipping unknown gods, keeping alive imported customs and traditions, they form almost

a separate caste. Now, such a state of affairs is, under our system of government, very difficult to deal with. In mediæval times it would have been simple enough, because laws and customs would have arisen based on the inferiority of one race and the superiority of the other, as they actually did between the Jews and the Christians, and thus a *modus vivendi* would have been established. But such an escape from the difficulty is forbidden to us by the philanthropy and sense of justice of modern times, as well as by our own example in dealing with the negroes. We certainly cannot have our statesmen spending their days and nights in devising ways to make the "intimidation" of a black man with a jack-o'-lantern on the eve of an election an offence against the United States, punishable by fine and imprisonment, and at the same time allow the San Francisco roughs to pound and pummel and stone the "Heathen Chinee" in the streets of San Francisco because he insists on accepting our invitation to come and live with us.

On the other hand, the Californians seem to forget that while they as yet have had the only actual experience of Chinese immigration, the interest in the matter is not at all local, but national. And this seems to us to be the strongest possible support of the Supreme Court's decision, that immigration is a matter which Congress must regulate. At present it looks to a Californian as if the only interested parties were himself and the Chinamen. He cannot see why Illinois or Ohio should care whether he keeps the Chinese out or lets them in. But, as a matter of fact, Illinois and Ohio have a direct stake in the decision. If the States can really regulate immigration as the Californian now claims the right to do, the seaboard States can, if they choose, virtually reverse the historical policy of the United States and prevent any growth from outside. We do not mean to say that anything like this on a general scale is probable, but what is probable (and, to make its probability clear, we need only recall the sudden outburst of prejudice at various times against the Mormons, against free negroes, in behalf of the "native American" movement, and now against the Chinese) is that so long as Congress leaves immigration to the States to regulate, the States will regulate it in such different ways as to work great injustice to the poor people who are affected by them, and to produce great confusion and unnecessary excitement among ourselves.

Down to the present time there has been comparatively little trouble on this head, because the demand for labor of all kinds in this country has been so great that public opinion has answered all the purposes of legislation, and public opinion has been generally in favor of increasing the supply of labor. But with the country rapidly filling up, wages declining, and the difficulties of making a livelihood increasing, the other cry—that raised by the laborer against the overstocking of the market—is sure to be heard, and when he has the prejudice of race on his side his cry is sure to be pretty loud. All this points to one thing, the absolute necessity of the whole question being considered and settled from a national point of view. The only body that can do this is Congress, and Congress ought to do it because it is a really national and not local concern. It is, in fact, closely related to all the other questions of international trade and commerce, and the confusion which would rapidly be introduced into our system of law and society by allowing it to be "fixed" by local bodies like States, can only be faintly imagined. The time has now clearly come when it will not do to trust any longer to natural causes to solve the immigration question. The picture drawn by Fourth-of-July orators of the welcome which the United States offers the "poor and oppressed of every land" is somewhat out of date, and, while it may still be metaphorically true that we go down to the wharves to "hail them," with a "copy of the Bible in one hand and an American flag in the other," our erring human nature may lead us, after they have landed, into conduct entirely inconsistent with our professions. It must be admitted, too, on behalf of the Californians, that even the "natural right" of everybody to change his place of residence, if such a right exists—and that it is not recognized as existing the laws of most civilized countries on the subject of forced military service prove pretty conclusively—exists subject to the undoubted right to impose restrictions and regulations, and to exact prerequisites as a means of self-protection. This right the Supreme Court expressly affirms, and we can only hope that it will be speedily exercised by Congress as the body now finally determined to be clothed with final power in the premises.

OXFORD UNIVERSITY REFORM.

LONDON, March 14, 1876.

THE Conservative Government under which we exist at present came into office as a defence against the worrying and harassing vigor of the previous Administration, but it seems to have caught the infection of vigor from its predecessor, and even to have taken the disease in an aggravated form. The Gladstone Government was satisfied with disestablishing an effete church in Ireland, and doing tardy justice to a great nation for a piece of culpable negligence on the part of the Home Administration. The Disraeli Government flies at higher game. It proposes to turn upside down the relation which has always existed between the Indian Government and the Secretary of State for India, and to insist that, for the future, the affairs of two hundred and forty millions of people shall be regulated by an official sitting in a snug room in Downing Street at one end of an electric telegraph wire, the other end being in Calcutta, or Simla, or wherever the Governor-General of India may happen to be. It proposes, further, to remodel the hereditary monarchy of Great Britain and Ireland, and (I quote Mr. Disraeli's words—words which any lackey in the kingdom would have been ashamed to use) "to add splendor to the British throne" by setting up a shoddy title of "Empress" in addition to the old historical title of Queen. It also contemplates, in connection with France and Italy, the financial re-establishment of a wily bankrupt potentate, and to perform in Egypt the miracle which baffled the ingenuity of the Israelites of old—to make bricks without straw. And, by way of reposing from its labors abroad, it has turned its attention to one of the most powerful interests in England, the two great Universities, and has introduced a measure into the House of Lords which, if it passes into law, may mould for good or for evil the character of one of our great centres of culture and education for generations to come.

It is on this bold flight of the present Government that I propose to send you a few lines to-day.

Five-and-twenty years ago the Universities were doing, comparatively with their resources, but little good. They were governed by antiquated codes of statutes. Legislation was initiated and the government administered by a Board consisting of the Heads of Houses and the Proctors—an administration which has been well described as an "organized torpor." Debates on University matters were, by statute, conducted in Latin. None were admitted on matriculation who would not sign the Thirty-nine Articles of the Church of England, and college fellowships were restricted to those who could solemnly declare themselves, under the Act of Uniformity, to be members of the church. Professorial teaching hardly existed. Fellowships, with one or two exceptions, were given by favor or for considerations among which learning was the least. The requisites for election at All Souls' College at Oxford, for instance, were birth, dress, and a modicum of learning. The dogma contained in the words, "Bene natus, bene vestitus, et moderate doctus," comprised the modest catalogue of attributes for eligibility. Scholarships were nearly all close. Clerical restrictions were invariably imposed upon those who held any position of authority, and—to sum up the matter in three words—the ecclesiastical spirit of the Middle Ages brooded over the whole life of the Universities.

But a mighty change has come over them in the last quarter of a century. In 1850, Lord Russell issued a Royal Commission to enquire into the state, discipline, studies, and revenues of the Universities, and in 1854 and 1856 he introduced measures founded on the report of this Commission and passed them into law. Under these laws the Universities have been regulated until the present day. Since then there has been good and useful work done where there was little but idleness and inactivity before. In 1850, the whole number of Oxford undergraduates was 1,402; in 1875, they numbered 2,240. The scholarships are now, for the most part, open to competition, and the more important fellowships, instead of being given away by favor or by the accident of birth, are held by those who have gained them by examination. Outside the University circles, too, the University influence has steadily extended. Examinations of pupils trained in middle-class schools have been organized; academical lectures and classes have been established in populous centres; and a "Public Schools Exami-

nation Board" has been set on foot for the purpose of examining thoroughly and independently the leading schools in England. These schools in their turn direct their energies to train up scholars qualified to compete for the University prizes. The head-masters of the fifteen great public schools, nearly all the head-masters of 180 metropolitan and provincial grammar-schools, and most of the assistant-masters in all these schools, are graduates of Oxford or Cambridge. The great body of the clergymen and barristers, all the bishops, and nearly two-thirds of the judges are University men. The national schools and the public board schools are for the most part managed by clergymen who have been trained at one of the older Universities. The Education Office is made up of Oxford and Cambridge graduates. Out of 123 school-inspectors all but ten or twelve come from one of the two Universities. The Civil-Service Commission, in like manner, which superintends the examinations for the civil and military service, is recruited from the same stock, all the commissioners, secretaries, directors of examinations, and examiners having been selected, with the rarest exceptions, from one or other of the older Universities. The present House of Commons, which is not one in which culture predominates, contains not less than 225 members who were educated either at Oxford or Cambridge. In Mr. Gladstone's original Cabinet ten Ministers out of fifteen were Oxford or Cambridge men. In the present Cabinet, Mr. Disraeli is the only Minister who has not received a University education. If he had enjoyed that advantage, his eccentric imagination might have been toned down, and his taste for tinsel and theatrical effects might have lost some of its exuberance.

From these statistics it is obvious that the Universities are doing good work; but Lord Salisbury thinks that they ought to do better. During the time of Mr. Gladstone's Administration every institution in the country was called upon to give an account of itself, and to show cause why it should not be reformed, and the two Universities were no exceptions. A Commission was appointed to investigate the state of the finances of the two Universities, and to report upon them. It was precluded from entering into the general question of the reform of these institutions, or from issuing any recommendations as to the application of endowments. An opportunity of making enquiry as to the effect of the legislation of 1854 and 1856 was thus lost; but, as regards Oxford, Lord Salisbury has entered the field as a reformer. He finds that the report of the Finance Commissioners has brought out a better state of things than was anticipated. The total revenues of the two Universities amount to about £750,000 a year, but it does not appear that this large sum is to any great extent misappropriated. The bursars who have the control of the college affairs have proved themselves to be, if not heaven-born men of business, at least fairly economical stewards of the collegiate property. But it has been manifested at the same time that there is a striking disparity in the expenditure of the different colleges—that whereas some colleges educate their students at £80 to £100 a year per head, others spend £250 to £300 on the same object. It appeared also that the colleges are rich while the University is poor, and that a considerable proportion of the college endowments—amounting in all to about £200,000 a year—is absorbed by what, with more than doubtful taste, Lord Salisbury thought fit to designate as "idle fellowships."

He proposes, therefore, to abolish many of these "idle fellowships," and to divert the endowments which are appropriated to them from collegiate to University purposes; and the machinery by which this diversion and the other reforms contemplated under the bill are to be carried out is the familiar one of an Executive Commission. The members of this body are to hold office for seven years, and they are to wield during that period what is practically despotic power over the University of Oxford, its organization and its endowments—saving only the headships of the different colleges. These are now almost exclusively restricted to clerical holders of the office, and with this restriction Lord Salisbury does not propose to interfere. The Commissioners are to have regard "to the interests of religion, learning, and research," and over professorships, fellowships, scholarships, and emoluments generally they are all but omnipotent. They may suppress, divide, consolidate, annex, or modify any emolument which is a hundred years old. They may put the endowments of any college or of all the colleges into a crucible and mix them up together, and then bring them out quite different things from what they were. They may apportion any endowment to any new purpose consistent with the main design of the founder. They may remove it from the college to which it is appropriated, and apply it to the University or to other purposes connected therewith, provided always they have regard to the interests aforesaid of religion, learning, and research. The only checks upon them are the appointment of three members of the college which is undergoing operation to sit with the Commissioners as representatives of the college, the sanction of the Queen in Council to the statutes framed by the Commissioners, and the acquiescence of Parliament for twelve weeks, during which the statutes are to lie on the tables of the two Houses respectively.

These are sweeping proposals, and it is obvious that, if they become law, a great opportunity is given to make the very best of the University and to turn it out equipped with all the most perfect appliances of the nineteenth century. But when proposals approaching to the character of these have been made by any previous Government, the Commissioners to be appointed have had certain guiding principles laid down for them, either in the act appointing them or in some previous report of a commission of enquiry. Lord Salisbury proposes to leave his Commissioners absolutely unfettered. He has given, as Lord Morley said on the second reading of the bill, "blank powers to a blank commission," and left them to do the best or worst they can. He has indicated a wish that more professorships should be established; that appliances and apparatus for study in science and art should be supplied; that "research" should be endowed; that the number of fellowships should be diminished; and that all matters connected with religion should be maintained *in statu quo—i.e.*, that there should be no diminution and no increase of clerical restrictions. These, however, are but expressions of Lord Salisbury's individual wishes, or, at the utmost, those of the existing Cabinet, and they have no necessary regulating or permanent effect.

The absence of any guiding principles on which the Commissioners must act is a serious blemish in the bill. But there are other blemishes which are more radical, and which rise to the dignity of something worse than blemishes. The tendency of the measure, and the tendency of Lord Salisbury's mind, is to re-establish the predominance of the clergy of the Established Church in the government both of the colleges and the University. University reformers looked for fundamental alterations in the existing constitution of the University. At present, the initiative in University legislation is taken by a body called "Congregation," which includes all Masters of Arts who reside within a mile of Oxford. No worse constituency could be well imagined. There are innumerable parish clergymen and college chaplains and clerical fellows resident within a mile of Oxford, but very few lay Masters of Arts or lay fellows. The laymen are engaged in their several occupations in London and elsewhere in the world outside the ecclesiastical and academic precincts. Liberals wish to see this body secularized, so to speak, but Lord Salisbury leaves it untouched. The heads of colleges are nearly all, *ex necessitate*, in holy orders. Liberals wish to see this restriction removed. Lord Salisbury expressly lays it down in his measure that these restrictions shall be preserved. Liberals maintain that the Universities owe everything to the influence of the non-resident lay fellows, who leaven the lump of ecclesiastical and academic narrow-mindedness contributed by the clerical fellows. Lord Salisbury calls the non-resident fellows "idle," and empowers his Commissioners to suppress all lay fellowships or convert them into clerical fellowships. It is certain that the ecclesiastical bias of the bill will not pass uncensured when it reaches the House of Commons. The Dissenters will rise as one man in antagonism to it, and the Liberal party will support them as they did upon the Endowed-Schools Bill two years ago.

Lord Salisbury has not played his cards with the adroitness that one would have expected from the framer of this measure. In the early part of his speech, in introducing the bill, he hung out a bait to allure the scientific men to side with him. He indicated that some part of the endowment from the suppressed fellowships would be devoted to scientific research and education. But he could not resist a sneer at a body of men for whom he has an undisguised contempt. He complained of the sceptical spirit of enquiry prevalent among men of science, and added that if they could only get professional appointments of £1,000 a year in a religious institution like Oxford they might become like Rabagas in the play, who was a republican when out of office, but who, when he came into power, ordered the troops to fire upon his ancient friends. The gratification of hurling this sneer among an able and sensitive set of eminent men may have pleased the clerical office-seekers and time-servers in the University, but it has alienated the body of men which his measure was intended to conciliate or to bribe into acquiescence.

JULIAN KLACZKO.

PARIS, March 24.

AFTER the battle of Sadowa, Julian Klaczko published in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* a series of articles, which were afterwards put together under the title of 'The Preliminaries of Sadowa.' Everybody was astonished to find the French language so admirably handled by a foreigner. Who was Julian Klaczko? Very little was known of him. He belonged to the Polish emigration, and was one of the habitual visitors of Prince

Adam Czartoryski at the Hôtel Lambert. He did not belong to the aristocratic families of the emigration, he had none of the characteristics of the humbler Poles: he was cosmopolitan in his tastes and habits, familiar with the politics of all the European countries. He had a strong individuality at a time when everybody sacrificed too much to conventionality. There are conventionalities in politics as well as in ordinary life; everybody must kneel before the "idols of the theatre," as Chancellor Bacon said of the divinities of public opinion. Julian Klaczko is of another disposition; he is always inclined to rebel against public opinion. He has adopted the motto of Horatius: "Odi profanum vulgus et arceo." He undertook the defence of Denmark at the time when everybody abandoned Denmark to the tender mercies of Germany and Austria. That he should speak for Poland at all times was quite natural, but he made himself the champion of Austria immediately after the crushing defeat of Sadowa. His book attracted so much attention that Beust, who had undertaken the difficult task of keeping together the *disjecta membra* of the old Empire, called Klaczko to Vienna, made him an Aulic Councillor, and attached him to the department of the Foreign Office. Klaczko was elected Deputy in Galicia, which is a Polish province, and sat in the Chamber of that province. So he became for a time quite an important personage; he was on the most intimate terms with Beust, and he was able to study those inner parts of politics which have always attracted him. He had become an Austrian, but his heart was always in France, where he had spent so many years of his life in poverty and obscurity. As a champion of old ideas, old religions, old dynasties, he had never liked Napoleon III. or the Bonapartes; he had ridiculed to excess the principle of nationalities, forgetting that his own Poland could stand on nothing but that principle; he had always been a partisan of the temporal power of the Papacy, and an enemy of Italian unity. The Imperialists had tried to bring him over to their cause, but all his instincts revolted against Bonapartism, which he identified with universal suffrage, coarse flattery of the people, contempt for all historical rights. Still, when Napoleon was defeated at Sedan, when France was invaded and had to submit to the terrible "væ victis," he alone in a European parliament had the courage to say a word for the victim. It was not his fault if the Parliament of Galicia was distant, and if the speech which he pronounced in it had no echo; I have seen it in print, and shall never forget it. Klaczko tried to prove that the fault of the Emperor was not the fault of France; that Germany must behave as the Allied Sovereigns had done in 1814 and 1815; that a war of self-defence ought not to become a war of conquest; that it behoved the old dynasties of Europe to respect those treaties and those historical rights which had been unfortunately despised by an upstart dynasty.

It was in vain. The shrill little voice was not even heard in the din of the armies. Klaczko was profoundly disgusted with the indifference of Austria. He resigned his post in the Galician Parliament, his place at the Foreign Office, and came back to France. I met him for the first time at Versailles during the first days of the Commune. We happened to have both found an asylum in the house of a common friend. This house was so full at the time that Klaczko had his bed made on the billiard-table. What long and sad conversations we held during the six weeks of this second siege of Paris! Klaczko had lost his illusions about Austria; he had seen the press of Vienna fed on the *Reptilienfund*; he knew better than anybody how weak the central power was becoming between the pretensions of the Magyars and the growing ambitions of the German party of the Eastern Provinces. There was no resource for the descendant of the King of the Romans but to become the instrument of the designs of the ruling minds of Berlin. The Reactionary party of Vienna was bigoted, silly, without ideas; the Progressive party rushed towards the "great Fatherland" as the iron goes to the magnet.

As for France, what would become of her? Her course was plain—she must shake off the memories of the Bonapartist rule, and return to her old monarchy. The Count de Chambord and the Princes of Orleans once united would give back to France the prestige which had been lost during the Revolutionary period and the rule of Napoleon. Such were the hopes of Klaczko, and, what must seem strange, he felt convinced at the time that M. Thiers was only gaining time and was determined to re-establish the constitutional monarchy as soon as the Germans should be out of France. He was almost angry with me when I told him at Versailles that M. Thiers was hostile to the monarchy, and would establish the Republic even with a monarchical Chamber. These conversations took place when everything seemed dark and confused; we heard every night the distant sound of the shells which were thrown from the forts nearest to Versailles.

I only enter into these details to give a more vivid idea of Klaczko; while you read his books you must always remember that he is a Pole, a Catholic, a Royalist, an aristocrat in every fibre of his nature. In a moment of discouragement some months ago he said to me: "I am getting tired of being more Royalist than kings, more conservative than millionaires, more French than Frenchmen." He really will never be tired of feeling strongly on all points; he often represents to me a sort of Julian the Apostate among the new Christians; he is loyal to the old gods; he is sincere in his faith; he is honestly shocked by the vulgarity, the coarseness, and the brutality of many of the new iconoclasts. This sincerity gives a singular charm to his political writings, and, I would almost say, an artistic value. His new work, entitled 'Two Chancellors,' is not only the diplomatic history of the last few years, it is something more; you will find in it the profound analysis of a psychologist delineating human characters—the characters of Prince Bismarck and Prince Gortchakoff, the two most interesting subjects of the day; you will find in it the lamentations of a new Jeremiah, who predicts the end of a world; the effusions of a soul wearied like that of Alfred de Musset when he said:

"Je suis venu trop tard dans un monde trop vieux."

The 'Two Chancellors,' like the 'Preliminaries of Sadowa,' appeared first in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, and the separate numbers are now united in a large volume. I will say at once that Klaczko's delineation of the policy of Bismarck and of Gortchakoff is one-sided, but from the side on which he places himself it is truly admirable. His book will always be consulted by those who attempt to form a true view of the momentous events which have filled Europe during the last years.

The details concerning the first part of the life of Prince Bismarck have been mostly taken from a work of Hesekiel, which appeared many years ago; they are familiar to the world. Everybody knows that Otto von Bismarck began his career as a *Junker*, a representative of the old high-and-dry Prussian party. Bismarck never was a brilliant scholar; he answered well to this definition of Saint-Marc Girardin: "It is needless for a statesman to know Latin well, it is enough for him to have forgotten it." He is, however, very familiar with the authors of his own race, with the Bible, and with Shakspere. Prince Gortchakoff, on the contrary, prides himself upon his scholarship, upon his beautiful French style; he has been called "the Narcissus of the inkstand." Gortchakoff has never had any occasion to speak in public. Bismarck has made for himself the reputation of an orator. He does not belong to the Ciceronian school; his eloquence is irregular, it knows no rules, but he finds at times phrases which can never be forgotten. Let us imagine, for instance, how a German Parliament must have received these words: "Be sure of one thing, gentlemen, we will not go to Canossa."

Klaczko cites some of these happy expressions. Speaking twenty years ago of the great struggles which were preparing in Germany, Bismarck said: "The decision will not come out of our parliamentary debates, it will come from the God of battles when he lets fall from his hands the iron dice of destiny." In the famous opera "Freischütz," Max, the unfortunate hunter, borrows a cartridge from Robin, who is a diabolical genius, and he immediately kills an eagle and adorns his hat with an eagle's feather. He asks Robin if he can have no more of these cartridges; Robin tells him that they are enchanted, and that he must, in order to have them, give up his soul to the Evil One. Max is afraid, and Robin tells him to his amazement that his soul is already lost: "Did you believe that this eagle was a gratuitous gift?" When the crown of Germany was offered to the King of Prussia by the Frankfort Parliament in 1849, Bismarck, who was still a *Junker*, urged the Hohenzollern not to accept the fatal gift. "Who brings it to our king?" said he: "it is radicalism; sooner or later radicalism will rise before the king, will demand its recompense, and, showing the emblem of the eagle on this new imperial flag, will shout: 'Did you believe that this eagle was a gratuitous gift?'" This is real eloquence. Bismarck may have forgotten these words; the imperial eagle is on the flag of the Hohenzollerns, and it may be that some day German radicalism will demand the price of its "enchanted cartridges."

It is not my object to give even a résumé of this new book of Klaczko; let us only enquire into its object. He has tried to prove that the Russian alliance has been the key-stone of the policy of Prince Bismarck, but that this alliance, while it gave all to Prussia, gave little or nothing to Russia; that the Russian Chancellor has been outwitted by the German Chancellor—that one has got the booty, and the other its shadow. The book has in consequence created much sensation in Russia, especially in the Old-Moscovite or National party. Prince Gortchakoff was once the pet, the favorite of that National, anti-Germanic party; and now Klaczko undertakes to prove that the German Mephistopheles has led the Russian Faust like a child.

Russia, as an empire, has the instinct of its vast and almost boundless strength, it has all the pride and ambition of a young nation; but its leaders cannot help knowing that this great strength is somewhat in a chaotic state; while everything is organized in Germany, everything is organizing in Russia. I would not compare Russian civilization to a mere theatre-curtain; I would not go so far as Prince Bismarck, who being in the habit, while he was in the diplomatic service, of having a new locket made for his watch when he left a country, with a device which characterized that country, had this word engraved on his Russian locket: "Nichts." It would be unwise to take him at his word; and we can recognize the true German doctrine of antinomy in this double opinion of Bismarck, who, though he knew that the gigantic empire of Russia was in a certain sense a useless and dormant force, still never made a single move in politics without securing first the neutrality or, if he could, the alliance of Russia. Nobody knows better than he that Russia, even though her railways are still unfinished, though her army is reorganizing very slowly, is in a certain measure the arbiter of Europe. She acts in the new equilibrium like a great weight, which, if suddenly removed, would derange everything. The imminence of great changes in the East gives much interest to the history of the recent relations between Russia and Germany. While the Russians have been somewhat angry with the denunciation of the faults of Prince Gortchakoff, the French official papers have accused Klaczko of compromising our good relations with Russia; for the French seem to believe now that there exists in Russia a distant Providence who will set all right again in Europe. "Rien n'est bête comme un fait," said Madame de Staël, and as much may sometimes be said of those who tell the facts. We must be simply grateful to Klaczko, who, if he takes away many of our illusions, does not feed us with lies and false hopes. He has shown us Europe as it is, he has presented to us a true Gortchakoff, not the ideal Chancellor whom so many innocent Frenchmen consider as the sentimental friend of France. It is better that we should know that we must trust only in ourselves: "Aide-toi, le ciel t'aidera."

Correspondence.

ANGLO-JEWISH HISTORY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: My attention has been called to some remarks contained in the issue of your journal of the 10th February on a book lately published by me under the title of 'Sketches of Anglo-Jewish History' (London: Trübner & Co. 1875). The mistakes and misstatements which appear in what I presume to be intended as a notice of my work are so singular, so inconceivable, as to leave me in doubt whether the writer has read the book or whether plain English words fail to convey any meaning to his mind. His errors are so numerous as to render it impossible for me to attempt to correct them; but I must ask you, as a simple act of justice, to permit me to point out some of his more glaring misrepresentations and blunders.

He says: "No historian has a right to demand that his narrative be accepted, *primâ facie*, as entitled to full credence, and particularly not an historian like Mr. Picciotto, who, with almost childlike credulity, and without the least attempt to make a critical sifting of his materials, records as true even the supposed miracles of a Falk Baal Shem, believed in by superstitious people in their time." I will not now discuss the writer's views of historical writing; it is enough for me to indicate the ludicrous mistakes into which he stumbles. The expression of "a Falk Baal Shem" completely exposes his ignorance. Falk was the proper name of the individual in question, and Baal Shem (Master of the Name) was the title given to those who claimed cabalistic powers. The writer's general assertion in this sentence is even more astounding. That he should not have perceived that the account of Dr. Falk's supposed miracles was written in a jocose and ironical strain is not singular in one of his mental faculties. But that a man who assumes the functions of a critic should be unable to understand simple English is certainly inexplicable. I will quote the following sentence, which occurs at the end of the chapter referred to, and which explains itself: "We will not undertake to say whether there is more in heaven and earth than we dream of in our philosophy; whether, as is more likely, De Falk's miracles partook of the nature of the feats performed by Robert Houdin, Professor Anderson, and Dr. Lynn; or whether, as is most probable of all, they were ordinary occurrences magnified into wonders by the love of the marvellous and of the supernatural obtaining in the mind of the vulgar." I leave it to readers possessed of ordinary intelligence to determine whether the above words imply a "childlike credulity" which "records as true even the supposed miracles of a Falk Baal Shem."

The next paragraph of the critic is as accurate and fair as the former. He complains that a branch of Anglo-Jewish history has been almost totally neglected, referring to the legal status of the Jews in England at different periods. He asks: "Can Jews be competent witnesses? Can they make bequests to synagogues and Jewish charities? How about their marriages and divorces?" Again I must enquire whether the writer has perused my book, or whether he is a foreigner, unable to appreciate the value of English terms. All these subjects have been treated in my book. The bequests of Jews to synagogues and charities have been repeatedly adverted to, and a whole lengthy chapter is devoted to an exhaustive account of Jewish marriages and divorces. Moreover, the writer proceeds to adduce certain facts which, he says, "we learn from the Law Reports," without acknowledging that the same facts are related in the work which he professes to review! We leave it to others to judge whether this is impartial or honest criticism.

I fear I have taken up already too much of your valuable space to extend any further my remarks. The observation of the critic with reference to my not having recorded, in an historical account of the Jews of London, the names of Christian students of Hebrew; his absurd comments on a potential blunder which did not occur; his amusing condescension at my non-adoption of his erroneous form of spelling foreign names; and his concluding remarks on the "Star Chamber"—all argue a confusion of mind and a want of acquaintance with his subject seldom met with in a professed instructor of the public.

Requesting the favor of the insertion of my communication in an early number of your journal, I am, Sir, yours truly,

James Picciotto.

London, February 24, 1876.

[Mr. Picciotto has given ample proof in his book that his knowledge of Hebrew is very limited; but in his explanation of the term "Falk Baal Shem" he is for once right, and in full accord with the review in the *Nation*. We have re-read the three pages allotted to this cabalistic mountebank, and, though the narrative of his performances is for the most part neither jocose nor ironical, and everything is described as having "actually" occurred, we find ourselves to have been in error in imputing to Mr. Picciotto downright belief in Falk's miracles. We probably differ with him as to the place which such anecdotes merit in a serious history. Of the "miracles" of a Shabthai Zebi in the XVIIth century, or of an Israel Baal Shem in the XVIIIth century, an account must be given in Jewish history, for they were of deep and far-reaching consequences, and the Chassidism so widely prevailing even nowadays among the Jews in Eastern Europe, is witness how much minds were stirred and how great the commotion was which was called forth by the cabalists just mentioned. But a "Dr. de Falk"—strike him out altogether from the history of the Jews in general, or of English Jews especially, and not the least link will be broken in the chain of events.

Mr. Picciotto is dissatisfied with our remarks in regard to his neglect to pursue the historical development of the legal status of the Jews in England. Nevertheless, our complaint must be reiterated. If anything in Anglo-Jewish history is of captivating interest, it is the history of the legislation and of the application of the laws concerning the Jews. That English Jews were once not admitted as competent witnesses before the courts, and that, until a comparatively short time ago, Jews had great legal difficulties in making bequests to their own synagogues and charities; that, even as late as 1860, an English Chancery Court had to decide on the validity of such a bequest (see 28 Beavan's Reports, in the matter of Michel's Trust)—of all these points Mr. Picciotto has not mentioned one syllable. To say that "the bequests of Jews to their synagogues and charities have been repeatedly adverted to," is a piece of sophistry on his part. He mentioned certain Jewish bequests, but it never entered into his head to treat of the laws of the realm affecting such bequests. To Jewish marriages, it is true, he devotes a chapter; but he has done no justice to the subject, and his treatment of it is superficial and inadequate. There is still a large field left for historical investigations; but the investigator must be able to follow the traces of the organic growth and development of laws and

usages, and to become a pathfinder in the labyrinthian mass o material. Thus, for instance, in regard to the question whether a Jew can testify before a court, see 1 Atkyn, Omychund *agt.* Barker; in regard to marriages and divorces, see 1 Haggard's Eccles. Rep., Lindo *agt.* Belisario; in regard to bequests to synagogues, see Beavan, *ut supra;* see also the English cases cited in Story's 'Equity Jurisprudence,' vol. ii., § 1168. These few references must suffice here. We will only add that even the term "defend," in the technical law phrase "to warrant and to defend," as used to-day in deeds of warranty, originated, as we learn from one of the English 'Year-Books,' in the exceptional legal state of the English Jews in the Middle Ages. But all this, it seems, is a *terra incognita* to our author.

As for our erroneous form of spelling foreign names, we need only repeat that it is simply ridiculous to spell the very common and widely-used proper name "Zebi," *Ziwy;* that there is no reason for preferring the corrupt, vulgar form *Phaibul* (local in Germany and Poland) to "Phœbus," also not a rare name among Jews; nor any for speaking repeatedly of persons bearing the family name *Netto*, while books printed by them in English, Spanish, and Italian prove by their title-pages that the name is "Nieto." A little more of elementary knowledge for his undertaking, and a little less of Spanish *grandezza*, would be not unbecoming in Mr. Picciotto. We can assure him and our readers that our review was not as severe as it might and perhaps should have been.—Ed. Nation.]

Notes.

ROBERTS BROS., Boston, announce 'Revolutionary Times,' by Rev. Edward Abbott; 'Discourses' by the late President Walker, of Harvard College; 'Meditations on the Essence of Christianity,' by the Rev. R. Laird Collier; 'Art-Schools of Mediæval Christendom,' by A. C. Owen; and 'Stories for Summer Afternoons,' by "Susan Coolidge."——Lee & Shepard will publish 'Young Folks' History of American Adventure,' by T. W. Higginson.——'A Centennial Commissioner in Europe, 1874–6,' by John W. Forney, is announced by J. B. Lippincott & Co.——Macmillan & Co. publish immediately 'The Hunting of the Snark,' by Lewis Carroll, author of 'Alice's Adventures.'——An illustrated 'Comic Centennial History of the United States,' by Livingston Hopkins (New York: Carleton), may, if the author has a keen sense of *bouffe*, prove to be very amusing.——John Campbell & Son, Philadelphia, have in press 'The Question of Resumption of Specie Payments Stated and Examined,' by J. W. Schuckers.——J. H. Coates & Co. have devised and will issue immediately a 'Memoir of the Centennial Exhibition,' being an illustrated album in which to write a personal narrative of one's visit; and 'Centennial Notes,' another album to serve for rough notes on which to base the fuller account in the 'Memoir.'——J. B. Ford & Co. have in press 'The *Forest and Stream* Hand-book for Riflemen,' a manual of instructions for the organization and conduct of rifle associations.——M. L. Simonin has just gathered the five articles he has contributed to the *Revue des Deux Mondes* on New York, Chicago, and St. Louis, the Great Lakes, the subterranean riches, and the railroads, into a volume now announced by Hachette & Cie. as in press, under the title of 'La Monde Américain: Souvenirs de mes Voyages aux États-Unis.' There has also just been published in Paris 'Le Pouvoir Exécutif aux États-Unis: Étude de Droit Constitutionnel,' by Adolphe de Chambrun.——Dr. Koner's annual classified catalogue of geographical publications (November, 1874–75) fills ninety-seven pages of No. 60 of the Berlin Geographical Society's *Zeitschrift* (Berlin: Dietrich Reimer; New York: L. W. Schmidt).

—Unlike the library of the late S. G. Drake, of which we spoke the other day, the library of Mr. E. G. Squier, to be sold by Bangs, Merwin & Co. on the 24th inst., might well be purchased *en bloc* by any institution able to command the means. It is, with very few miscellaneous admixtures, composed of works bearing on American and particularly Central and South American archæology and ethnology, and as a collection is probably without a rival. Latin, Spanish, French, Italian, and German publications are plentiful. Eleven bound volumes of pamphlets relate to interoceanic communications, prehistoric man, crania, language, American antiquities, the discovery of America, the South American republics, archæology, etc., etc. Fourteen volumes of newspapers and pamphlets preserve invaluable material for the political history of Central America. A large number of works relate to a canal across the American isthmus. Mr. Squier's own works amount to forty-five numbers in several languages, not including the thirty-five bound volumes of *Frank Leslie's Illustrated Newspaper*, of which Mr. Squier was for some time the editor: at the end of the catalogue a very remarkable bibliography of this prolific writer will be found. Inedited MS., all Spanish, occupy sixty-five numbers. There is a very valuable collection of 152 printed maps, mostly of Mexico, Central and South America, and the West Indies, besides 27 MS. maps. A certain number of engravings, and eight original drawings by Catherwood, complete the variety. We have not the space to indicate individual works of great rarity or importance. With the catalogue is bound up as addenda another library, much smaller, but fairly rich in Americana, containing eight volumes of Jesuit Relations (not including the Dablon of Squier's No. 253, nor the later Relations of his No. 667), and a portion of Humboldt's library, of which the first title happens to be Preston S. Brooks's speech at Columbia on occasion of the presentation to him of a pitcher, a goblet, and a cane. The other works are largely Humboldt's own, most curious of all being the bound folio collection of the savant's diplomas, passports, orders of knighthood, etc., etc.—181 in all; a monument of departed greatness which it seems singular that Germany could ever have let go out of her limits.

—A resident of Waltham, Mass., writes us to make the following correction:

"In the 'Notes' of the *Nation* for March 23 it is said incidentally that the lecture system of this country had its rise in Essex County, Mass. The Rumford Institute for Mutual Instruction in Science and Arts was organized in Waltham, Middlesex County, Mass., Dec. 20, 1826, its chief means of instruction being lectures and discussions, commencing Feb. 10, 1827. Nov. 14, 1828, delegates were chosen to represent the Institute at a meeting at Concord on the 16th of November, for the purpose of organizing a county lyceum. According to Dr. Wheatland, of the Essex Institute, 'On the 6th of November, 1827, the Essex Lodge of Freemasons in Salem voted to have a series of literary and scientific lectures, which commenced in January, 1828'—the first in Essex County. The County Lyceum for Essex was organized Dec. 30, 1829. For twenty-five years the Rumford Institute was rigidly devoted to the letter of the purpose of its organization. Its later history gives point to the subject of the 'Note.'"

Chronologically, our correspondent is in the right. The authority on which we relied, trusting to memory, was a memoir of Francis Peabody, by the Rev. Chas. W. Upham, read before the Essex Institute July 18, 1868, and printed in Vol. I., Part II., of the Institute's Historical Collections (Salem, 1869). Mr. Upham gives a full account of the formation of the Essex County Lyceum, and says (p. 54):

"There had been a few similar institutions elsewhere before. That in Beverly [Essex Co.] has been mentioned. Bernard Whitman, whose memory is dear to all who knew him, and must be cherished for ever by the friends of truth and progress, had, in 1826, established what he called a Rumford Institute in Waltham, and there were one or two others in portions of Worcester and Middlesex Counties. *But it may safely be said that the proceedings at Topsfield and here* [Salem] *originated the institution as a diffusive energy over the country at large.*"

Mr. Upham also gives a list of the lectures in the first two courses delivered before the Essex County Lyceum, which the curious will find worth consulting.

—During the month ending May 10, Connecticut teachers and schoolchildren, to the number of two hundred, have a chance to earn one dollar and an honest distinction in the following manner: Whoever shall plant, or cause to be planted, either on the school-grounds or along any street, five trees, each not less than nine feet in height, and either elm, maple, ash, white-oak, or walnut; and shall report the planting within the time specified to Mr. B. G. Northrop, Secretary of the State Board of Education; and shall further, after August 1, procure and forward the certificate of any school visitor that the five trees are at that date all alive—such teacher or scholar will receive from Mr. Northrop the sum of one dollar, unless a copy of his 'Education Abroad' is preferred. Of all the Centennial manias, this is certainly one of the most rational and useful, and we hope that Secretary Northrop's two hundred dollars will be all called for, and that by next August Connecticut may be from one to two thousand trees the better off in consequence of his offer. That private tree-planting will also be stimulated by it may be expected. The setting out in a favorable place a healthy tree of the longer-lived species is one of the most natural modes of marking the Centennial year, and ought to be extensively indulged in. The measurement of such trees at intervals of five and ten years would furnish valuable data as to their rate of growth, and would also tend to distinguish and preserve them. A State enterprise of a scientific character

has been petitioned for in Massachusetts by Dr. Asa Gray and other eminent citizens of Cambridge. They ask the General Court to purchase in the eastern part of the State a tract of forest land, comprising an area of five or six square miles, to remain a perpetual growth of wood, under conditions favorable to the development of all its spontaneous productions—a reserve not only for the flora but for the fauna of the district. It is intended that the tract shall embrace a great variety of soil and surface, with so little arable land that it would not be missed for cultivation.

—The history of a church is not so difficult to write as that of a county, and though the time is at best short, it seems likely that the Congregational churches of Connecticut will all listen on Sunday, July 9, to an historical discourse, "pointing out especially the relations of the church and its pastors to civil affairs, and recounting the part performed by them in the war of Independence and the recent war for the Union." Such was the recommendation of the General Conference at Norwich last November, and the circular containing it and other suggestions for Centennial observances by the same churches has just been sent out. Pains will be taken to have these discourses written for preservation on paper of uniform size, as well as printed uniformly; and as a depository for the archives of the Congregational denomination in the State, a suitable building has been secured in Hartford. This it is proposed to purchase, by collections made on the date above-mentioned, for the sum of fifty thousand dollars, which if assessed as a poll-tax on communicants would make the rate one dollar for every church-member.

—An injury has, we fear, been inflicted on the Centennial celebration by the acceptance, as a portion of the opening ceremonies, of a "Cantata" written by Mr. Sidney Lanier, which, we understand, is to be sung by a chorus of some five or six hundred voices. It is entitled the "Centennial Meditation of Columbia," and the personification of the universal Yankee nation is represented as indulging in reflections such as—

> "Humbler smiles and lordlier tears
> Shine and fall, shine and fall,
> While old voices rise and call
> Yonder where the to-and-fro
> Weltering of my Long-Ago
> Moves about the moveless base
> Far below my resting-place,"

and much more which reads like a communication from the spirit of Nat Lee, rendered through a Bedlamite medium. In one sense, perhaps, it is suitable to a commemoration of the Declaration of Independence, as it is a practical assertion of emancipation from the ordinary laws of sense and sound, melody and prosody. Seriously, but that the music is already composed for it, we should hope it was not too late to save American letters from the humiliation of presenting to the assembled world such a farrago as this as their choicest product.

—We have no desire to "roll back the ball of discussion" in the direction of Mr. Clarence Cook, but we cannot see why he should object to our description of his treatment of expense in his household-furniture articles in *Scribner's* as "tortuous." On page 809 in the current number, Mr. Cook declares that "he stands by all he has said about economy and simplicity, and the possibility of making our houses attractive without at the same time making ourselves uncomfortable by spending more money than we can afford in furnishing and decorating"; while on page 810 he says:

"Take the table and chair figured in the article for January (No. 5), which one person singles out as being doubtless more expensive than they look. Why were these objects chosen as illustrations? Was it because they were costly? Most certainly not. The writer never asked what they cost, and does not know."

But as an æsthetic moralist (we say moralist, because Mr. Cook's use of epithets shows him to belong to a school which is careful to permit few distinctions between the moral law and the laws of taste), he must know that to advise people that economy and the possession of worthy furniture are compatible, and to assure them at the same time that he has never asked and does not know what this kind of furniture costs, is behavior which the friendly critic will call "tortuous" and the hostile caviller might term a barefaced contradiction. Mr. Cook urges as a further defence that the consideration of cost in the case of the pretty tables, stools, candlesticks, and beds he would have us possessed of, "does not affect us, because their costliness is in their material, in the wood the table is made of, in the stuff the chair is covered with. And it was not their material, but their forms, that was the subject of praise. If a person should take a fancy to either chair or table, and if he should find on enquiry that the cost, as the piece stands in the shop, was beyond his means, let him have the table made out of pine, and the chair covered with chintz; they will give a different pleasure from that they would have given in their original garment, but it will be a new pleasure as good as the old." This seems to us to betray rather a scholastic ingenuity than critical soundness. What pleases us in furniture and household decoration is not simply the form, but the material as well, and no one who can get a mahogany table for his dining-room will be persuaded that a pine table of the same form will do as well, nor by any process of reasoning can the owner of the pine table be prevented from coveting the mahogany table. The most noticeable of the other articles in *Scribner's* for April is perhaps a criticism of Jules Janin, by an anonymous writer, who has not suffered his judgment to be blinded by the success of his subject. Janin was one of those prolific Frenchmen who are read seriously by their own countrymen, but to Englishmen or Americans are simply ludicrous. He was an editor who could write twelve columns a week of dramatic criticism, and to such a man many literary peccadilloes—such as putting Bordeaux on the sea-coast, Marseilles at the mouth of the Rhone, making Smyrna an island, describing Charlemagne as a leader of the first Crusade, and referring to Shakspere, Schiller, Byron, and himself as contemporaries, and uttering a sigh over Shakspere's recent death—may be forgiven. In one of Thackeray's minor essays he quotes from Janin as from a jest-book for the benefit of the Anglo-Saxon world; and yet Janin died a member of the Academy, and has had his *éloge* pronounced by M. Lemoinne. It is impossible to avoid a suspicion that the atmosphere in which such a plant as Janin could flourish must have been the reverse of critical or healthy. In fact, Janin might be taken as the type of the noxious growths by which true literature in any country, if we were to give up the wholesome practice of mutual denigration, would soon be surrounded and swallowed up.

—General Custer's reminiscences are always pleasant reading, and we have found his article in the current number of the *Galaxy* no exception to the rule. He entered West Point in 1857, and therefore would have graduated in 1862 had the old course of five years been maintained. The breaking out of the war, however, and the demand for officers caused by it, induced the Government to fix the term at four years—as it had formerly been. In this way two classes were graduated in 1861, and General Custer had an early opportunity to give proof of his military quality. His career, however, came very near being nipped in the bud by an unfortunate occurrence (of which he gives an amusing account), and which consisted of his violating propriety and duty as officer of the guard by interfering in a fight between two cadets, not for the purpose of bringing it to an end, but to keep off intruders and partisans and enable the boys to have a fair fight. There is always something amusing in the solemnity of military discipline when applied to boys, and it is impossible to avoid a smile in reading of the immediate appearance on the ground of Lieutenants Hazen and Merrill (names which now have only serious associations), and the stern enquiry of the former addressed to Custer, "Why did you not suppress the riot which occurred here a few minutes ago?" or of the subsequent arrest and court-martial of the boy; the specification setting forth that "he, the said cadet Custer, did fail to suppress a riot or disturbance near the guard-tent, and did fail to separate, etc., but, on the contrary, did cry out in a loud tone of voice, 'Stand back, boys, let's have a fair fight,' or words to that effect." General Custer's "War Memoirs" ought to make an entertaining book.

—Mr. G. P. Lathrop has an article in the *Atlantic* on "Early American Novelists," in which he discusses the vexed question of the relation between the Novel and Society. Have we a society "in our midst"? and if so, what and where is it? If it exists, what materials does it offer to the novelist or satirist? As we understand Mr. Lathrop, there is no immediate hope of any satisfactory answer to these questions. He says that what we need is "some one of sprightly instinct and sound judgment, who shall measure the deflections of society from the ideal by his own educated, honest consciousness—not by any imported convention, however excellent in its place—and shall then hit off his observations with wit enough to make laughter drown discontent. The reason of this is that with us there exists no social code to which readers the country through defer; it will be very long before such a code can be established, and none will ever be generally recognized among us, it is to be hoped, not based on principles more generous than those governing Old-World societies." He adds that "American manners in the best and broadest sense . . . as yet only admit of a partial definition. . . . We find in them a prevailing tone of common-sense, compensating for a great deal of vulgarity, a humorous perception of propriety, a fine tact, and great faith in human nature." These, he declares, are "healthy traits," and to these must the appeal be made by any one who wishes to "exhibit our manners." There is a good deal of vagueness about all this, nor can we quite understand what Mr. Lathrop means when he says: "I await with great interest and curiosity, however, novels which shall do justice to the extraordinary and thrilling situation of forty million people who unite in pining for a society, and who, meanwhile, remain absolutely des-

titute of emotions and in some unaccountable way deprived of their human nature." Forty million people in such a case would certainly present an extraordinary spectacle, and even a lonely savage pining for a society, who at the same time should remain "absolutely destitute of emotions" and "deprived of his human nature," would be quite enough for ordinary purposes, though what the novelist whom Mr. Lathrop awaits would do with him it is difficult to guess. These minor doubts apart, there is one peculiarity of American society which, for the past generation, has done much to spoil it as material for literature of the kind Mr. Lathrop has in view, and to which little attention has been paid. We refer to the almost complete divorce which has been effected in the great centres of American life between what is technically known as good society and political life. That portion of the literary class which "exhibits manners"—that is to say, novelists—have, from time immemorial, kept up more or less close connections with society, in the restricted sense of the term; with people who are rich, or well educated, or well born, and masters of sufficient leisure to devote a considerable part of their time to amusement. In most countries, and down to recent times in this country, these same classes have always had a strong hold upon the government of the country. The same people who have formed "good society" have in a great measure governed their fellow-creatures. It was from these classes that down to recent times the political ranks, even in local municipal bodies like the city government of New York, have been largely recruited. The effect of the connection between society and politics was of course to strengthen and invigorate society, and to make it interesting. It gave common subjects of conversation and ambition—gave distinctness and form to character, and, in fact, made a real social *milieu*. This is all now greatly changed. By a gradual process, politics has been made a business extremely distasteful to men of education and to gentlemen who have a regard for their reputation. "Society" has contracted first a distaste and then an aversion to politics as an unclean thing. The result is that a separation has been effected, and politics and society maintain separate establishments. You may go into society for a whole winter in New York and not hear politics mentioned from the beginning to the end, or meet any one connected with "the governing class." Society to be interesting needs politics, and the divorce improves neither. Society becomes frivolous and empty, while politics, freed from social restraints, becomes what we see it in Tweed or Shepherd and the "boys." The exhibitor of manners is therefore nowadays in rather a quandary. If he exhibits the manners of politicians, he finds himself describing a sort of thieves' paradise; while, if he sticks to "good society," as his instincts would prompt him, he finds himself in an atmosphere slightly too inane for literature. There is, we believe, no instance of any well-known American writer of fiction who has gone with success to "society" for his materials, and this, too, in an age when in England it has been to "exhibitors of manners," such as Trollope, Thackeray, Bulwer, and Disraeli, a mine of wealth.

—The death of Mr. A. T. Stewart has probably excited more interest than that of any other rich American in recent times except Mr. Astor, and perhaps he ought not to be excepted. Although Mr. Stewart's life was essentially devoid of romance, there always surrounded it an air of mystery. It was not enough to know that Mr. Stewart came from Ireland, had a good education, built up his enormous business by steady application and industry, and had been, partly on account of his wealth, and partly on account of his services to the Republican party, nominated as Secretary of the Treasury by President Grant. The public curiosity could not be appeased without more knowledge than this. Was it true that Mr. Stewart retained through his career his interest in classical studies, and solaced his leisure moments with Homer and Virgil? Would he have succeeded as he did had he been a man of no education? What sort of a Secretary would he have made if he had been confirmed by the Senate? Did he use his money as a "truly good man" would have done? And last, but not least, what did he mean to do with it? These were questions which the difficulty of obtaining any answer made peculiarly interesting. We do not profess to be able to answer them. There is, however, one point of very lasting and general interest on which such careers as this throw some light, and that is the futility of all attempts to bring about equality in wealth in modern commercial communities. Measured in money, the accumulations of Mr. Stewart went as far beyond what any ordinary merchant can hope for as the acquisitions of the most unscrupulous predatory baron in feudal times could have gone beyond the gains of his rivals; and yet one had only the advantages given by a good training and perseverance, while the other had highway robbery, murder, arson, fire, and sword on his side. Yet starting with no more than an "equal chance," Mr. Stewart finished by controlling the market, and was what the Grangers would call a monopolist. But, on the other hand, though careers like his dissipate the illusions of those who dream of an equality of wealth, they also vindicate the convictions of those who have believed that the true function of the state is not to repress enterprise and ambition by preventing the accumulation of wealth, but to regulate its use and provide against the abuse of the power which comes by it. The vast wealth and business which Mr. Stewart created, so far from injuring the public, were a direct advantage to every one in the community in which he lived. He did not grind the faces of the poor, not because they were his "equals," but because, even if he had wanted to do so, he could not; the triumph of justice and law over force and fraud has in modern times and law-governed countries made wealth a benefaction, not a curse.

—The fifth volume of Lanfrey's 'Histoire de Napoléon I.' (New York: F. W. Christern) includes the period from the battle of Wagram to the march into Russia. The characteristic of M. Lanfrey's style is a readableness that results from clearness of perspective. No details are inserted which lack bearing upon the main issues. In the earlier volumes Napoleon's duplicity was exposed, and his rise in power unravelled, in such a way that one is convinced that he differed from Mr. Benjamin F. Butler not in methods but in scale. In the present volume, his power having passed its height, the growth of his infatuation is clearly proved, especially in his attempt to obtain possession of Spain. The details of Wellington's campaigns are explained as clearly as if M. Lanfrey had been a general, without the monotonous style of most experts. Of our author's lack of acquaintance with other writers upon the same topics we have spoken before, as constituting his chief defect as a historian. An American, in reading this first volume, is made to regret Jefferson's infatuation for the Emperor when he learns that in 1810 Napoleon's minister, Fouché, proposed, in a negotiation with England, that the latter country should unite with France in a joint war against us. If Madison had been aware of this, would he have made war on the side of our chief enemy?

FORSTER'S LIFE OF SWIFT.*

I.

THE cathedral of St. Patrick's, dreary enough in itself, seems to grow damper and chillier as one's footsteps disturb the silence between the grave of its famous Dean and that of Stella, in death as in life near yet divided from him, as if to make their memories more inseparable and prolong the insoluble problem of their relation to each other. Nor was there wanting, when we made our pilgrimage thither, a touch of grim humor in the thought that our tipsy guide (Clerk of the Works he had dubbed himself for the nonce), as he monotonously recited his contradictory anecdotes of the "sullybrutted Dane," varied by times with an irrelative hiccough of his own, was no inapt type of the ordinary biographers of Swift. The skill with which long practice had enabled our cicerone to turn these involuntary hitches of his discourse into rhetorical flourishes, and well-nigh to make them seem a new kind of conjunction, would have been invaluable to the Dean's old servant Patrick, but in that sad presence his grotesqueness was as shocking as the clown in one of Shakspere's tragedies to Châteaubriand. A shilling sent him back to the neighboring pot-house whence a half-dozen ragged volunteers had summoned him, and we were left to our musings. One dominating thought shouldered aside all others—namely, how strange a stroke of irony it was, how more subtle even than any of the master's own, that our most poignant association with the least sentimental of men should be one of sentiment, and that a romance second only to that of Abélard and Héloïse should invest the memory of him who had done more than all others together to strip life and human nature of their last instinctive decency of illusion. His life, or such accounts as we had of it, had been full of antitheses as startling as if some malign enchanter had embodied one of Macaulay's characters as a conundrum to bewilder the historian himself. A generous miser; a sceptical believer; a devout scoffer; a tender-hearted misanthrope; a churchman faithful to his order yet loathing to wear its uniform; an Irishman hating the Irish, as Heine did the Jews, because he was one of them, yet defending them with the scornful fierceness of one who hated their oppressors more; a man honest and of statesmanlike mind, who lent himself to the basest services of party politics for purely selfish ends; a poet whose predominant faculty was that of disidealizing; a master of vernacular style, in whose works an Irish editor finds hundreds of faults of English to correct; strangest of all, a middle-aged clergyman of brutal coarseness, who could inspire two young,

* 'The Life of Jonathan Swift. By John Forster.' Vol. I. London: Murray; New York: Harper & Bros.

beautiful, and clever women, the one with a fruitless passion that broke her heart, the other with a love that survived hope and faith to suck away the very sources of that life whereof it was the only pride and consolation. No wonder that a new life of so problematic a personage as this should be awaited with eagerness, the more that it was to be illustrated with much hitherto unpublished material and was to be written by the practised hand of Mr. Forster. Inconsistency of conduct, of professed opinion, whether of things or men, we can understand; but an inconsistent character is something without example, and which nature abhors as she does false logic. Opportunity may develop, hindrance may dwarf, the prevailing set of temptation may give a bent to character, but the germ planted at birth can never be wholly disnatured by circumstance any more than soil or exposure can change an oak into a pine. Character is continuous, it is cumulative, whether for good or ill; the general tenor of the life is a logical sequence from it, and a man can always explain himself to himself, if not to others, as a coherent whole, because he always knows, or thinks he knows, the value of x in the personal equation. Were it otherwise, that sense of conscious identity which alone makes life a serious thing and immortality a rational hope, would be impossible. It is with the means of finding out this unknown quantity—in other words, of penetrating to the man's motives or his understanding of them—that the biographer undertakes to supply us, and unless he succeed in this, his rummaging of old papers but raises a new cloud of dust to darken our insight.

If Mr. Forster's mind had not the penetrative, illuminating quality of genius, he was not without some very definite qualifications for his task. The sturdy temper of his intellect fits him for a subject which is beset with pitfalls for the sentimentalizer. A finer sense might recoil before investigations whose importance is not at first so clear as their promise of unsavoriness. So far as Mr. Forster has gone, we think he has succeeded in the highest duty of a biographer: that of making his subject interesting and humanly sympathetic to the reader—a feat surely of some difficulty with a professed cynic like Swift. He lets him in the main tell his own story—a method not always trustworthy, to be sure, but safer in the case of one who, whatever else he may have been, was almost brutally sincere when he could be so with safety or advantage. Still, it should always be borne in mind that he *could* lie with an air of honest candor fit to deceive the very elect. The author of the 'Battle of the Books' (written in 1697) tells us in the preface to the Third Part of Temple's 'Miscellanea' (1701) that he "cannot well inform the reader upon what occasion" the essay upon Ancient and Modern Learning "was writ, having been at that time in another kingdom"; and the professed confidant of a ministry, whom the Stuart Papers have proved to have been in correspondence with the Pretender, puts on an air of innocence (in his 'Enquiry into the Behavior of the Queen's last Ministry') and undertakes to convince us that nothing could be more absurd than to accuse them of Jacobitism. It may be, as Orrery asserted, that Swift was "employed, not trusted," but this is hardly to be reconciled with Lewis's warning him on the Queen's death to burn his papers, or his own jest to Harley about the one being beheaded and the other hanged. The fact is that, while in certain contingencies Swift was as unscrupulous a liar as Voltaire, he was naturally open and truthful, and showed himself to be so whenever his passions or his interest would let him. That Mr. Forster should make a hero of the man whose life he has undertaken to write is both natural and proper; for without sympathy there can be no right understanding, and a hearty admiration is alone capable of that generosity in the interpretation of conduct to which all men have a right, and which he needs most who most widely transcends the ordinary standards or most resolutely breaks with traditionary rules. That so virile a character as Swift should have been attractive to women is not wonderful, but we think Mr. Forster has gone far towards proving that he was capable of winning the deep and lasting affection of men also. Perhaps it may not always be safe to trust implicitly the fine phrases of his correspondents; for there can be no doubt that Swift inspired fear as well as love. Revengefulness is the great and hateful blot on his character; his brooding temper turned slights into injuries, gave substance to mere suspicion, and once in the morbid mood he was utterly reckless of the means of vengeance. His most playful scratch had poison in it. His eye was equally terrible for the weak point of friend and foe. But giving this all the value it may deserve, the weight of the evidence is in favor of his amiability. The testimony of a man so sweet-natured and fair-minded as Dr. Delany ought to be conclusive, and we do not wonder that Mr. Forster should lay great stress upon it. The depreciatory conclusions of Dr. Johnson are doubtless entitled to consideration; but his evidence is all from hearsay, and there were properties in Swift that aroused in him so hearty a moral repulsion as to disenable him for an unprejudiced opinion. Admirable as the rough-and-ready conclusions of his robust understanding often are, he was better fitted to reckon the quantity of a man's mind than the quality of it—the real test of its value; and there is something almost comically pathetic in the good faith with which he applies his beer-measure to juices that could fairly plead their privilege to be gauged by the wine standard. Mr. Forster's partiality qualifies him for a fairer judgment of Swift than any which Johnson was capable of forming, or, indeed, would have given himself the trouble to form.

But this partiality in a biographer, though to be allowed and even commended as a quickener of insight, should not be strong enough to warp his mind from its judicial level. While we think that Mr. Forster is mainly right in his estimate of Swift's character, and altogether so in insisting on trying him by documentary rather than hearsay evidence, it is equally true that he is sometimes betrayed into overestimates, and into positive statement, where favorable inference would have been wiser. Now and then his exaggeration is merely amusing, as where he tells us that Swift, "as early as in his first two years after quitting Dublin, was *accomplished in French*," the only authority for such a statement being a letter of recommendation from Temple saying that he "had *some French*." Such compulsory testimonials are not on their *voir dire* any more than epitaphs. So, in speaking of Betty Jones, with whom in 1689 Swift had a flirtation that alarmed his mother, Mr. Forster assumes that she "was an educated girl" on the sole ground, so far as appears, of "her mother and Swift's being cousins." Swift, to be sure, thirty years later, on receiving some letters from his old sweetheart, "suspects them to be counterfeit" because "she spells like a kitchen-maid," and this, perhaps, may be Mr. Forster's authority. But, as the letters *were* genuine, the inference should have been the other way. The "letters to Eliza," by the way, which Swift in 1699 directs Winder, his successor at Kilroot, to burn, were doubtless those addressed to Betty Jones. Mr. Forster does not notice this; but that Swift should have preserved them, or copies of them, is of some consequence, as tending to show that they were mere exercises in composition, thus confirming what he says in the remarkable letter to Kendall, written in 1692, when he was already off with the old love and on with a new.

These instances of the temptation which most easily besets Mr. Forster are trifles, but the same leaning betrays him sometimes into graver mistakes of overestimate. He calls Swift the best letter-writer in the language, though Gray, Walpole, Cowper, and Lamb be in some essential qualities his superiors. He praises his political writing so extravagantly that we should think he had not read the *Examiner*, were it not for the thoroughness of his work in other respects. All that Swift wrote in this kind was partisan, excellently fitted to its immediate purpose, as we might expect from his imperturbable good sense, but by its very nature ephemeral. There is none of that reach of historical imagination, none of that grasp of the clew of fatal continuity and progression, none of that eye for country which divines the future highways of events, that makes the occasional pamphlets of Burke, with all their sobs of passionate sentiment, permanent acquisitions of political thinking. Mr. Forster finds in Swift's *Examiners* all the characteristic qualities of his mind and style, though we believe that a dispassionate reader would rather conclude that the author, as we have little doubt was the fact, was trying all along to conceal his personality under a disguise of decorous commonplace. In the same uncritical way Mr. Forster tells us that "the ancients could show no such humor and satire as the 'Tale of a Tub' and the 'Battle of the Books.'" In spite of this, we shall continue to think Aristophanes and even Lucian clever writers, considering the rudeness of the times in which they lived. The 'Tale of a Tub' has several passages of rough-and-tumble satire as good as any of their kind, and some hints of deeper suggestion, but the fable is clumsy and the execution unequal and disjointed. In conception the 'Battle' is cleverer, and it contains perhaps the most perfect apologue in the language, but the best strokes of satire in it are personal (that of Dryden's helmet, for instance), and we enjoy them with an uneasy feeling that we are accessaries in something like foul play. Indeed, it may be said of Swift's humor generally that it leaves us uncomfortable, and that it too often impregnates the memory with a savor of mortal corruption proof against all disinfectants. Pure humor cannot flow from so turbid a source as *saeva indignatio*, and if man be so filthy and disgusting a creature as Swift represents him to be, if he be truly "by nature, reason, learning, blind," satire is thrown away upon him for reform and cruel as castigation.

Mr. Forster not only rejects the story of Stella's marriage with Swift as lacking substantial evidence, but thinks that the limits of their intercourse were early fixed and never overpassed. According to him, their relation was to be, from the first, one "of affection, not desire." We, on the other hand, believe that she was the only woman Swift ever loved constantly, that he wished and meant to marry her, that he probably did marry her,

but only when all hope of the old open-hearted confidence was gone for ever, chiefly through his own fault, if partly through her jealous misconception of his relation to Vanessa, and that it was the sense of his own weakness, which admitted of no explanation tolerable to an injured woman, and entailed upon a brief folly all the consequences of guilt, that more than all else darkened his lonely decline with unavailing regrets and embittered it with remorseful self-contempt. Nothing could be more galling to a proud man than the feeling that he had been betrayed by his vanity. It is commonly assumed that pride is incompatible with its weaker congener. But pride, after all, is nothing more than a stiffened and congealed vanity, and melts back to its original ductility when exposed to the milder temperature of female partiality. Swift could not deny himself the flattery of Vanessa's passion, and not to forbid was to encourage. He could not bring himself to administer in time the only effectual remedy, by telling her that he was pledged to another woman. When at last he did tell her it was too late ; and he learned, like so many before and since, that the most dangerous of all fires to play with is that of love. This was the extent of his crime, and it would have been none if there had been no such previous impediment. This alone gives any meaning to what he says when Vanessa declared her love :

> "Cadenus felt within him rise
> *Shame*, disappointment, *guilt*, surprise."

Shame there might have been, but surely no guilt on any theory except that of an implicit engagement with Stella. That there was something of the kind, more or less definite, and that it was of some ten years' standing when the affair with Vanessa came to a crisis, we have no doubt. When Tisdall offered her marriage in 1704, and Swift wrote to him "that if my fortunes and humor served me to think of that state, I should certainly, among all persons on earth, make your choice," she accepted the implied terms and rejected her suitor, though otherwise not unacceptable to her. She would wait. It is true that Swift had not absolutely committed himself, but she had committed him by dismissing Tisdall. Without assuming some such tacit understanding, his letters to her are unintelligible. He repeatedly alludes to his absence from her as only tolerable because it was for her sake no less than his own, and the details of his petty economies would be merely vulgar except to her for whom their motive gave them a sweetness of humorous pathos. The evidence of the marriage seems to be as conclusive as that of a secret can well be. Dr. Delany, who ought to have been able to judge of its probability, and who had no conceivable motive of misstatement, was assured of it by one whose authority was Stella herself. Mr. Monck-Berkeley had it from the widow of Bishop Berkeley, and she from her husband, who had it from Dr. Ashe, by whom they were married. These are at least unimpeachable witnesses. The date of the marriage is more doubtful, but Sheridan is probably not far wrong when he puts it in 1716. It was simply a reparation, and no union was implied in it. Delany intimates that Vanessa, like the young Chevalier, vulgarized her romance in drink. More than this, however, was needful to palliate even in Swift the brutal allusion to her importunacy in 'Gulliver,' unless, as is but too possible, the passage in question be an outbreak of ferocious spleen against her victorious rival. Its coarseness need not make this seem impossible, for that was by no means a queasy age, and Swift continued on intimate terms with Lady Betty Germaine after the publication of the nasty verses on her father. The communication of the secret to Bishop Berkeley (who was one of Vanessa's executors) may have been the condition of the suppressing Swift's correspondence with her, and would have exasperated him to ferocity.

MEMOIRS OF BURGOYNE.*

MR. DE FONBLANQUE begins his life of Burgoyne by deprecating the prejudice under which his hero has fallen. "Burgoyne," he says, "the hero of Valencia d'Alcantara ; Burgoyne, the trusted friend and colleague of Fox and Burke ; Burgoyne, the popular poet and dramatist ; Burgoyne, the honest and eloquent champion of oppressed India, is forgotten ; but where is the Englishman or American who does not remember Burgoyne of Saratoga ?" This effective appeal is followed up with the story of Burgoyne's career, in excellent style and temper, and well justifying on the whole the measured eulogy with which the volume opens.

The two Englishmen whose failures crowned most conspicuously the American triumph in the Revolution were Burgoyne and Cornwallis. Cornwallis we know well in another field as an amiable gentleman, able soldier, and upright ruler. We now have Burgoyne likewise exhibited in a new and more favorable light—shown to us not merely as a defeated enemy, but as an efficient officer in other fields of action. Not that his memory is vindicated in every point. He appears in this volume as the author of General Gage's bombastic proclamation, and as devising a scheme to seduce Charles Lee from his allegiance to the American Government. He had no small share of vanity, and is very likely to have displayed an insolence of demeanor towards his antagonists which must have added to the satisfaction with which they got him in their power. As his biographer acknowledges, one cause of his defeat was the serious fault he committed of underrating his enemies. With all this, he showed himself on the whole both able and honorable. He commanded with success in Portugal ; he served with reputation in the House of Commons ; he examined the military systems of foreign nations and reported upon them to his Government with sagacity and insight ; he drew up a plan for the government of India nearly coinciding with that actually adopted afterwards ; he was one of the managers of the impeachment of Warren Hastings ; he was in the latter years of his life a friend and correspondent of prominent statesmen, and seems to have been regarded by them with marked respect.

The interest of the work of course centres in the campaign of 1777, the events of which occupy about a fourth part of the volume. The author discusses (p. 340) Sir Edward Creasy's estimate of the battle of Saratoga as one of the fifteen decisive battles of the world, and is inclined to question its correctness on the ground that it was not even followed by a temporary cessation of hostilities, and was a humiliation on the one side and a triumph on the other, rather than a victory and a defeat. But the question is not merely what did the battle accomplish, but what did it prevent ? Gettysburg is, by common consent, regarded as the turning-point of the war of the Rebellion ; but it was not *decisive* in the sense that Waterloo was—it was rather a drawn battle. If we had been defeated there, it would have been decisive indeed ; and in like manner, if Gates had been driven back and Burgoyne had made his junction with Clinton, the American cause might have been reckoned as lost. The victory of Saratoga did not secure American independence, but it enabled it to be secured.

The principal cause of Burgoyne's failure lies of course upon the surface. His expedition depended directly for success upon the co-operation of Gen. Howe ; and Gen. Howe took just this time for an expedition to Philadelphia, leaving Clinton, with inadequate forces, to support Burgoyne. Burgoyne, it seems, had precise and explicit instructions leaving him no discretion ; his advance from Fort Edward was against his own judgment in pursuance of these rigid instructions. But while he was thus fettered, the co-operating commander had no instructions at all, hardly information, as to Burgoyne's march. This criminal negligence on the part of the British Government is explained by a memorandum of Lord Shelburne, quoted from the recently-published life of that statesman. Lord George Germain, it seems, being about to make a visit in the country, found the despatch to Burgoyne ready to sign, and signed it ; but that to Howe was not "fair copied," so must await his return to town. And there it waited, "pigeonholed in London, where it was found, after the Convention of Saratoga, carefully docketed, and only wanting the signature of the minister" (p. 233). It would be too much to assert, and Mr. de Fonblanque does not pretend, that but for these cross-purposes the expedition would certainly have succeeded. Burgoyne was greatly astonished at the rapidity, the numbers, and the good condition of the troops that rallied about Gates. "I have understated his numbers," he writes afterwards, "in calling them 16,000 ; and sorry am I to add that a better armed, a better bodied, a more alert, or better prepared army in all essential points of military institution I am afraid is not to be found on our side the question" (p. 315). Mr. de Fonblanque himself states the case cogently when, after speaking in general of the risk attending movements "upon double lines of operations," he goes on : "The bases of the two armies, upon the united and simultaneous action of which the whole scheme depended, were separated by several hundred miles of country, rendered peculiarly unfavorable to the progress of regular troops by natural impediments (such as dense forests, numberless creeks and ravines, and an almost entire absence of roads and of local supplies), and defended by a hostile population of high-spirited men, accustomed to the use of arms and to desultory warfare" (p. 334). After the surrender at Saratoga, but before it was known in England, Lord Chatham still said : "The conquest of English America is an impossibility."

The conduct of Congress in refusing to carry out the terms of the Convention and allow the troops to ship for England is frequently censured in strong language ; and it was certainly indefensible. Nevertheless, even on the facts as here presented, it hardly deserves so unqualified censure as it receives. Congress is said to have "repudiated" its engagements on "petty and frivolous pretexts" (p. 319) ; but Mr. de Fonblanque does not

* "Political and Military Episodes in the latter half of the eighteenth century. Derived from the life and correspondence of the Right Hon. John Burgoyne, General, Statesman, Dramatist. By Edward Barrington de Fonblanque, author of 'The Administration of the British Army,' etc.' With portrait, illustrations, and maps. London and New York : Macmillan & Co. 1876. 8vo, pp. 500.

mention at this point the fact, frequently alluded to afterwards (pp. 359, 360, 372, etc.), that the demand of the American Government was that the Convention should be formally ratified by Great Britain before the embarkation should be permitted (see Bancroft, Vol. IX., p. 466). Surely it is uncalled for to hint that this, too, was only a pretext on the part of Congress, and that if this ratification had been made some other pretext would have been found; indeed, Burgoyne, in Parliament, "reproached *both* governments for having taken no steps to carry out the terms of the Convention" (p. 372).

Among the lesser points that deserve attention may be mentioned Burgoyne's estimate of John Adams, frequently expressed while he was stationed at Boston. The leaders, he says (p. 194), "though often the most profligate hypocrites, have among them very able men. I believe Adams to be as great a conspirator as ever subverted a state." On the next page: "I am persuaded your lordship will, with me, lose sight of Catiline or Cromwell in passing judgment upon his character." Again, p. 200: "Adams, who has certainly taken Cromwell for his model, and who perhaps guides secret counsels with more address, soars too high in personal ambition to incline to accommodation. Depend upon it, Franklin, and, greater than Franklin, the instruments and movers of American faction here and in England, are equally this man's dupes."

There are some well-drawn plans of battle-fields, but none of the campaign, which is a real defect. Moreover, while the style of the book is in general correct and graphic, the accounts of engagements are blind and confused; we have found it impossible to follow them out, even with the aid of the plans. For instance, on page 284, *east* evidently stands twice for *west*.

Der junge Goethe, seine Briefe und Dichtungen, 1764–1776. Mit einer Einleitung von Michael Bernays. (3 vols. Leipzig: Hirzel. 1875.)—The present work of Professor Bernays is the most important contribution made of late years to the study of Goethe. We greet it as an additional token of that noiseless but powerful reaction among thinkers which is restoring Goethe to his rightful position in the hearts of his people. In judging Professor Bernays's labors we know not which to admire more, the genial discrimination with which he has characterized Goethe in the Introduction, or the minute pains that he has taken in grouping and editing the texts. The literary-critic and the text-critic are happily united in one person. In the Introduction (nearly one hundred pages), the editor indicates the great stages in the poet's activity. We use purposely the word "activity" in distinction from "development," for the editor shows conclusively that Goethe did not undergo the usual process of development. Of him, if of any one, we can say that he sprang full-armed from the brain of Jove. His earlier works, 'Werther' and 'Götz,' are as complete, as finished artistically, as the 'Divan' or the Second Part of 'Faust.' Goethe had not to struggle long and bitterly with himself for the mastery of style.

But this early maturity begot trials of its own. Unlike Shakspere, Racine, Molière, and Schiller, it was impossible for Goethe to pursue one line of production. He had to change, not his style, but the subject-matter and the form in which he might embody the fruits of his later studies and observations. The artist of 'Werther' and of 'Hermann und Dorothea,' of 'Götz' and 'Tasso' and 'Wilhelm Meister,' is essentially the same, but the tone in which he composes, the world of thought in which he places us, the mood which he evokes in us, are radically different. Hence it was that to his contemporaries Goethe became so unintelligible. Those who had learned to understand and appreciate his pre-Weimarean works were disappointed with the 'Iphigenie'; those who had trained themselves to enter into the spirit of the 'Italienische Reise' and its offshoots were bewildered by the 'Wahlverwandtschaften.' Goethe, having achieved the highest in one field, was forced by the necessary law of his own being to pass to another field whither they could not follow him. We can scarcely blame them, since we ourselves, who view the poet in the perspective of a century, find it so hard to grasp his image in its entirety. As Bernays has justly observed, there is no character in literature who presents such difficulties. His great creations shoot up like isolated and inaccessible peaks, and it is only after patient study of them all, and comparing them with the details of the poet's life, that we perceive them to be a chain resting upon a common substratum. Bernays calls our attention to another point of equal importance—namely, the Goethean conception of "fate." Even in Shakspere we find that tragic fate is often something outside of man's will, some external force or conjecture to which the individual succumbs; in Goethe, never. From beginning to end fate is the result of inner moral weakness; man falls because of the disorganization (*Zerrüttung*) of his own powers. Hence the utter depth of the deeps to which Goethe leads us—deeps which only a Shakspere has sounded, and he only in "Hamlet" and "Macbeth." We have touched upon two of the prominent features in Bernays's Introduction, but the reader will find many more. It is in truth an essay abounding in suggestion.

In the body of the work the editor has adopted a novel and, in our judgment, most excellent arrangement. He has divided Goethe's youth into four sections—first, Frankfort, Leipzig, and Frankfort, 1764–1770; second, Strassburg, 1770–1771; third, Frankfort and Wetzlar, 1771–1773; fourth, Frankfort and Weimar, 1774–1776. In each section we find, in order, letters, then poems, then longer pieces. The section constitutes thus a phase by itself. By reading the letters first, we get the atmosphere in which the poems are composed. We have not the space for speaking at length of the rich materials spread out for our enjoyment. We have for the first time the opportunity of reading in continuity *all* that the youthful Goethe produced, whether in fiction or in familiar letters, just when and as he produced it. The text of poems, works, and letters has been collated carefully with the earliest editions, in some instances with the original manuscript, and Goethe's spelling and punctuation have been restored throughout. Not a few of the letters appear here for the first time. Even the recently published (1875) correspondence with Johanna Fahlmer has been incorporated. The impression made upon us by Goethe's manysidedness, the intensity of his emotion, his preternatural power of expression, is almost overpowering. We begin to understand how Bürger could call him the "inexplicable magician," how Niebuhr, half a century later, could look back with reverent awe to the young author of Götz, who thrilled his people and heralded himself "the first without a second."

Three Northern Love Stories, and other Tales. Translated from the Icelandic by Eirikr Magnússon and William Morris. (London: Ellis & White. 1875.)—The present volume is the latest production in the field of Icelandic saga-literature which has appeared in Great Britain. The respective names of the three love stories which occupy the principal part of the book are: 'Saga of Gunnlaug the Worm-tongue,' of 'Fridthjof the Bold,' and of 'Viglund the Fair,' and the other tales found in the latter part of the volume are a tale of 'Hogni and Hedinn,' of 'Roi the Fool,' and of 'Thorstein Staff-smitten.' All these small sagas are of quite different kinds, the first and the last one (Gunnlaug's saga and the tale of Thorstein) belonging to the historical, the second and fourth (Fridthjof's saga and the tale of Hogni and Hedinn) to the semi-mythical, and the third and fifth (Viglund's saga and the tale of Roi) to the fabulous or fabricated sagas. Of all these the saga of 'Gunnlaug the Worm-tongue' is the most valuable, for besides containing interesting and instructive historical records from the end of the tenth and the beginning of the eleventh century, connected not only with Iceland, the fatherland of the two antagonists and heroes of the saga, Gunnlaug and Rafn, but also with Norway, Sweden, England, Ireland, and the Orkneys, the poetical element of the life and exploits of the persons sketched is throughout the saga brought forth in the most simple and natural, and therefore also the most effective, manner. Helga the Fair, a grand-daughter of the famous Egil Skallagrim's son, the central hero of Egil's saga, had an ardent lover, Gunnlaug of Gilsbakke, to whom she, with her parents' consent, was promised, on condition that he should travel abroad, behave well, and come back within three years. Gunnlaug set out on his journey and travelled far and wide, from one royal court to the other, everywhere gaining fee and fame for his skaldic compositions and chivalry. In Sweden, at the court of King Olaf Eirik's son, he met with another Icelandic skald, Rafn Onund's son, from the same part of Iceland as himself. A contention soon arose between them, which, nourished by proud ambition on both sides, grew into mutual hatred. Rafn left Sweden and reached Iceland, where he asked for Helga the Fair for his wife, and got the answer that if her former wooer did not return at the fixed time, she should be married to him. Gunnlaug was hindered from coming back to Iceland and from calling on his bride at the appointed time. He came too late, and found his beloved one wedded without her consent to his deadly enemy. Nevertheless, he succeeded in seeing his faithful Helga and in having a talk with her, and made her a present of a costly cloak which he had received as a gift from King Ethelred of England. At the next Althing, Gunnlaug challenged Rafn to fight with him in a *holmgang* or duel, on the spot, and thus have their love affairs settled; but neither of them winning, and a law being enacted in the Althing immediately after and because of their encounter, forbidding all duels thenceforth throughout the country, they both went to Norway, where they fought bloodily and slew each other. The fatal result was reported in Iceland and filled every heart interested in the fate of the late combatant

with awe and sorrow. Helga was married to a new wooer who treated her kindly, but her heart was broken and her love buried with Gunnlaug. She expired with his dear gift, the cloak, in her hands. As an historical romance Gunnlaug's saga has a perfect parallel in the beautiful "Laxdœla-saga," which, indeed, is a larger work, but as yet not translated into English.

Fridthjof's saga is noted as one of the most prominent semi-mythical sagas. For the most part it antedates the dawn of Christianity among the common Northern people, although it was put in writing much later, and thus modelled into a characteristic form by some unknown person. It has been preserved in two somewhat different Icelandic originals, both printed in the second volume of the so-called 'Fornaldar-sögur' (Copenhagen, 1829–30, 3 vols.) The present English version is a translation of the first and more complete one. The small songs with which this saga is interspersed are very old, and though some of them lack a perfect metrical form, they may be considered as the oldest elements of the saga. What a great poetical subject is contained in this northern love tale, which is localized in Sogn in Norway, and probably based on facts which occurred here in the so-called prehistoric times, has been shown by the great Swedish poet Tegnér.

Viglund's saga, the last of the longer tales contained in the present saga collection, though a mere fiction and without any historical value, is composed with taste, and is so successful an imitation of the genuine historical sagas that it might mislead even a reader pretty well acquainted with the sagas in their original. Some of the songs put into the mouth of Ketilrid and her lover Viglund belong to the best of their kind, and have no small poetical value.

The tale of Hogni and Hedinn is found in the first volume of 'Fornaldar-sögur,' and is a curious popular composition, based on a short mythical anecdote in Snorre's Edda. It dates from a rather recent time, and is neither very interesting nor of a genuine northern character. Of still less importance is the tale of 'Roi the Fool.' The tale of 'Thorstein Staff-smitten' is an important historical supplement to the 'Vápnfirðinga-saga," in connection with which it would be read with interest, but as a separate work we fear it will be thought less valuable than it really is. None of the comparatively few sagas treating of the historical events which occurred in the eastern part of Iceland during and immediately after its colonization (*landnám*) have yet appeared in English. All the sagas are very short, and constitute an inseparable cycle which might easily be published in one volume.

Shakespeare's Plutarch. By the Rev. Walter W. Skeat, M.A., formerly Fellow of Christ's College, Cambridge. (London: Macmillan & Co. 1875.)—We have here a very modest and unpretending book, but one of solid merit, the main object of which is "to place in the reader's hands so much of the text of North's 'Plutarch' as is necessary for a due appreciation of the use made of that work by Shakespeare." The name of Mr. Skeat is well known to Shakspere scholars, for he has done more than one piece of good service in their behalf; and his work in this instance is planned and performed in such a manner as to be highly convenient and helpful, not only to students of Shakspere but of the Elizabethan literature in general. The lives of Coriolanus, Julius Cæsar, Brutus, Antony, and Augustus furnished all or nearly all the historical matter used by Shakspere in the three Roman tragedies, and the volume reproduces all these entire; it also gives such portions of the lives of Theseus and Alcibiades as contributed any traceable aid towards 'A Midsummer-Night's Dream,' 'Timon of Athens,' and 'The Two Noble Kinsmen.' It may be hardly needful to observe that North's 'Plutarch' was a translation, not from the original Greek, but from an admirable French version made by James Amiot, Bishop of Auxerre, himself a contemporary of Sir Thomas. Amiot's version is on all hands acknowledged to be generally correct and adequate, and also exceedingly spirited. In North's translation, again, we have a choice storehouse of racy and delectable old English, replete with the best characteristics of the language when it was in its most flexible and idiomatic state. Competent scholars tell us it is also, with a few exceptions, faithful to the sense and meaning of the original. In the volume before us we have the English translator's text set forth with scrupulous fidelity, and with ample though nothing of superfluous or irrelevant learning. The editor accompanies the text throughout with a full marginal glossary of archaic and obsolete words and phrases. Next, we have a small body of notes, in the preparation of which Mr. Skeat evinces a highly commendable parsimony of learning, such as ought to be met with more frequently in publications of the kind. This is followed by an exhaustive index of proper names, with references to the pages where the names occur; and this, again, by a carefully prepared glossarial index, with a full accompaniment of similar references: all which renders the work complete in every respect, and thoroughly furnished at all points for the use to which it is addressed.

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BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*	
Avery (M. A.), Shadowed Perils. A Novel	(Authors' Publishing Co.)	
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Jones (C. H.), Davault's Mills: a Novel	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)	
Kroeh (C. F.), First German Grammar	(D. Appleton & Co.)	
Lloyd (Elizabeth), Literature for Little Folks	(Sower, Potts & Co.)	
Lanman (C.), Biographical Annals of the Civil Government of the United States	(James Anglim)	
Littell's Living Age. Vol. XIII. 1876	(Littell & Gay)	
Lytton (Lord), Pausanias. Historical Romance	(Belford Bros.)	
Lackland (H.), Meteors	(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.)	1 50
Martin (F.), Statesman's Year-Book. 1876	(Macmillan & Co.)	3 50
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Morse (J. T., Jr.), Life of Alexander Hamilton. 2 vols	(Little, Brown & Co.)	
Morris (W.), Æneids of Virgil	(Roberts Bros.)	2 50

Fine Arts.

THE MASSACHUSETTS SYSTEM OF INSTRUCTION IN DRAWING.

AN exhibition was held in Boston, week before last, of drawings made in the Massachusetts schools under the guidance of the State Instruction in Drawing. It was of the same general character as previous similar exhibitions, but the larger number of drawings gave opportunity for a fuller display of a variety of work and for a more systematic presentation of it. The exhibition was indeed not wanting in variety: its range extended from measured drawings of simple squares by children of seven years old to oil paintings of ideal heads by persons who were not always outspoken enough to announce themselves (as was the case with one lady) as "Age thirty," or more; while it included in its circuit studies in mechanics, in architecture and ship-building, in landscape and still-life, in ornamental designs for frescoed ceilings, wall-papers, curtains, and tiles, by stone-cutters, carpenters, painters, and other mechanics, and women potentially of every trade. One of the visitors was overheard speaking with enthusiasm of a small exhibition of the same nature at one of the neighboring towns. "As the painter said," she remarked, "that exhibit was *so* harmonious." Perhaps this "exhibit," too, was harmonious, but it was a harmony of spirit rather than of effect. The forces that composed it were marshalled from all quarters. They came from the common-schools, high-schools, and normal schools, from day-schools and evening-schools, from cities and villages and almshouses. The exhibition was so large that one recalled with a certain dismay on entering the two large halls occupied by it that the "careful and critical" scrutiny of the people of the city and State had been asked for it in advance of its opening. The crowds of intelligent men and women who passed through the exhibition-rooms showed in a broad sense a cordial acceptance of this invitation, but whether the scrutiny of the majority of the visitors has been "careful and critical" may be doubted; whether it is possible that it should be so may be equally questioned. The best service the Art Education of the State could render would be to make the next generation capable, as the present one is not, of "careful and critical scrutiny" of art and artistic work.

Still, among the mass of those who were warmly interested, through personal, social, and emotional sympathies, in the work exhibited, there was of necessity a sprinkling of persons warmly interested in the results of the exhibition but coldly critical of the exhibited work. If they lay claim to having been "*carefully* critical" also, they are, in a measure, bound to make known the results of their scrutiny.

The effect of the exhibition, in the first cursory glance (more especially

of that portion of it which was contained in the lower room), was certainly strangely at variance with the declarations of the gentlemen chiefly concerned in the art-education of the State, that "its aim is to teach the elements of practical art, or art as applied to industry." The figures of soldiers, peasants, bandits, and nuns which immediately caught the eye, the countless crayon copies of fancy heads and of portraits, the heads in oil from "approved copies," the studies of the antique from casts, of the nude from flat copy, and even the large frame filled with caricatures, gave the walls a distinctly *academic* air, and suggested the would-be training of artists rather than of artisans. It is not necessary to question here whether these two kinds of training are but parts of one great scheme of complete art-education, or whether this character was intentionally given to a part of the exhibition in reference to the criticism said to have been "frequently made," that the instruction in the Normal Art School "is too mechanical and technical in its character, and that not enough attention is paid to the higher or æsthetic features of art." But the criticism objected to finds its justification in the very class of work above described—work too mechanical and imitative in its character to possess any of the higher or æsthetic qualities of art, while it is valueless for "imparting a knowledge of principles and methods of manipulation for educational and practical purposes," which, to quote still from the official circular, is "the aim." For, indeed, most of the examples of this ambitious style of work exhibit in their lack of real skill in execution the fundamental defects of the method of instruction.

The next impression the visitor perhaps received was of the vast amount of labor, the great expenditure of time, represented on these walls. On a rough estimate there may have been from eight to ten thousand drawings in the rooms (Lowell alone sent 1,657), and this number indicates that many more than eight or ten thousand hours have been spent by men and women and boys and girls in producing these drawings. The question that now arises is whether these hours have been employed in work which is the necessary preparation for more advanced work, or whether much of it is not of a kind which distinctly shows devotion to the special piece of work in hand as an end, and not, primarily, as a means; as, for example, in the very labored execution of the designs for lace And this question regards the theory which has moulded the work. The "dictation exercises" (that is, apparently, drawings made from verbal direction), often of extreme elaboration, given to the school-children, and executed by them with exceeding precision; the exercises in "original design" of these same children, equally elaborate and precise, are, when thoughtfully considered, seen to be exercises in mental accuracy, in ingenuity, in patience, neatness, and dexterity, in the qualities, that is, which kindergarten toys are used to develop at an earlier age, rather than in those powers of observation and representation, the combined powers of the eye, the hand, and the brain, which are as necessary in mechanical drawing as in any other.

It must be repeated till it is believed that, in elementary instruction or drawing, *to copy* is quite otherwise than serviceable when the work copied is *in its general character* much in advance of what the pupil would himself be able to do without a copy, or when the work copied is in its nature unsuggestive. The thought which lies behind the manual labor of the original must be such as to impregnate the mind of the student, or his manual labor as copyist is fruitless. The first of these objections to copying applies to the more ambitious works of this exhibition, the second objection to the simpler ones. For the exercises just spoken of are in essence exercises of copying; the "dictation exercises" are copies from the mind of another; the "original designs" are, by the necessity of the case, copies to a great degree from memory; and in neither of these two classes of copies is there any possibility of quickened perceptions or stimulated thought for the pupil.

On these exhibition walls there was no representation of the direct study of Nature, unless one counts as such the drawing of a dead bird or the painting of an artificially-arranged bouquet, or the pen-and-ink drawings accompanied by lithographs of butterflies and insects; but it is certain that the study of living forms is as necessary to good ornamental design as to good imaginative design, since it is the only material for that true conventionalism which is impressed with the individuality of each designer, a result unattainable when the designer's intelligence has been moulded by the rigidity of already created conventional forms.

But not only was there no representation of the direct study of Nature, there was none of the direct study of real or common objects, if we except a very laborious "likeness," in black and white, of a solitaire, set on a tray, and perhaps one or two other similar drawings, and the more numerous drawings of solid geometrical figures. And yet no one could be found to deny that for persons who wish to use their powers of drawing for practical purposes, quite as much as with artists, the ability to put on paper adequate but not elaborate representations of the things surrounding them is of the first importance. That this ability is not fostered by the drawing of house-elevations by a bleacher, or the very painstaking rendering of the appearance of a church, made from an outline copy, by a mason, may be proved by unanswerable arguments. A vast majority of the better class of drawings, as regards execution, had this character of complete inutility of purpose: one of the most deplorable examples, perhaps, being a pen-and-ink drawing three inches square representing a black and white woollen check, of which the gray squares are worked with the most idle industry. It is a work which if executed as a preparation for engraver's work might have its merits; but even then the choice of subject would still be a great mistake, unless accidentally justified.

The questions which this exhibition suggests are not of temporary nor slight nor merely local consequence. The widespread interest in art-education demands serious consideration. The system at present pursued in Massachusetts is likely to extend over the whole country; but if it is fatally wanting in vital principles, if, by the inculcation of confidence in vain patience and empty knowledge, it increases the conceit of ignorance, it is of great importance that it should, on the contrary, be done away with as soon as possible. Although too large a number of persons are interested in the continuance of the present modes of instruction for any change to be soon made, it is most desirable that the need of change where it already exists, and of warning where it is likely to spread, should be contemplated and set forth. There cannot be too searching an examination of the subject, or too continued a discussion of the principles involved.

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No. 65.

PHYSICAL SCIENCE MADE READABLE.

PROFESSOR AGASSIZ was once mounted in official majesty on a platform, amid a group of college dignitaries, while a celebrated mathematician, as learned as any that New England could produce, went through a demonstration of singular novelty and beauty. "How unfortunate it is," said Agassiz at the close, throwing up his hands with a Swiss gesture of despair, while the mathematical part of the audience was lost in admiration, "that this luminous demonstration is as dark as Egypt for me!" The incident shows how completely, at the present time, science has separated into specialties. In recognition of this state of things a British scientist, Professor Tait, lately of Cambridge and now of Edinburgh University, arranged, two years since, a course of lectures, at the desire of several scientific men among the number of his friends, who candidly confessed that they wanted instruction on the principal points gained in Natural Philosophy since they had left college. The lectures, given with the most delightful directness of speech, as of a talker confident in the general good sense of his hearers, have been reported by stenography, and given verbatim, with a few elisions, in a medium-sized book called 'Recent Advances in Physical Science.' The work is truly remarkable for the breadth of its scope, the presentment with conversational ease of abstruse problems, the ingenuity of its experiments, and the daring with which mighty speculations are handled.

The pretty, azure rings of the tobacco-smoker—represented in the class-room by annular puffs of sal-ammoniac—may be at the bottom of the most fruitful illustration of the motion of matter through space. Sir William Thomson argues that their property of rotation "may be the basis of all that appeals to our senses as matter." The mathematics of fluid rotatory motion—vortex movements without gravitation—are so difficult that only one investigator, Helmholtz, has done much towards their analysis. They will be the problem of the next two or three generations of calculators. Meanwhile, Professor Tait gives a graphic and startling sketch, the best we have seen, of the suggestions included in the vortex-theory.

Calculations of the earth's period of solidification Professor Tait argues to be quite within the scope of possibility from known physical laws and known mathematical processes. From the increase of internal heat found in mining, and other data, he announces the solid period of the earth's surface to have begun not more than fifteen millions of years ago—a few thousand years after which condensation, its crust must have been ready for the reception of life. The lecturer admits the discrepancy between this scientific estimate and the demands of Darwin and the geologists, who require for a comparatively recent portion of geological history three hundred millions of years. He replies: "So much the worse for geology as at present understood by its chief authorities."

The proofs that matter has a grained structure, or is made of particles, are given from the phenomena of the dispersion of light, from the diffusion of gases, from capillary experiments, and from those of contact electricity. The results are of disconcerting definiteness. The particles of zinc or copper—or rather, as the Professor likes better to express it, the coarse-grainedness of their structure—are something more than seven hundred millions to the inch. The particles of air in a cubic inch are expressed by the numeral 3 and twenty decimals (Professor Tait writes these large numbers in the latest improved manner, as 3×10^{20}—that is to say, 3 and twenty ciphers). A drop of water is to one of its particles about as the earth is to a plum.

Professor Tait is admirably clear on Spectrum Analysis, on Transformation of Energy, and Conduction of Heat. His lectures, in fine, express for the lay mind the results obtained by Seguin, Meyer, Coulding, Joule, Carnot, Fourier, Angström, Forbes, Kirchhoff, Loschmidt, and Sir William Thomson.

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NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 20, 1876.

The Week.

A CALL for a conference to be held on the 15th of May has been issued, signed by Messrs. W. C. Bryant, Theodore D. Woolsey, Alexander H. Bullock, Horace White, and Carl Schurz, to take into consideration the present alarming condition of public affairs and the best means of "preventing the national election of the centennial year from becoming a mere choice of evils, and of securing the election of men to the highest offices of the Republic whose character and ability will satisfy the exigencies of our present situation, and protect the honor of the American name." The danger they see in the present crisis is "that an inordinate party spirit may, through the organized action of a comparatively small body of men, who live by politics, succeed in overriding the most patriotic impulses of the people, and in monopolizing political power for selfish ends." The proposed conference is to be held in New York, and the call has only been sent about privately to selected persons, and we presume will rely for its influence rather on their weight than on their numbers. What it will do or can do, it is hard to say, except make preparations to put up a bolters' ticket in case neither the Republican nor Democratic nomination is satisfactory. The party objections to it at present begin to appear already, and they are naturally that it will destroy "harmony" in the party; that it is time enough to cry out and protest when bad nominations have been actually made; that it will hurt the feelings of a great many good men who still think the Republican party is abundantly capable of accomplishing its own purification; that the signers are not practical politicians, and that, therefore, the movement can come to nothing. The objections that will be made after the nomination are: that the regular nominee is a noble, good man, who was faithful in war; that the cause of human rights is in peril; that the candidate has always been a civil-service reformer in the best sense of that term—that is, has always been in favor of "putting good men in office" and has constantly recommended such men himself for office; that the people are not to be deceived by this fire in the rear; that Mr. Bryant and Mr. Woolsey, who signed the call, are old men, while Mr. Andrew D. White, who is as good a college president as any of them, and has a large library, and is a lively, active young man, likes the ticket very well; that Schurz is a foreigner; and that discontent and grumbling are bad things in the centennial year.

The Cincinnati *Gazette* gives an explanation of the origin of the scandal with regard to Mr. Blaine which, we suppose, may be taken to be authentic, inasmuch as it seems to come from one of the gentlemen who helped to set it a-going. There was a short time since a meeting in Cincinnati of four gentlemen, whose names are not given, but to whose knowledge it had come that the Democrats had "charges" against Mr. Blaine which would be "sprung" in case of that gentlemen's nomination at Cincinnati, and they therefore felt they must hold a "conference" to "look into" them, on the principle, Mr. Blaine's friends would say, of the old lady who declared that "it was not that she wanted anybody to do anything wrong, but if they did, she did want to know all about it," but, according to their own account, from more patriotic motives. They therefore entered into correspondence with Mr. Blaine, and wrote him a letter which the *Gazette* says he is at full liberty to publish. The conference was not in the interest of any candidate, but was merely held for the purpose of discovering whether these charges were such as to injure Mr. Blaine in case of his nomination, and in that case to enable him to meet them. Now, the Indianapolis *Sentinel* (a Democratic organ) has published a definite charge, supposed to be supported by the statement of Mr. Harrison, a Government director of the Union Pacific road, to the effect that $64,000 were paid to some one by the company on a pledge of some $75,000 in bonds of the Fort Smith and Little Rock Railroad, not worth anything like that sum, and that though Mr. Harrison made enquiries into the matter it was hushed up. The theory of those who make the charge is that Mr. Blaine got this money, which he denies, apparently not on the ground that he had nothing to do with the transaction, but that whatever he did was for the benefit of third parties. A "constituent" of his declares that upon Blaine's recommendation he bought $13,000 of the Fort Smith bonds, and paid $10,000 for them, and that, the investment turning out badly, Mr. Blaine very handsomely took them off his hands at the same price. Mr. Rollins, the Treasurer of the Pacific road, and Messrs. Morton, Bliss & Co., the bankers through whose hands this $64,000 passed, have exonerated Mr. Blaine in "cards," but the *Gazette* says that all this Fort-Smith business only relates to "one of the charges," implies that there is much more behind, that the cards of Messrs. Rollins and Morton, Bliss & Co. "fall entirely short of the mark," and that a full investigation is what is now needed.

There is talk of sending Schenck back to England again as soon as the House Committee reports on him, in case the report finds him guilty simply of indiscretion and not of wilful fraud. This plan, if carried out, would be simply an adherence to the rule which has been acted on in other cases—to heed no criticism of a public servant until the grand jury has actually found a bill against him for some infamous offence. If the Committee finds Schenck guilty simply of indiscretion, it will be indiscretion of so gross a character as to indicate a childish gullibility which, in the case of so old a poker-player, would be little short of criminal; and to send him back without a guardian would be inexcusable. The unhappy Babcock has been again indicted, this time for the Safe Burglary, and Boss Shepherd has gone bail for him. There is as yet, we are sorry to say, no sign of a movement in the army to get rid of him. We must remind those who think the acquittal at St. Louis ought to shield him that he promised a full explanation of the telegrams, which he has not offered, and that he telegraphed to the District-Attorney that he was eager to appear as a witness, but to Luckey, his confederate, that he must prevent his being brought on at all hazards. These things leave a colonel in the army in a position which is untenable, and as long as he has not cleared them up he is not fit company for officers and gentlemen, or for anybody but a Boss.

The bill which directs the Secretary of the Treasury to put in circulation the subsidiary silver coin which the Government has in its possession, by virtue of the Sherman Resumption Act of 1875, became a law on Monday, the President then having signed it. With the Government now fully committed to the purchase of enough silver to make $50,000,000 of dimes, quarters, etc., equal to the authorized issue of fractional notes, preparations are making by the Big-Bonanza managers to have Congress take another "step towards resumption." This "step" will be in the form of a bill authorizing the issue of silver dollars, to take the place of the United States notes, each of which promises to pay to the bearer one dollar. The total amount of these one-dollar notes outstanding at the beginning of the fiscal year was $27,416,863. The proposed silver dollar, at the present price of silver, would be worth a trifle over ninety cents, so that the bill might properly be entitled "A Bill to facilitate the release of the Government from part of its debt, and to promote the interests of the Big-Bonanza mines."

Besides the passage of the Silver Bill, Congress has been occupied mainly with the Belknap impeachment, the case of Hallett Kilbourn, and the Third-class Postal Bill. Belknap has pleaded

to the jurisdiction of the Senate, on the ground that he is no longer an officer of the United States. The Postal Bill has finally passed the same body. The House has, after a good deal of debate, decided to produce the body of Hallett Kilbourn in court, in obedience to the habeas-corpus proceedings, and thus avoided a very disagreeable dilemma, out of which there was really no road except submission or defiance, inasmuch as the House is itself a body of quite as high jurisdiction in the matter of contempt as the courts themselves. The debate was rendered lively by a dispute between Mr. Blaine and Mr. Tucker of Virginia. Mr. Tucker wished the sergeant-at-arms to appear in court by counsel, and so raise the question of the legality of the habeas-corpus proceedings, and, on Mr. Blaine manifesting some opposition, declared that the latter was "no lawyer," and had "often shown" this lamentable fact—an accusation which Mr. Blaine apparently regarded as an imputation upon his mental qualities almost as bad as an intimation that he was "no gentleman" would have been upon his honor, for he immediately thanked God that he was not a lawyer in the sense of the term understood by Mr. Tucker, and had never, as Attorney-General of Virginia, given an opinion that the local authorities of a State might "invade the post-office." To this Mr. Tucker replied that Mr. Blaine, though, as he had previously declared, no lawyer, was undoubtedly "a Pharisee," and began to thank God in his turn, when he was ingeniously interrupted by the Maine Statesman, who made the cause of gratitude to the Almighty appear quite different from what Mr. Tucker had intended. The discussion then branched off in various directions, but, on the House coming back to the merits of the case, soon lost its interest.

The United States Government received from the British Government $15,500,000 as indemnity for the damages done by the Confederate cruisers. This sum was invested by the Treasury in a U. S. 5 per cent. bond. The amount of claims already adjudicated by the Alabama Commission is $5,883,000, and the Treasury now gives notice that on the 24th instant it will receive proposals for this amount of the new 5 per cent. bonds. In addition to the usual conditions under which such proposals are received, the Treasury has imposed the additional one that no bid will be received for a smaller amount than $500,000. This excludes all ordinary investors from bidding, and also furnishes ground for complaint that the arrangement was made out of consideration for the wishes of the Syndicate. It is also not understood why the bonds should be sold for gold, as we believe the claimants were to be paid in currency.

The President has vetoed the bill recently passed by both Houses of Congress to reduce his successor's salary from $50,000, at which it was fixed by the "Salary Grab" Act, to $25,000. The message sent to the Senate with the veto compares the Presidential salary with that of Congressmen, and shows that when the President's salary was fixed at $25,000 a year, members of Congress got only $6 a day, or, at 120 days for the session, $720 a year; their pay has been made seven times as large as it was, while the President's has only been doubled. But there are other reasons much stronger than this *tu quoque* argument for opposing the change. A salary of $50,000 a year for the President of a country of 40,000,000 inhabitants, in which the scale of living is what it is with us, is little enough; indeed, it is far too little, and every one who has looked into the items of the appropriation bills knows that no President has actually lived upon it (to say nothing of $25,000) for years. Some Presidents have appeared to do so, but it is because all sorts of expenses connected with the White House are treated as "side speculations" to be paid for separately. We believe the actual cost of keeping up the Presidency is nearer $100,000 than $50,000, and the only effect which can come from making the salary less than the expense is one of two things: either to make it necessary for the President to beg for favors from Congress (in all which cases we may be sure he has to give an equivalent), or for him to take some means to eke out his expenses, such as those which the Secretary of War, for precisely similar reasons, has been led into. This has never yet been done, but it is well to take warning in time. The reduction proposed by Congress is a pure piece of demagogism, got up for the purpose of putting the Republican party in the position of hostility to the "poor boy," and the Democrats in the position of "lightening the burdens of taxation." There is no use in expecting to get good Presidents unless you pay them well; and if we are to have a general scaling act, let Congressmen begin fairly with themselves, and fix their own pay at the rate they estimate others. On this scale a Congressman would be worth about $250 per year.

The disappointment of the newspapers with Mr. A. T. Stewart's will has, after the enormous amount of space they have devoted to his funeral, and the dithyrambic style in which they have written about his life, something rather comic about it. The will, though made in 1873, gives a few small legacies to old friends and servants, a million to one of his executors, Judge Hilton, and the rest of his property absolutely to his wife, leaving her and Judge Hilton to carry out in their discretion certain unrevealed schemes of a charitable kind which Mr. Stewart says he had in contemplation at the time of his death. The reasons why they were left in this condition seem to us plain enough, and we have endeavored to set them forth elsewhere, nor are they reasons which are in any positive way discreditable to the memory of the real Mr. Stewart, though they may seem so to that of the ideal Mr. Stewart created by the reporters.

By one of the most remarkable testamentary operations on record, Judge Hilton has now, within a week of Mr. Stewart's death, acquired the bulk of his property, worth from ten to twenty millions, transferring to Mrs. Stewart as an equivalent the one million which was left him by the testator for taking care of the estate. In the eye of the law, therefore, we suppose, Mr. Hilton takes the property, charged with the duty of carrying out Mr. Stewart's charities, whatever they may have been. Judge Hilton's character as a public benefactor is therefore of some interest to the public; and it may be worth while to recall the fact that some years ago there was a Ring in this city composed of four gentlemen, named Tweed, Sweeny, Hall, and Connolly; that one of these, Peter B. Sweeny, was put at the head of a body called the Park Commission, and that associated with him was one Judge Hilton. The new Board went to work to benefit the public. They lopped off and cast away the boughs from the trees in the Park where they were most necessary; they allowed quack-medicine advertisements to be painted on the rocks; and, to cap the climax, the old Park Commission having employed a skilled zoölogist by the name of Waterhouse Hawkins to restore some fossils of extinct species of animals, they dismissed Mr. Hawkins, while Judge Hilton issued an order to have the models carted away and buried, and to have the moulds and sketch-models destroyed, on the ground that a naturalist might better employ his time than in wasting it over "dead animals." In fact, they conducted themselves like vandals and public enemies. We sincerely trust that Judge Hilton will devote his suddenly-acquired wealth to private enterprise. Prayers against his attempting to do anything for the public with it might well be offered up in the churches.

The *Times* has succeeded in unearthing a most wonderful tale of oppression and wrong, practised of course by a lawyer, and, better than all, by one of the most eminent and respected lawyers in the country, Mr. Charles O'Conor. Why the story was published the *Times* has not made apparent, as the events out of which it grew can hardly be said to be "news" at this day; and we can only explain it as a piece of that peculiar kind of newspaper enterprise which criminal prosecutions for libel seem to be the only thing calculated effectually to suppress. The story is, in substance, that in the Forrest divorce case Mr. O'Conor swindled his client, Mrs. Forrest, first allowing her to believe that he was serving her without hope of reward, and then appropriating her funds when she had gained her suit. We do not propose to go into the merits of the case, which Mr. O'Conor has laid before the Bar Association,

further than to say this: that it is a case in which no charge whatever has been made by the person supposed to have been injured; that she herself has frequently and in the most public manner expressed her profound gratitude to Mr. O'Conor for his services, and that she wrote a letter in December, 1851, expressly admitting his right to payment in the event of her ability to recompense him for his services; that the fees he secured bore no adequate proportion to the services rendered; and that no member of his own profession has hinted at a suspicion of his professional conduct in the matter. Under these circumstances, the publication of a story insinuating, rather than making, charges of gross fraud is nothing short of a scandalous abuse of the power of the press, and an outrage which we do not believe would be tolerated by the courts or by the public opinion of any civilized community in the world outside New York. Mr. O'Conor at once brought the matter before the Bar Association, and requested an investigation. A committee, consisting of such lawyers as Messrs. Evarts, Choate, and Parsons, was appointed for this purpose, but reported that Mr. O'Conor's statement of the case was a "sufficient answer to anything that had appeared in the public prints or otherwise," and suggested that Mrs. Forrest (Mrs. Sinclair) should have an opportunity to make charges if she wished to do so. To anything short of a thorough investigation, however, Mr. O'Conor strenuously objected, and very properly. A new committee has accordingly been appointed to get at the "bottom facts," though it will doubtless appear that there are no "bottom facts" except a gratuitous libel of a man of unblemished reputation.

The condition of Egyptian finances has furnished a very prominent topic of English politics for many weeks past, owing to the general belief, after the purchase of the Suez Canal shares, that England was going to do something handsome for the Khedive—a belief which was strengthened by the despatch, at his request, of an English accountant, Mr. Cave, to examine his finances. There is little doubt that at the time Mr. Cave went out there was a vague intention in Mr. Disraeli's mind of in some way interfering in Egyptian finance, but it is asserted that the protests of France and Italy led him to back out of it. At all events, Mr. Cave shortly came back, and the Government declined to state what the result of his investigation had been, as the Khedive wished to have it considered confidential, an announcement which caused a panic in the Egyptian securities from which they have not since recovered. The fall has, in fact, been tremendous. The total nominal amount of the Egyptian debt is in round numbers $284,000,000. Its market value in October of last year was $192,000,000. At the end of last month it had fallen to $152,500,000, a depreciation of about nineteen per cent. Since then, however, the Khedive has telegraphed permission to London to have the report published, and we shall probably have it shortly, but the best that is expected from it is that it will show that the Khedive is not actually bankrupt, and that he can recover if he tries. It is hardly likely that this will improve his credit. The money markets of the world are learning at last the great lesson that the credit of a country does not depend on its natural resources, but on the moral character of the government, and therefore statistics about the hogs and the wheat and the ores are no longer of any value for raising the wind. What lenders now ask is, "Are the politicians of your country—the managing men—whether Sultans, Shahs, Khedives, Favorite Sons, or Practical Men, honest and careful persons, with a nice sense of public and private honor, or are they whiffling, quibbling, lying, fraudulent fellows, who do not care what people say or think as long as they can fill their pockets?" The stern and inexorable putting of this question has made the rates for money very low and borrowers very scarce.

The Anglo-Indian Government, which has been losing for two or three years on its remittances to England, and would this year, it is estimated, lose about $11,000,000 owing to the decline in silver, and is every year running a little further into debt for public improvements, has determined to tide over the present crisis in its coinage by a new loan of $20,000,000. The ordinary revenue is about $250,000,000, and the ordinary expenditures about the same, but there is every year an extraordinary outlay of about $20,000,000 for public works, and nearly $12,000,000 were spent last year in the relief of the famine in Bengal. The new loan is to be raised in England, and this will for the present stave off the loss on the remittances to England, and has helped to raise the price of silver in the London market. The unfavorable feature in the condition of the revenue is the large extent to which it is dependent on the sale of opium, the receipts from this source amounting to nearly $50,000,000, or about one-fifth of the total amount. The revenue shows but little elasticity, owing to the fact that the largest item in it is the land-tax, amounting to about $100,000,000, while the customs duties, in which the rise caused by increased civilization would soonest show itself, amount only to about $12,500,000. But then there is remarkable progress. In 1858–9, the year after the mutiny, the revenue was only $180,000,000. In 1863–4 it had risen to $225,000,000. In the present year it is estimated at $255,000,000.

M. Waddington, the new French Minister of Public Instruction, has introduced in the Assembly his bill repealing two clauses of the act passed in the last Assembly which gave complete liberty of university instruction, and restoring to the Government the sole right to superintend the examinations for degrees. The Minister has to sign all the diplomas, and this he says he cannot properly do unless he has the means of knowing what their value is. What is most curious in all this is, that the act of last year, which was the work of the Clerical and Legitimist parties in the Assembly, simply carried out one of the reforms which the Liberals in France have been demanding ever since the Restoration. When they got it, however, they discovered that the Clericals were likely to reap more advantage from it than anybody else, owing to their great power of raising money, and they have accordingly been clamoring for a return to the old system of state control, and are apparently unwilling to face the priests in the field of free competition. Perhaps the best defence of M. Waddington's position is to be found in the fact that a university degree in France is essential to the pursuit of certain callings and the holding of certain official positions, and as long as the Government gives graduates this sort of monopoly it is proper that it should see that the privilege is not abused.

The new Italian Ministry has made a declaration of its policy which contains nothing very radical or startling. As regards foreign affairs, Signor Depretis said they would pursue substantially the same course as their predecessors, and as regarded the tariff would adhere to free trade. He deplored the existence of the legal-tender paper money, and promised to continue the efforts of the Minghetti Ministry to get rid of it. He also promised legislation intended to secure greater independence to the communes and provinces in the management of local financial affairs, and to increase the independence of the judiciary, though we are unable to say in what particular, as the Italian judges are already appointed by the Crown and become irremovable three years after their appointment. He urged the adoption of the new Penal Code now before the Chambers, which effaces the last distinctions between the criminal legislation of the different states of which the kingdom is composed, Tuscany having until now preserved its own Code, and the new Italian Code, promulgated in 1865, having been modified in some particulars as regards Naples. Signor Depretis proposed to try compulsory education; declared himself opposed to the Minghetti scheme of state railroads, but favorable to the improvement of the Tiber and to the better regulation of the management of ecclesiastical property; and, while holding out no hope of a reconciliation between the State and the Church, in the sense in which that phrase is ordinarily used, said that the relations of the Government with the Vatican would not be less friendly than they had been. In short, this first programme of the Radicals in power is as conservative as any Conservative could wish, and promises no sensation.

ESPIONAGE IN POLITICS.

THE explanation offered by General Babcock of his connection with Whitley previous to the safe-burglary in Washington—that he employed him to find out who the persons were who were making attacks upon him in certain papers—is not a very lucid one, particularly as he says Whitley never reported, and as he cannot now remember the names of the papers and never applied to the editors for the desired information. But the mere confession of a man in such a position that he employed a detective to discover the author of a newspaper article, in preference to or instead of asking the editor, is an incident which contains a suggestion of some value for those who may be charged during the next four years with the work of reform in Washington; and it is by no means the only incident of the kind which has come to light in the investigations now pending. Anybody who has followed, even in the most cursory way, either the Whiskey trials or the Congressional enquiries, must have been struck with the part played by espionage, pure and simple, both in the administration of the Government and in the mere manœuvring of politics. Nearly all those who have turned up as actors in these affairs have either employed spies or played the part of spies themselves. They correspond in cipher. They hire men to "shadow" each other. They know each other by slang pseudonyms. They arrange rendezvous in out-of-the-way places. They steal private letters, or hire men to read letters and let them know the contents. They are constantly engaged in transactions which they wish kept secret. They make arrangements to throw other persons "off the track." They pretend to have powerful persons in the dark "behind them." They have "papers," which they hold over each other's heads. They are constantly travelling to and fro, engaged either in the promotion or frustration of a "plot." They have "enemies," not of the tranquil kind known in real life, who confine themselves to mild dislike, but of the theatrical type, who "work" actively with tricks worthy of Satan himself to accomplish their ruin; and "friends" who seek to help them by devices that sometimes seem borrowed from mediæval fiction. Their love for dark ways, in fact, seems almost passionate. Of two ways of accomplishing an object, they prefer the tortuous one, or that which offers the better opportunity for some kind of chicane or deceit.

Nor are the persons who carry on this curious game altogether obscure adventurers or Jeremy Diddlers simply. They are largely Government officials, filling places of trust and emolument, who seem to live in familiar intercourse with a circle of nondescripts without any visible means of livelihood, but whose livelihood, nevertheless, seems well assured, and who, when we catch glimpses of them, are up to the chin in "negotiations," and "agreements," and "compromises," and "offers," and "partnerships"—all of a dubious sort. In their hurryings to and fro, too, they frequently come in contact with the President and Cabinet officers, who watch them apparently without surprise or suspicion, get letters from them, and sometimes proposals that receive consideration. When one of them finds out that another is a liar or a cheat—a catastrophe which seems to be of tolerably frequent occurrence—he never manifests any surprise or disappointment, but simply "breaks off his negotiations" with him; and, what is more singular, the account which each gives the other, even at the first meeting, of his position and standing, is frequently accepted without question. If, for instance, Smith comes to Jones and says that he has Bristow in his breeches-pocket, and controls all the olive-oil now in the market, Jones, far from questioning it, enters into a bargain looking to "an operation" based on the hypothesis that the story is literally true.

The interest excited just now by the safe-burglary in the question whether any Government officer planned it, is leading people to overlook its importance as a revelation of manners. Whether Babcock was implicated in it or not, the fact remains that certain persons connected in some way with the government of the national capital sought to frustrate an enquiry into their use of the public funds by hiring professional burglars to rob a public safe of the books of account, with the connivance of those charged with their custody, and carry them to the door of the most prominent promoter of the enquiry, with the view of fastening the crime on him; and that one of the persons implicated most gravely in the conspiracy was, while under indictment and trial, invited to an evening party at the White House. Now, this most daring and clumsy plot was but the final product of social and moral conditions which had been in existence for years. It was the device of knaves and tricksters, who had so long practised their art with impunity that they had forgotten that there were any limitations whatever on it. So also General Babcock's employing a detective to find out who wrote a newspaper article about him, with a system of go-betweens and rendezvous, instead of writing to the editor, was a thing to which an officer of the regular army in a high social and official position does not come suddenly. It was plainly—supposing the story to be true—the resort of a man enamored of intrigue through long indulgence in it.

A more objectionable state of things, one more corrupting to society and politics, could hardly exist. It will be the first duty of the new Administration, if it be really a reform one, to try and sweep it all away. But as we said the other day, when speaking of the Belknap affair, it will not do to attribute it to a very sudden or peculiar outbreak of depravity on the part of American society or American politicians. The materials for this falsehood and intrigue exist everywhere. The responsibility for bringing them into use lies with the legislature and the public. The war naturally gave espionage a part in the administration of the Government it never had before, and made detectives and "secret-service agents" important personages, and consequently gave fraud and lying and skilled deception a certain respectability. One of the first things that should have been done at the close of the fighting, next to the regulation of the currency, was to throw it out of use, or, at all events, to diminish as rapidly as possible, in the interest of political morals, the occasion for it, by reforms in the imposition and collection of taxes. Far from this, it was, by means of what was called "the moiety system," and a most onerous and complex customs tariff and internal revenue, elevated to the rank of a portion of the normal machinery of government. Every man engaged in trade, were his business large or small, had a spy set after him, and in the great commercial centres the spy became a high public functionary. B. G. Jayne, who filled the place here, had the rank and honors of a great officer of state, and more pay than the President and all the Cabinet put together. He was the friend and confidant of "statesmen" at Washington, and a trusted adviser of the Government law officers, and his daily business consisted simply in laying traps for merchants and getting their clerks and porters to play the traitor and hypocrite towards them. In fact, for many years after the war the collection of the revenue in this city was conducted as if truth did not exist and honor was an empty name, and as if the government of a great Christian nation had no better basis than that of King Koffee Kalkalli.

The connection of political management with this system is close and constant. In fact, the creation and conduct of a nominating convention, from the holding of the first primary meeting to the moment of the nomination, are a piece of work in which trickery and intrigue of divers degrees play the leading part; and the money for its expenses is largely and naturally drawn from jobbery and extortion. At this moment there is enormous activity in the very line in which Whitley and Bell shine, among all the active politicians in the country. They are hurrying to and fro, making proposals and counter-proposals, "blocking each other's game," "heading each other off," concocting "plots," and "laying trains," with just the same arts as those which brought about the safe-burglary. When Simon Cameron goes back from Pennsylvania, and says "it is wonderful how much strength Senator Conkling has been developing within the last few days," he does not mean that Mr. Conkling stands any higher in the favor of the people than he

did a few days ago—indeed, the phrase "developing strength," applied to a candidate, does not touch his popularity with the people at all—he means that Conkling is gaining ground with the small band of men in each State who expect to manage the convention when it meets, through the skill of his own partisans in the secret bargaining which goes on among them; and what we wish to point out is, that in this body, and at this work, detectives like Whitley or Jayne are just as strong and able as Cameron, or Morton, or Conkling—or rather, their ability is the same in kind, though it may be lower in degree. The arguments used and the considerations presented are precisely the kind Whitley would use in trying to get restitution from a burglar or throw suspicion on the wrong man; and, in fact, if we said that political life, as the Senatorial Group understand it and follow it, was a vast detective service, we should not be guilty of any great inaccuracy.

THE DRY-GOODS BUSINESS.

THE *éclat* which has attended Mr. A. T. Stewart's death was, of course, due in a considerable degree to the popular notion of the size of his fortune. The man who has succeeded in accumulating more money than any other man in a commercial community in which nearly every man is striving for money with great eagerness, is necessarily a man of distinction, and his death is sure to cause more or less sensation. But it may well be doubted whether Mr. Stewart would have achieved nearly as much distinction had he made his money in any other way than the way in which he did make it. The riches of a great real-estate speculator, or railroad man, or contractor, or miner, or iron-master, or China merchant, would not impress the popular imagination nearly so powerfully as his have done. He not only made in his lifetime an enormous fortune, but he made it in the most conspicuous, best-known, and, to the large body of American traders, most fascinating of pursuits—the sale of the commodity known as "dry-goods." There is probably no other business in the country on which so much ambition is secretly fed, which furnishes the material for so many day-dreams, and to which the bulk of the young men who engage in commercial pursuits are so powerfully drawn. The percentage of those engaged in all branches of business who have begun their career by "clerking it" in a dry-goods store would, if statistics could be collected on the subject, be found curiously large. So also would the percentage be of those who have tried dry-goods at one period or other of their lives as capitalists, and only turned to other callings after they had irretrievably failed in it. The number of "traders" in dry-goods was greater by far in 1870 than those in any other branch of distribution except groceries, numbering in round numbers 40,000 (the grocers reached 74,000), and this does not include the salesmen and saleswomen and travellers and collectors, who may be set down at least at two to one, or about 80,000. No other traders or dealers number half as many. There were in the country in 1870 3,000,000 farmers and planters, to say nothing of the same number of agricultural laborers. We shall not attempt to guess how large a proportion of the young men just entering on life belonging to this class are eager to exchange the dull and monotonous and exposed life of a tiller of the soil for the shelter, cleanliness, and excitement, and even remote chance of great wealth, offered by almost any kind of exchange business in a city. It is undoubtedly very large, and to most of these youths the dry-goods store seems to offer the most attractive and easy path to the new life, and is undoubtedly the most familiar one. Most of the village heroes the fame of whose "mansion" and diamonds and fast horses, church or college donations, and large "operations" comes back to their birthplace, have started in this way. Every village boy, in fact, thinks if he is quick at figures and can get behind a counter he may rival Stewart or Claflin; and more than this he does not look for in this world. The loftier dreams of intermarriage with counts and dukes, and familiar intercourse with effete monarchs and princes of the blood, come later in life, and are put into his head by his wife and daughters.

This pre-eminence and attractiveness of the dry-goods trade in this country is due mainly to the great purchasing power and varied requirements of American women. In all European countries the country population are mainly peasants, and, even when well-to-do, wear clothes of exceeding simplicity and of a stereotyped fashion. They make next to no demand for silks, trimmings, and great diversity of material, and but little for the finer qualities of goods of any kind. Consequently, there is but little field for enterprise or taste or ingenuity in furnishing them. The dealer who depends on them is satisfied if, like the grocer, he lays in a few great staples, and is able to tell which of his cotton prints have fast colors. Here in the country the tastes of the city women are spread everywhere by the fashion papers and magazines, and cultivated by the passion for equality, and the absence of class distinctions, and the secret social ambition bred by the common-schools and academies. The country boy aspires to sell dry-goods in Broadway or Washington Street, and the country girl expects a city dry-goods man to come out and marry her, and give her shawls and laces or the opportunity of "culture" in picture-galleries and libraries. The consequence is that the dry-goods man has a sphere of activity opened to him such as is presented to no other trader. Women are his principal customers, and their wants are innumerable, whether for use or ornament, and their fancy is a harp of a thousand strings, on which a skilful salesman may play an endless variety of tunes. The chances for great hits, too, in colors or patterns or fashions give the business some of the attractions of gambling, and the changefulness of the popular taste furnishes a restless, eager nature with an inexhaustible stimulus to activity and enterprise. There is no business in which a trader is brought into such constant contact with the public at large, and into such close relations with family life, and into such near perception of its wants and weaknesses.

Mr. Stewart was the first to perceive the opportunities it offered in this country and to avail himself of them, and he derived his success from two things—in the first place, he saw the advantage, in dealing with a timid, non-commercial class like women, who are, nevertheless, eager for new and to them unknown and untried commodities, of having a fixed price which would contain a fair profit and nothing more. This removed one great check on women's purchases by leaving their minds free for choice of goods simply, and delivering them from distrust of their own power as hagglers or bargain-makers. In the next place, he saw the necessity in a country of such rapid growth and unbridled hopefulness, and therefore extensive use of credit, in which the desire for fine clothes generally ran ahead of the means of paying for them, of doing business in such a way as to avoid being swept overboard by panics, which are the tornadoes of American life, and always strike dry-goods men more severely than other dealers. He therefore paid as he went, and gave no credit until giving credit became of no more consequence to him than grammar to the king, and in this way panics became his season of greatest profit, as he was able to buy out his ruined competitors. He rapidly became not simply the greatest but oldest dry-goods house in the country. Indeed, his store has always been remarkable for containing a large number of dry-goods men, once mighty and active, who had "burst up" at seasons when he was making most money, and found refuge in his service. He had perhaps no equal, except the United States Custom-house, in sheltering persons who had compounded with their creditors or been stripped of their savings in Wall Street. In fact, he played the part on the troubled dry-goods ocean of a powerful iron-clad ram, giving all rivals who seemed to be gaining on him a tap of his beak which speedily sent them to the bottom, but then picking up the officers and sending them before the mast as able seamen.

The strong expectation entertained with regard to the provision he would make for charity or art or literature by his will was probably largely due to the influence which great capacity in selling dry-goods exercises on the popular imagination. In no other business is a man's mastery of details and variety and extent of operations brought so closely under the popular eye; and that success

which people could see and appreciate so clearly must qualify a man to be a great and wise public benefactor, is an inference easily made. But the fact is there is probably no business which is less likely to fit one for the hearty and prudent execution of great schemes of public utility. We have no intention of giving expression here to the modern aristocratic contempt for the business of selling goods by the yard over the counter; but the philosophic condemnation of all retail business for its effects on the mind and character is at least as old as Cicero, and has a good deal of foundation. *Re*tail is essentially and above all things *de*tail, and the man who prosecutes it successfully must excel in detail and have a love of it. But there is no surer consequence of this than a loss of capacity for putting work on other people's shoulders, or for confining one's self to the task of general and more or less remote supervision, which is the essential condition of all undertakings that are to have a permanent value. The passion for seeing to everything one's self is a good thing to begin life with, but the man who retains it into his old age is more likely to die a shopkeeper than a statesman or philanthropist, and is not likely ever to find the leisure or the frame of mind for any contributions to art or charity which he has no hope of personally managing, and the working-out of which must be left to agencies which he cannot either select or control. In short, the very traits of character and experience of life which most promoted Mr. Stewart's business success, had probably most to do in preventing his leaving behind any finished and lasting monument. His contributions to the architecture of the city were unmistakable signs of his defects as a public benefactor. None of them contains the slightest recognition of the claims of art, or, in other words, of the existence of any world in which the methods and aims of "business" had no place.

Correspondence.

FALLING INTO LINE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A Republican of standing in the party a few days since expressed a decided preference for Mr. Morton as the Republican candidate; I suggested that such a nomination must inevitably drive many Republicans from the support of the ticket. His answer was: "If Morton is nominated, what are you going to do about it? The *party* will fall into line, and the independent Republicans must support a Democrat." I am convinced that he spoke the sentiments of a large number of the party men. Now, what are the Republicans like the *Nation* and its many readers going to do about it? It very much looks as if, with skilful trading, either Conkling or Morton, or some such statesman, will be foisted upon the country at Cincinnati.

Shall we bolt, or can we vote for a Democrat? Certainly not for one of the old party leaders that are now talked of; but we can and will vote for a Democrat of the proper kind. The nomination of any man connected or allied in any way with the present Administration must alienate a large vote, and in any such unfortunate event, and in the absence of any independent nomination, we can support such a man as Governor Randolph of New Jersey, or Henry B. Payne of Cleveland, because the characters of these men always have been of the best. They are honest, capable, and hard-money men. What blindness of the Democratic party prevents the nomination of such men?

The universal disgust and chagrin at the present status of political affairs make it absolutely certain that the *man*, and not the party, will determine the political character of our next President.—Very truly yours,

G. L. W.

St. Louis, April 8, 1876.

THE BANK OF ENGLAND'S RATE OF DISCOUNT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: May I beg of you the favor to allow me to make a few remarks on the able letter of Mr. George Walker in your number of March 9? For the better understanding of the chief points to which it relates, let us make the supposition that the Issue Department has its office at Whitehall, and that the automaton manages his affairs with no more reference to the Bank of England than to any other bank in the kingdom. By this migration to a new locality, nothing whatever will be altered in law or practice beyond a change of premises. The Bank of England will be seen to be a private bank with a big customer, and with a power of issuing fifteen millions of bank-notes.

1. The first fact that comes out of this position is that the Bank of England need not (and now does not) give itself any concern about finding gold or reserve for these fifteen millions of its own issues till the stock of gold in Whitehall is exhausted. If any notes out of a circulation exceeding these fifteen millions are presented for gold in Threadneedle Street, the Bank of course is bound to provide it, and this it can always do by sending these notes to Whitehall and getting the gold for them there.

2. What the probabilities are of all the stock of gold in Whitehall being exhausted, and thus some of the remaining fifteen millions being presented for payment, is a matter of pure experiment and trial. The wants of the public have been found, in the worst of crises, to keep in circulation many more than these fifteen millions. Hence the governor of the Bank and his colleagues need not ever have their sleep disturbed by the vision of notes issued by the Bank, notes of the fifteen millions, being presented for gold, and no gold in store to meet them.

3. Hence Mr. Walker is quite accurate when he says that "the Bank Act of 1844 is simply and solely an act to fix and regulate the currency (of paper) and to ensure the convertibility of bank-notes." Mr. Walker adds: "The Bank of England is a sovereign, endeavoring, by a system of complex machinery, to do what Lord Overstone and Sir Robert Peel insisted that, under the act, it could do, namely, cause a mixed currency of coin and paper to fluctuate precisely as a purely metallic currency would fluctuate if there were no paper." I will not believe that so highly intelligent a man as Mr. Walker is adopting this nonsense—which I have shown in my book to be nonsense—as his own belief, till he tells me that he does. Nor am I aware of any evidence which brings this belief home to Sir Robert Peel. I rely on Mr. Walker's word "endeavoring"—trying to perform the impossible—as describing not Mr. Walker's futile effort but that of some currency oracles.

4. Mr. Walker is further perfectly correct in saying that "my argument establishes the fact that even now the currency system is not impregnable," but not when he adds that I am unconscious of it. Impregnability, absolute, material certainty of ever being able to get coin for notes, cannot be obtained in this world except by keeping in store a pound of gold for every pound of paper; and no paper currency ever did or ever would do such a thing. It would lose its *raison d'être*.

5. One most important consequence flows from these facts. When the Bank talks of its reserve, and regulates so mischievously the rate of discount by the movements of that reserve, the reserve so thought about and spoken of is its own private reserve in Threadneedle Street, and it has no more reference, so long as the circulation does not approach the fifteen millions, to the reserve in Threadneedle Street for the convertibility of the notes than the reserve of Messrs. Glyn or any other banker in England. As I have explained, thoughts about the currency reserve do not come into play till there is danger of the automaton being exhausted and then some of the fifteen millions turning up for gold. To what Mr. Walker, therefore, calls "the real question, whether the practice of raising the Bank rate to check an outflow of gold is necessary to maintain the *currency* system of Great Britain, as established by the Bank Act of 1844," I answer, it has never yet been necessary. Nay, more—it has never yet been done. The Bank never raises the rate because the circulation may fall to below fifteen millions of notes. The reserve for the notes is exclusively the affair of the automaton in Whitehall, and he manages it by a piece of self-acting mechanism. The fluctuations in the reserve, and the consequent fluctuations in the charge for discount, are events of that purely private bank, the Bank of England. Every bank in London may adopt the same rule, and proclaim a change of rate to its customers according to the state of its reserve, quite as much and as truly as the Bank of England does now: only they prefer, for various reasons, to follow the example of the Bank on most but not on all occasions, as I have shown in my letters to the *Daily News* of last December on the battle of the banks. The thought of the currency, as such, of maintaining the convertibility of the bank-note, I affirm, is always absent from the Bank parlor in Threadneedle Street, though now and then a bank director, in private society, when hard up for a reason for justifying these most injurious but to the Bank very profitable dances of the rate of discount, has been heard to allude to the necessity of looking after the currency.

6. Mr. Walker finds that "I consider too lightly this, the most important function of money, the '*measuring*' power." It would pain me exceedingly if I thought this censure to be well founded. No one can have a higher conception than I have of the supreme importance of steadiness of

value in a currency: is it possible that any one has proclaimed it more ardently than I have? With me it has ever been the one vital, indispensable test of a sound paper currency that it should be of absolutely equal value with metallic, and it seems to me that I detect just a little flavor of falling away from the supreme doctrine in Mr. Walker, which I conceive gives me, in this vital matter, a touch of superiority even over him. He proclaims that "changes in the currency of any country should be in the direction of greater intrinsic value"—I should say rather in the direction of greater steadiness of value. Be it gold, silver, or anything else which is adopted as the tool of exchange, let it be the substance whose cost of production varies least.

I take leave of Mr. George Walker with warm acknowledgments of the courtesy which pervades his whole letter, and of the ability which characterizes it throughout. BONAMY PRICE.

OXFORD, March 28, 1876.

"TALENTS."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Lord Macaulay, in his 'Life and Letters,' recently published, is represented as having written: "We [Lady Holland and I] talked about the word *talents* and its history. I said that it had first appeared in theological writing, that it was a metaphor taken from the parable in the New Testament, and that it had gradually passed from the vocabulary of divinity into common use. I challenged her to find it in any classical writer on general subjects before the Restoration, or even before the year 1700. I believe that I might safely have gone down later. She seemed surprised by this theory, never having, so far as I could judge, heard of the parable of the talents."

It is neither *talent*, in the sense of 'general ability,' nor *talent*, for 'specific form of ability,' that Lord Macaulay here deals with, but the plural, *talents*.

For many centuries *talent* had no other significations than those of 'desire,' 'inclination,' 'disposition,' and the like; and, from the time when those significations came to have an established rival in one not referring distinctly to will, it must have seemed just as proper to call, for instance, 'readiness of repartee' *a talent*, as to call 'readiness of repartee and of wit' *talents*. Why, then, Lord Macaulay restricted himself to remarking on the plural word only, is not evident. He must have known that *talent* was employed metaphorically by many a "classical writer on general subjects" very long before the Restoration. Can it be that, while he found in *talents* an allusion to the Biblical parable, he found no allusion to it in *talent*?

Even from Johnson's 'Dictionary' he might have learned that Dryden uses *talents*. Add Gosson, 'The Schoole of Abuse' (1579), p. 52 (ed. 1868); Dr. Featley, 'The Dippers Dipt' (ed. 1646), p. 120; Henry, Earl of Monmouth, 'Advertisements from Parnassus' (ed. 1656), pp. 199, 244.

Miege, in 'The Great French Dictionary' (1687), has, "A man of good *talents*—that is, of good parts or abilities, Un homme qui a de beaux *talens*." It is worth noticing that Addison uses *talents* in the *Spectator*, Nos. 62, 225; in the *Tatler*, No. 193; and in the *Freeholder*, No. 39. Steele uses it in the *Spectator*, No. 216. Bartelett uses it in the *Guardian*, No. 103.

In 'Modern English' I have given several pages to *talent* and *talents*, adducing for them passages from numerous authors, from Sir Thomas Elyot (1544) onwards; and my quotations there from books printed before the Restoration might easily be doubled.

Talent, to import "faculty, power, gift of nature," Dr. Johnson characterizes as "a metaphor borrowed from the *talents* mentioned in the Holy Writ"; and we have seen Lord Macaulay's unhesitating pronouncement on *talents*. Is the Johnsonian view to be accepted without qualification? I doubt whether it is, and this doubt I expressed in print some years ago.

In the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, *talent*, as used by religious writers, usually indicates moral endowment rather than intellectual. It may be that our pious forefathers regarded the former as, more essentially than the latter, innate by divine appointment, for better or for worse; as more a gratuity; as less obviously owing to exertion and cultivation than is the case with specialty of mind. Even so late a writer as Samuel Richardson speaks, after the elder fashion, of "pride" as *a talent*, and so of "illnature" and of "taciturnity."

At first, the broad metaphorical application of *talent* here in consideration was, presumably, with us of Scriptural suggestion. But a *talent* or 'gift entrusted' may be other than spiritual; and already in 1545 Roger Ascham wrote of his "poore *talent* of learnyng." Phrases like '*a talent for* poetry,' '*a talent for* music,' etc., had not, in his age, yet appeared. On the other hand, we have long dropped such old expressions as "*talents* of mind," "the two *talents*, good sense and politeness," etc., etc.

Remembrance of the Biblical parable must, of course, have operated towards popularizing the word *talent*, and towards determining its later significations. But *talentum*, for 'will,' 'propensity,' occurs in a Low-Latin document of the eleventh century; and we should give due weight to the fact that *talent*, in the senses of 'inclination,' etc., common, together with *maltalent*, from the days of Gower and Chaucer, lived on without falling into abeyance, so as not to be too archaic for even Clarendon, Dryden, and Swift. It being, furthermore, a truth of daily experience that an earnest bent for mental activity in any given field of thought is not unfrequently an index of special natural aptitude for excelling therein, a real metaphysical connection is discoverable between Gower's *talent* and *talent* as now current. It seems quite possible, therefore, on twofold grounds, that the more modern senses of *talent* were in part inspired by the now extinct senses which were borne by the word—senses which, as we have seen, were not entirely laid aside in the days of Queen Anne. Otherwise, the confirmation in use of these more modern senses may have been assisted by translators from French and Italian, in both which languages they have long been established, and without any acknowledged relation to the parable in the New Testament.

A discussion of the various shades of meaning which *talent* has had within the two last centuries would require a good deal of detail, and would, moreover, be beside the limited object of this letter.

Your obedient servant,

FITZEDWARD HALL.

MARLESFORD, WICKHAM MARKET, March 31, 1876.

A REVIEW OF MR. VAN COTT'S COMMENTARY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: With your kind permission I will say a few words respecting the communication of Mr. Joshua M. Van Cott, which was published in the *Nation* on Thursday last. This communication, the facetiousness of whose latter portions is equalled only by the civility of its earlier ones, seems to be the first effort of its author in a new department. The versatility as well as the agility of this distinguished gentleman has been understood for some time past, even in the retired region where I live. He first came to our knowledge as an attorney against Mr. Moulton in the case where this person retracted a libel and was mulcted in the costs, and next presented himself before us as the legal representative of Mrs. Moulton in her ecclesiastical case, from which she concluded to withdraw before it came to trial. As he had thus skilfully assumed a position between the two principal persons in this family, against the one and for the other, it did not surprise us when we found him turning from the defence of the laws of the State to the announcement of oracular responses in the sphere of the church, or learned that he had become, after the Presbyterianism or Reformed Dutch character of his younger days, a main support of what he calls "pure Congregationalism." But being a simple-minded people, who have never seen much of the extraordinary powers of lawyers in the great cities, we had never expected to find him appearing as a commentator on "the Epistles"; and even less, if possible, had we thought of him as undertaking, in addition to this work and at the same time with it, the office of counsel for the five gentlemen who have been criticising the late Advisory Council. As he has so courteously called my letters to the *Tribune* "the Epistles of Timothy," he will allow me, I trust, to say in a similar strain that, while I have been accustomed to regard *Joshua* with much reverence as the leader of the people of God, I have never supposed that he had, by reason of his education or his circumstances, any special fitness for explaining the views of Paul or his younger associates. It will hardly be surprising, therefore, if when he undertakes the work of a commentator he should fall into some errors, and if his earliest effort in the new line should show a few of the weaknesses of a beginner. The greatest men need to be careful when they enter upon an untried field. In a spirit of great kindness, I shall point out some of the slight defects in this new commentary, and thus shall hope to aid the author in avoiding similar mistakes, when he has occasion to write again in the department of Biblical literature.

After a pleasing introduction, in which he calls me a "compurgator," and compares me with the impure waters of the river Rhine, and places my "astuteness" and "adroitness" beyond those of "the Jesuit fathers," Mr. Van Cott declares that his "task is to expose some" of "my bold fallacies." St. Paul, when he had a difficult point to argue with his adversaries, in connection with which he was sure that the result would be to place them clearly in the wrong, was in the habit of beginning with a few conciliatory words. It is commendable in this new commentator that he follows this admirable

method ; and I have to express to him my sense of the favor he has done me, in that, while he evidently felt the painful duty imposed upon him of demolishing both my epistles and myself, he did not forget to give me such a measure of gracious praise at the outset. Such a course is honorable alike to his impartiality and his good temper, and it gives to those who examine his work a perfect confidence, even as they read the first paragraphs, that they will find in it no intentional misrepresentations.

Having thus made me known to his readers, Mr. Van Cott turns to the consideration of my fallacies, and I will take the liberty of following him with some suggestions. These fallacies of which he speaks, and which he calls "bold," are five in number :

I. The first, he says, lies "in the assumption that the Andover church proposed a mutual council *to try a church member*." Whether this be a fallacy or not, let me reply, I was not the author of it. It originated in the Andover church, and if common fame, on which Mr. Van Cott seems to rely so much, is to be trusted, he himself visited the celebrated town where that church is located, in connection with the matter of this proposal. The character of the action which the framers of the proposal designed to take is too well known to make it possible, at this late day, for the learned counsel to change it. Dr. Dexter, as I stated in one of my letters, gives the plan in detail, and leaves no doubt as to what was intended. He speaks of the mutual council as to be called "for the purpose of taking suitable action in the way of clearance or censure of the pastor." He says that it would "take absolute, undeniable, and unavoidable jurisdiction of the whole case" ; that there was no way in which the church and the pastor "could evade such an investigation as it should order, except by confessing judgment" ; and that its result, unless it should "find itself able to declare all allegations against the church and its pastor to be without foundation, would be to relieve the fellowship of the Congregational churches of the contamination of that presence." I have also the highest authority, independent of Dr. Dexter's statements, for saying that the design of the movers in the plan in the Andover church, as expressed to those who opposed it, was the trial of the pastor by a mutual council or an *ex-parte* one. Mr. Van Cott speaks of my "temerity" in calling it a trial, because the Council would not have "excommunicated" the member from Plymouth Church. But the Council, according to the declarations of its originators, was to determine the question of the pastor's guilt or innocence, to pronounce a decision accordingly, and, in case he were adjudged guilty, to inflict "censure." This would be to "try a church member," even though the penalty directly inflicted by the Council were not excommunication. If Mr. Van Cott is not disputing simply about the technicalities of words, this was a trial, and it involved a sentence of censure, which it was expected would drive the pastor from the denomination and from his pulpit. If he is disputing about such technicalities, I am perfectly willing that he should call the thing an "investigation," if he pleases, and not a "trial." The thing itself will not be changed ; and, as I have clearly shown in my letters, *the thing itself, by whatever name it may be called, is a judicial proceeding in the case of a church member such as Congregationalism does not allow to another church.* Mr. Van Cott's suggestion that the whole matter was to be left for final decision with Plymouth Church, so that a second Council would have to be called in order to withdraw fellowship in case the church did nothing after the first Council had given its advice, and thus that the first Council was to make no final or judicial decision, is an afterthought, which entered the minds of his associates and himself after the Advisory Council adjourned, and after the ministry and churches had read its elaborate report showing the uncongregational character of the whole movement. To quote his own illustration, Mr. Van Cott left Andover with a horse-chestnut and he now comes forth from Brooklyn with a chestnut horse.

II. The second fallacy discovered by the learned advocate is, "that a Council cannot lawfully investigate, but a Commission can." "Having affirmed that a Council cannot investigate, because it cannot try," he says, "the Professor turns a sharp corner and upsets both his major and minor premiss by affirming that a Council can, by its creature, investigate and so try a church member." The advocate, like his clients, is so full of the idea of government over the churches, that he does not seem to remember what the nature and function of a Council are. The Commission is not a creature of the Council, in any proper sense of those words. It is the creature of the church, suggested and nominated by the Council. It is a board of referees empowered and accepted by the church, and has a right, therefore, to do what the church authorizes it to do. The Andover plan, on the other hand, proposed a mutual council, and involved in its proposal the design and intention, in case this were not satisfactory to Plymouth Church, of calling an *ex-parte* council. It involved, thus, the constituting of a council by the Andover Church—even to the point of selecting all its members—for the purpose of investigating and trying the case of a member of Plymouth Church, and of imposing censure and withdrawal of fellowship upon him as a penalty. If the learned commentator and advocate does not perceive the difference between things so widely apart as these, we may as well cease to discuss the subject. I will only add on this point that, when Mr. Van Cott states that I "acknowledge that a council may finally investigate with a view to disfellowshipping," if he means *may investigate the case of the pastor*, I have said and acknowledged no such thing. The commentator has read into my text one of his own thoughts.

III. Mr. Van Cott's third fallacy has reference to the letter-missive. This letter-missive seems to trouble the five doctors of divinity and their counsel greatly ; but the learned counsel admits, if I understand him, what his clients have denied. He allows that the case of the pastor *is included* in the letter-missive, only he says that the letter raised a question respecting the past investigation, and had no reference to a future one. If this be admitted, I am glad that the critics have yielded their opposition on this point. If not, I will refer them to a passage respecting this subject in one of my notes to my third letter, published in the *Christian Union* of April 6. I have but a word to add on this matter. If Mr. Van Cott admits that Plymouth Church asked the Council whether the past investigations had been sufficient, and if the Council felt called upon to say that they had not been sufficient to satisfy a considerable portion of the public, then I hold that the question asked necessarily involved the demand for a specification, on the part of the Council, as to what should and what should not be done in the future to supply the past deficiency. If Mr. Van Cott does not think as I do on this subject, he is entirely welcome to his opinion. But he will permit me to say that because he thinks that "Jordan overflowed its banks on this occasion," it does not follow that no one but a "Jesuitical compurgator" could regard it as flowing quietly within its legitimate course. The frequency, indeed, with which, in his past experience as an Old Testament hero, he may have known the Jordan thus to overflow, may have led him to observe the movement of the river at any particular time less carefully than others do. The analogy of Mr. Jones and his neighbors which I used is, in my judgment, a complete one, so far as the purpose for which it was employed is concerned ; and I am willing to leave it to the common sense of my Congregational brethren throughout the land to decide between the distinguished advocate and myself on this point. I think that the Council would have been derelict to its duty if it had told the church that they had not done all that they ought, and then, on being asked what further they should do, it had refused to answer ; and I think that the churches which sent their delegates to the Council, and the churches generally, will agree with me. So much for this fallacy. Let me only say in addition, that when Mr. Van Cott says "it was illogical and foolish to advise the church that it had done enough, and then say it should do more," he says what is quite true, if we only admit one thing, namely, that we *did* advise the church thus. But it happens that we *did not* thus advise it. We said, You have done enough to satisfy yourselves, but not enough to satisfy a considerable number of those in fellowship with you. We therefore advise you to take a further step *for their satisfaction*. If the learned gentleman can find anything illogical in this it would be interesting to have it pointed out. That he may find something which appears to him foolish is very possible, for he seems to regard everything as foolish now except the Andover proposal.

IV. The fourth fallacy, Mr. Van Cott tells us, is this : "That because a party negotiating for a mutual council may, for a good cause, object to a church or delegate nominated by the other party, it may, as a matter of strict right, object, with or without cause, to any church or delegate." This fallacy is one of Mr. Van Cott's own devising. I have never maintained any such position. What I have asserted is, that a party negotiating for a mutual council may, for a good cause, object to a church or delegate proposed by the other party. Mr. Van Cott claims that, if I do this, I must assert, also, that a party may thus object, either with or without cause. I have not said anything of this kind. Let me remind Mr. Van Cott that a commentator, of all men, should be careful not to go beyond what is written. The placing his own ideas in the words of another person, which have no such meaning, is not a part of his proper business. Thus far for myself. As for the Council, it said nothing whatever about objecting in such cases, except so far as the mutual council proposed by Mrs. Moulton was concerned. If Mr. Van Cott will take the pains to examine the result of the Council again, he will find that, so far from "explicitly affirming the unlimited right" of objection, as he asserts, it made no general declaration on the subject. In reference to that particular case, and that case only, it made a statement of its opinion, which was this : that Plymouth Church had the right to

object to the two neighboring churches. The reasons why it had this right the Council did not distinctly set forth in its result, but I hinted at what I suppose them to have been in my third letter to the *Tribune*. They were, first, because Plymouth Church believed the pastors of these two churches to have already expressed their judgment in favor of the other party, and, secondly, because these two pastors had been, in a part of what they regarded as the same ecclesiastical case which, in another part of it, was to come before this Council, in the position of plaintiffs, while Plymouth Church was in that of the defendant. Perhaps Mr. Van Cott, in his legal practice, thinks it is a desirable thing to have the plaintiff one of the judges in a case where he is counsel for the defendant, or perhaps he entertains this view only when he becomes a commentator.

V. The fifth fallacy is found in connection with "the tigers." In illustrating the extravagance, as I regarded it, of the statement made by Dr. Storrs respecting the views of the Council as to the exercise of a wise discretion in dealing with members charged with scandalous offences, I used an illustration of a tiger and other animals. Mr. Van Cott finds a fallacy here, because the member charged with a scandalous offence is always a tiger. I beg leave to deny this. The member charged with a scandalous offence is charged with being a tiger—that is the most we can say of him—or is believed by Mr. Van Cott to be a tiger. But he is not, of necessity and always, actually a tiger. I will not press this point, however, at this time. I will only say that my learned commentator is so affected by his office as counsel for the five gentlemen that he treats my illustration as I had no thought of treating it. I used it for a single purpose and, as I conceive, a perfectly legitimate one. The Advisory Council said that "in case a member openly and notoriously abandons all communion with the church, and is also charged with a scandalous offence, the church *may*, to avoid greater scandal, *use a wise discretion* in selecting the offence on which to separate him from its fellowship." Dr. Storrs, in referring to this statement, maintained that it included *any and every case*, and that the Council would even allow "the forger fleeing to Holland" or "the incestuous person at Corinth" to be dropped on account of irregular church attendance. He said that the doctrine of the Council was that, under circumstances as extreme as these, "the church which such a person disgraces is under no binding obligation to the community, to other churches, to the man himself, or to the Lord and Judge of all, to examine the blasting accusation" against him. Comparing this language with the words used by the Council, "made in the exercise of a wise discretion," I thought the eloquent preacher caricatured what we said. With reference to the extravagance of the preacher's statements, I used the illustration which has been mentioned. When I say we may introduce animals into our gardens according to our wise discretion, I do not mean tigers. Mr. Van Cott may not see the point of my illustration, but I think most other persons will perceive it so soon as they read the passages which I have brought into comparison. In my judgment also, those persons who keep their minds free from prejudice will bear me out in saying that the fallacy which the distinguished advocate thinks he has discovered here, is only in his own imagination. The imaginative faculty is one which even an advocate should keep under some restraint when he enters into the work of a commentator.

Mr. Van Cott closes his communication by saying that I "seem greatly agitated by my apprehensions that Andover will persist in calling a council," but that he is "not authorized to say anything to increase or tranquillize my fears." I beg to assure him that "things are not always what they seem," and that my fears have not risen to the point where they need to be tranquillized. If his clients should authorize him to say anything to increase them, I hope he will not hesitate to say it. They do not, however, seem very likely to do so; for, if we may judge from the expressions of the distinguished counsel whom they have employed in Boston, they are at present mainly occupied with their own fears. This gentleman, in his letter to the Chicago *Advance* of April 6 (the same day on which Mr. Van Cott says he is not authorized either to calm or to excite my feelings), uses the following language: "The Andover Church, to quote a professor, will sell out its job *cheap*, if any other church will take it." I suggest to the learned commentator on my epistles that we wait to see what other churches will do in view of this liberal offer.

TIMOTHY DWIGHT.

NEW HAVEN, April 8, 1876.

[As we have now done enough for fair play, we must decline to give further space to this controversy, particularly as it takes more and more the form of mutual castigation. Dr. Dexter's last letter in the *Tribune* in reply to Professor Dwight is in fact a declaration of war *à outrance*, in which we fear both Plymouth Church and its pastor will be speedily forgotten. We are bound to say, with reference to the collision between Professor Dwight and Mr. Van Cott in our own columns, that we think the former has the best of it as regards "Joshua" and the "overflow of Jordan," while Mr. Van Cott has come off victorious as regards "the tiger in the garden."—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

THE official report of the 'Proceedings at the Centennial Celebration of Concord Fight,' issued at the expense of the town by the Committee of Arrangements, is in all respects a credit to the culture as well as the patriotism of her citizens. It makes an elegantly printed volume of 175 pages, adorned with heliotypes of Ebenezer Hubbard (the restorer of the old bridge), of the statue of the Minute-man of 1775, and of the Rev. William Emerson's diary for the day of the fight. Mr. J. L. Whitney, of the Boston Public Library, supplies a bibliography of the Nineteenth-of-April literature.——M. Viollet-le-Duc might easily add a chapter, and a very instructive one, to his 'Habitations of Man in all Ages,' from the data furnished in the newly issued 'Bulletin' of the United States Geological and Geographical Survey (Vol. II., No. 1). It deals with the ancient remains which abound in Southwestern Colorado and the adjacent Territories, and is fully illustrated with a map and with views of the cave and bench dwellings, whose structure and lofty and almost inaccessible situations make them wonders of architecture. One square tower is shown as perched on an egg-shaped or boulder-like mass, of course out of all reach except by a series of ladders. In general they overhang the steepest cliffs. The skilful builders who occupied them were also artists in pottery, and the specimens of shape and ornamentation here figured are truly surprising. The few skulls found are discussed by Dr. Bessels.——The people of Chicago have been naturally elated by the recent assurance of a reversionary interest in an estate valued at something like four millions. The late Walter L. Newberry provided in his will that if his two daughters died without issue one-half of his estate should, on the death of his wife also, be devoted to founding a free public library in the North Division of Chicago. As the city already has such a public library in the South Division, there is little doubt that steps will be taken to merge it in the proposed Newberry Library, especially as the former has as yet no building of its own, and might indifferently be established in either division. Mrs. Newberry survives her daughters.——The fourth edition of the Boston Public Library's little 'Handbook for Readers' bears date of March, 1876. As we have before remarked, its usefulness is not confined to the patrons of that institution. Any one having access to a library of 20,000 volumes or upwards would find it a most serviceable guide. We may also call attention to the broadside "Catalogue Notes on English History," for popular reading, designed to be posted up in the Library or its branches; to which the remark just made about the 'Handbook' applies equally.——J. H. Coates & Co., Philadelphia, have undertaken the publication of a monthly periodical called *Micro-Photographs in Histology*. Each number will contain at least four plates, illustrating one pathological and three normal specimens of tissues, copied directly from the microscopic objects, and printed by one of the mechanical photographic processes. The photographs will be prepared by Dr. Carl Seiler; the descriptive letterpress by Drs. J. Gibbons Hunt and Joseph G. Richardson.

—We regret to record the death of Mr. Robert Kelley Weeks, which took place in this city on Thursday last. Among our younger poets he was distinguished by a shrinking modesty, a refined taste, and a severe standard of excellence, rather than by strength or originality of diction. The earlier readers of the *Nation* will recall his occasional contributions to this journal. Mr. Weeks's health was always delicate, and this circumstance distinctly tinged his writings.

—Two volumes of the revised—the "Centenary"—edition of Bancroft's 'History of the United States' (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.) have been published, the revision having occupied, as the prefatory note states, "a solid year of close and undivided application." It is not often, certainly, that a revised edition of an American work bears such unmistakable marks of conscientious labor; it is in large part rewritten, and its value vastly increased. The ten volumes of the original work are now to be brought into six, the two volumes before us covering the ground of the first three. This is not, however, a reduction in amount—the volumes are thicker and the print smaller, so that, as nearly as we can judge, there are about a hundred more pages of matter. This is not, however, by any means an indication of the amount of new material, for there have been very considerable omis-

sions. The style is not materially changed. Here and there an epithet has been pruned away, but, on the whole, it is the same brilliant, rather exuberant style that it was forty years ago. Nevertheless, some redundancies have been omitted, and some less important facts have made way for new matter. For example, on page 13 of Vol. III. (Vol. II., page 196, of the new edition) the allusions to Greece and Rome have been struck out, and, a few lines before, where England shines "brilliantly as a beacon," the adverb is dropped. So far as we have examined, the changes are almost always for the better. Often new and interesting facts are brought out. For instance, we must say in future that the Mississippi was first seen of Europeans, not by Ferdinand de Soto, but by Cabeza de Vaca (Vol. I., page 31), who discovered one of its mouths. As an illustration of the additions which add essentially to the completeness or perspicuity of statements, we will refer to Vol. I., page 323, where the old edition (page 407) merely says that the Archbishop of Canterbury (Laud) and others were made "an arbitrary special commission for the colonies." The new edition describes the commission more particularly, and adds that "hitherto their affairs had been confided to the Privy Council." The old sub-title, "History of the Colonization of the United States," is dropped—we think unadvisedly. The ten chapters of the first volume still remain ten, and with precisely the same headings, but the subsequent chapters are recast and often subdivided, so as to give in all forty-three chapters in place of twenty-four. The chapter upon the Aborigines, for example (chap. xxii.), is now made into three. The new edition contains no portraits, and—what seems a serious mistake—no references or foot-notes of any sort. The reader can only guess, therefore, at the authorities for the extensive additions.

—We have received from James Campbell & Sons, Toronto, the 'Canadian Parliamentary Companion for 1876' (eleventh year). As we have nothing more nearly like it in this country than Lanman's 'Dictionary of Congress,' we may describe this publication as in the main a biographical register of the personnel of the Dominion Government and of the several confederated governments, to which are added Parliamentary election returns, letters of the party leaders defining their position, and a variety of other useful information. We have been struck, in looking through the Parliament list, with the significant proportion of members who were either educated or born in the United States, or whose ancestors came from here. Among the latter class the descendants of "Loyalists" (or United Empire Loyalists, as they are also designated) appear in such numbers as to prove that the hold of this "caste" is still strong in Canada. Many of them evidently refer the compiler for their pedigree to Sabine with as much complacency as another aristocracy does to Burke. In the provincial legislatures the American infusion is still more prominent—notably in New Brunswick and Nova Scotia, the paradise of the Loyalists—but also in Ontario and even in Quebec. In the House of Commons one member reports that the head of the Canadian branch of his family was kidnapped from New England, when a child, by Indians, and brought to St. François de Yamaska, where he married a young lady who had likewise been kidnapped. Side by side, too, with the "Loyalists" we meet representatives of those Essex County families which emigrated from Massachusetts in 1763–4 and settled on the St. John, where a hundred years ago they made a gallant but unsuccessful effort to cast their lot with that of the revolted colonies; and where (such was the intermarrying in consequence of their being cut off), probably, the purest Puritan stock on the continent is to be found to-day among their descendants. It may be worth remarking that the Loyalist element in politics is overwhelmingly "Liberal," and we believe the same may be said of the American stock as a whole. Members of the Canadian Upper House only are allowed the title of Honorable, and it does not accompany them into private life. The Canadian Cabinet offers a suggestive contrast to ours in its distribution of functions; thus, where we have one Secretary of the Treasury, they have the Minister of Finance, the Minister of Customs, the Minister of Inland Revenue, the Receiver-General, and the Minister of Public Works (*vice* Supervising Architect of the Treasury Department). The fisheries, too, which are under our Treasury's control, are appropriately linked in Canada with the naval interests of the country, and assigned to the Minister of Marine. The tone sought to be maintained in the civil service of our neighbor is illustrated by one of the regulations for the military college at Kingston:

"The name of any cadet expelled for misconduct will be gazetted, and recorded in the offices of the various public departments, in order to prevent his being admitted to any branch of the public service"

The Government announces that by June 1 the Intercolonial Railway, connecting Quebec and Halifax (time, twenty-four hours), will be in running order.

—A writer in the *Academy* (of March 18) advocates an international congress of librarians for a more effective comparison of notes in regard to the arrangement and management of libraries, public and private. For example, he thinks that such a conference would result in a vast economy in cataloguing new books. By a common understanding, "every English book might be catalogued at the British Museum, every French book at the Bibliothèque Nationale, every German book at the Royal Library at Berlin, every Russian book at St. Petersburg, etc. At a trifling expense these printed slips might be sent to every small or large library, and each of them might have three or four catalogues—an alphabetical catalogue of the authors, a chronological catalogue, a local catalogue, a catalogue classified according to subjects, etc. Even when a library is too poor to buy a book, the slip might be useful in its catalogue." A scheme like this, but restricted to the cataloguing of works acquired by our National Library through copyright, was broached in the *Tribune* nearly a year ago. As we pointed out at the time, the cost of printing and distributing the cards and the cost of house-room for the card-catalogue thus obtained were elements of great importance in the problem, which had not thus far been authoritatively discussed, if considered at all. The writer in the *Academy* would doubtless say that just here would be the usefulness of his international congress; and no one is likely to deny that great advantages would certainly accrue from it. Meantime, the national cataloguing which he favors could be achieved without foreign co-operation. A congress of librarians in the United States could be called at any time, and perhaps never more appropriately than during the present year.

—In June, 1868, a public reading-room was opened in connection with the French National Library, in the rue Colbert, Paris. It was especially designed, and its collections were made accordingly, to attract the working-classes, and to furnish them the elements of general self-instruction, with special facilities for acquiring practical knowledge of the various mechanic arts. The hall was opened on Sundays as well as week-days. In point of attendance the experiment has been increasingly successful. Reckoned at 29,000 in 1868, the number of readers last year was 51,000. Just how these are enumerated is not clear from the librarian's report. He gives a count, made on ten successive days, showing that 1,112 individuals visited the reading-room, of whom 857 came but once, 91 twice, and so on to 12 every day. On the average, the daily attendance for 1875 was 144. The working-classes, including under that term petty employés of every sort, have responded to the invitation, but in their choice of reading have disappointed expectation in two ways. In the first place, the majority have not called for works of popular science or technical manuals, but have shown a decided preference for belles-lettres, history, and travels. In the next place, it is observable that works of fiction, which at first seemed necessary to the collection as a bait to the public in question, pass less and less into circulation. The demand for belles-lettres constituted about 42 per cent. of the whole; history and geography, 29 per cent.; science and art, 21; jurisprudence, 7; and theology, 1. In 1875, 80,227 volumes were given out, representing 61,326 séparate works. The public have proved the utility of catalogues prepared to assist them in their reading—"catalogues méthodiques fort détaillés."

—In Petermann's *Mittheilungen* for March 1 the principal map exhibits very beautifully the sedimentary formations of the continent of Europe; among them, those vast Russian coal-fields of which we spoke the other day. The second map accompanies an account of recent missionary explorations on the Baxter River in New Guinea. Among the notices of current geographical literature Dr. E. Behm replies in a dignified and conclusive manner to Capt. R. F. Burton's flourish against him—"A nous deux, Dr. E. Behm!"—in his 'Gorilla Land and the Cataracts of the Congo.' Dr. Petermann points out how slightly, after all, the blank area of Central Africa has been reduced by Cameron's march between the two oceans; we do not know, for instance, whether the Lualaba is the main stream or only a tributary. In short, we still have a Congo problem to replace that of the Nile. Perhaps it is reserved for Mr. Stanley to solve it for us.

—Mr. Darwin's depreciatory remarks forty years ago about Australia are being curiously avenged upon him. Port Darwin, on the northern coast, struggles in vain to grow into a city worth naming after anybody; while the Government of South Australia, of which it is a dependency, despairing of its coming to anything by "natural selection," are making frantic efforts to force it into significance. Our Melbourne correspondent has once or twice expressed his fear that slavery will be introduced into North Australia. We find in the last number of the Berlin Geographical Society's *Zeitschrift* (No. 60) a well-written paper which throws a good deal of light on the inducements to such a retrograde policy. Colonization on

the north coast has proved a decided failure; up to the middle of last year Port Darwin had cost South Australia $1,150,000 above its revenues. The white population of the coast at that date numbered only 470 souls (inclusive of 62 officials)—viz., 330 men, 60 women, and 80 children. Even this was a decline from the first of the year, when there were 700 inhabitants. The shrinkage went on still further, and was overcome only by the Government importing 170 coolies from Singapore; the whites having discovered that Europeans could not endure the tropical climate except as masters and overseers. The coolies, however, proved not hardy enough for the work expected of them at the Yam-Creek gold mines and elsewhere. Chinese were next thought of, but their independent habits, their acquisitiveness, their hope of an early return to China, and the dearth of women among them, made them too objectionable. Meantime, liberal land-laws and glowing official expositions of the agricultural resources of the northern territory met with no response whatsoever. Neither capital nor labor flocked to the scene. "Die Klugen wollten nicht und die Dummen kamen nicht," says our writer. Premiums were then offered for sugar-raising, but nobody appeared to claim them. Now the Government means to follow the successful example of Queensland in settling her northern parts, and to make plantations to demonstrate the capacity of the soil. Last July it proposed also to make Port Darwin, like Singapore, a free city, and seemed to expect that the mere freedom of the port would secure it an importance equal to that which Singapore has won by its exceptional position in the current of trade. The revenue which would thus be lost to the Government does not exceed $30,000. The Port Darwinists have still another trump in reserve: they count the days when the Government will accede to their desire to have a transcontinental railway built beside the present transcontinental telegraph.

—The *China Review* for November and December, 1875 (Vol. IV., No. 3), does not lack for interesting articles, but we have space to mention only the first two. "The Folk-lore of China," which has been running through several numbers, treats here of superstitions as to various subjects, and of ghosts and apparitions, which abound exceedingly in the Middle Kingdom, and the belief in which is not confined to those of human beings. One very amusing story is of Chang and Li, who were partners. Chang pushed Li into the canal, with the view of getting the whole of some collections they had just been making on joint account. On the first anniversary of this little affair Chang fell very ill, and Li's ghost promptly appeared, threatening the "wicked partner" if he should not restore his money to his (Li's) family. Chang promised, but got well and snapped his fingers at the absent ghost, who punctually turned up, however, on the next anniversary, and frightened Chang into actually keeping his promise. But as things all went wrong with him he removed to another place, where, to his amazement, he met Li in the middle of the street, and by daylight. Asking why he is still tormented, Li answers him: "I am no ghost; what do you mean?" Chang explains. "So," cries Li, "it was not an accident my falling into the river? I had neglected to pay due respect to the spirit of my father, and when I tumbled in the river and was nearly drowned, I thought it a punishment for my impiety." The article on the "Chinese Vernaculars," or, as it styles itself, a plea for the cultivation and use of the vulgar tongues in China, seems at first to impose a great task on the missionaries. Take the unwritten speech of Peking, Hankow, Shanghai, Ningpo, Foochow, Amoy, Swatow, and Canton, etc., says the writer, and "it may be contended that there is almost, if not fully, as great a difference between at least some of them as there is between the language of Spain, Portugal, France, and Italy, or say the German, Dutch, and Danish languages, as spoken to-day in Europe." And again, of pronunciation: "At Canton the natives say, and a foreigner if observing can perceive, that there is a difference between the mode of speech in the western and in the eastern suburbs." Nevertheless, the dialectic differences within a large radius of the provincial city are not so great as those which distinguish the Yorkshire peasantry from their fellows in the South of England; and the *languages*—or such differences of idiom as prevent mutual understanding—are not many, so that only a few versions of the Scriptures would be needed for the whole eighteen provinces, "and the readers of each may be counted by millions." "All Northern and much of Central China will doubtless use the Mandarin colloquial," which has already been reduced to writing and has its version of the Bible. Apropos of Mr. Leland's *Fusang*, a correspondent identifies the country with Japan, on the strength of a traditional colossal tree, *Fusao Boku*, which once flourished on the site of the present Fusiyama. "The Chinese characters which in Japan represent the name *Fusao* are pronounced in Chir a *Fusang*." The editor and founder of the *Review*, Mr. N. B. Dennys, we regret to observe, takes his leave of it with this number.

FORSTER'S LIFE OF SWIFT.*

II.

WE cannot properly understand Swift's cynicism and bring it into any relation of consistency with our belief in his natural amiability without taking his whole life into account. Few give themselves the trouble to study his beginnings, and few, therefore, give weight enough to the fact that he made a false start. He, the ground of whose nature was an acrid common-sense, whose eye magnified the canker till it effaced the rose, began as what would now be called a romantic poet. With no mastery of verse, for even the English heroic (a balancing-pole which has enabled so many feebler men to walk the ticklish rope of momentary success) was uneasy to him, he essayed the Cowleian Pindarique, as the adjective was then rightly spelled with a hint of Parisian rather than Theban origin. If the master was but a fresh example of the disasters that wait upon every new trial of the flying-machine, what could be expected of the disciple who had not even the secret of the mechanic wings, and who stuck solidly to the earth while with perfect good faith he went through all the motions of soaring? Swift was soon aware of the ludicrousness of his experiment, though he never forgave Cousin Dryden for being aware of it also, and the recoil in a nature so intense as his was sudden and violent. He who could not be a poet if he would, angrily resolved that he would not if he could. Full-sail verse was beyond his skill, but he could manage the simpler fore-and-aft rig of Butler's octosyllabics. As Cowleyism was a trick of seeing everything as it was not, and calling everything something else than it was, he would see things as they were—or as, in his sullen disgust, they seemed to be—and call them all by their right names with a resentful emphasis. He achieved the naked sincerity of a Hottentot—nay, he even went beyond it in rejecting the feeble compromise of the breech-clout. Not only would he be naked and not ashamed, but everybody else should be so with a blush of conscious exposure, and human nature should be stripped of the hypocritical fig-leaves that betrayed by attempting to hide its identity with the brutes that perish. His sincerity was not unconscious, but self-willed and aggressive. But it would be unjust to overlook that he began with himself. He despised mankind because he found something despicable in Jonathan Swift, as he makes Gulliver hate the Yahoos in proportion to their likeness with himself. He had more or less consciously sacrificed self-respect for that false consideration which is paid to a man's accidents; he had preferred the vain pomp of being served on plate, as no other "man of his level" in Ireland was, to being happy with the woman who had sacrificed herself to his selfishness, and the independence he had won turned out to be only a morose solitude after all. "Money," he was fond of saying, "is freedom," but he never learned that self-denial is freedom with the addition of self-respect. With a hearty contempt for the ordinary objects of human ambition, he could yet bring himself for the sake of them to be the obsequious courtier of three royal strumpets. How should he be happy who had defined happiness to be "the perpetual possession of being well deceived," and who could never be deceived himself? It may well be doubted whether what he himself calls "that pretended philosophy which enters into the depth of things and then comes gravely back with informations and discoveries that in the inside they are good for nothing," be of so penetrative an insight as it is apt to suppose, and whether the truth be not rather that to the empty all things are empty. Swift's diseased eye had the microscopic quality of Gulliver's in Brobdignag, and it was the loathsome obscenity which this revealed in the skin of things that tainted his imagination when it ventured on what was beneath. But with all Swift's scornful humor, he never made the pitiful mistake of his shallow friend Gay that life was a jest. To his nobler temper it was always profoundly tragic, and the salt of his sarcasm was more often, we suspect, than with most humorists distilled out of tears. The lesson is worth remembering that *his* apples of Sodom, like those of lesser men, were plucked from boughs of his own grafting.

But there are palliations for him, even if the world were not too ready to forgive a man everything if he will only be a genius. Sir Robert Walpole used to say "that it was fortunate so few men could be prime-ministers, as it was best that few should thoroughly know the shocking wickedness of mankind." Swift, from his peculiar relation to two successive ministries, was in a position to know all that they knew, and perhaps, as a recognized place-broker, even more than they knew, of the selfish servility of men. He had seen the men who figure so imposingly in the stage-processions of history too nearly. He knew the real Jacks and Toms as they were over a pot of ale after the scenic illusion was done with. He saw the destinies of a kingdom controlled by men far less able than himself;

* 'The Life of Jonathan Swift. By John Forster.' Vol. I. London: Murray; New York: Harper & Bros.

the highest of arts, that of politics, degraded to a trade in places, and the noblest opportunity, that of office, abused for purposes of private gain. His disenchantment began early, probably in his intimacy with Sir William Temple, in whom (though he says that all that was good and great died with him) he must have seen the weak side of solemn priggery and the pretension that made a mystery of statecraft. In his twenty-second year he writes:

> "Off fly the vizards and discover all:
> How plain I see through the deceit!
> How shallow and how gross the cheat!
> . . . . . .
> On what poor engines move
> The thoughts of monarchs and designs of states!
> What petty motives rule their fates!"
>
> "I to such blockheads set my wit!
> I damn such fools! go, go, you're bit!"

Mr. Forster's own style (simpler now than when he was under the immediate influence of Dickens, if more slipshod than when repressed by Landor) is not in essentials better or worse than usual. It is not always clear nor always idiomatic. On page 120 he tells us that "Scott did not care to enquire if it was likely that stories of the kind referred to should have contributed to form a character, or if it were not likelier still that they had grown and settled round a character already famous as well as formed." Not to speak of the confusion of moods and tenses, the phrase "to form a character" has been so long appropriated to another meaning than that which it has here, that the sense of the passage vacillates unpleasantly. He tells us that Swift was "under engagement to Will Frankland to christen *the baby his wife is near bringing to bed*." Parthenogenesis is a simple matter to this. And why *Will* Frankland, *Joe* Beaumont, and the like? We cannot claim so much intimacy with them as Swift, and the eighteenth century might be allowed to stand a little on its dignity. If Mr. Forster had been quoting the journal to Stella, there would be nothing to say except that Swift took liberties with his friends in writing to her which he would not have ventured on before strangers. In the same odd jargon, which the English journals are fond of calling American, Mr. Forster says that "Tom [Leigh] was not *popular* with Swift." Mr. Forster is not only no model for contemporary English, but (what is more serious) sometimes mistakes the meaning of words in Swift's day, as when he explains that "strongly engaged" meant "interceded with or pressed." It meant much more than that, as could easily be shown from the writings of Swift himself.

All the earlier biographers of Swift Mr. Forster brushes contemptuously aside, though we do not find much that is important in his own biography which industry may not hit upon somewhere or other in the confused narrative of Sheridan, for whom and for his sources of information he shows a somewhat unjust contempt. He goes so far as sometimes to discredit anecdotes so thoroughly characteristic of Swift that he cannot resist copying them himself. He labors at needless length the question of Swift's standing in college, and seems to prove that it was not contemptible, though there can be no doubt that the contrary opinion was founded on Swift's own assertion, often repeated. We say he seems to prove it, for we are by no means satisfied which of the two Swifts on the college list, of which a facsimile is given, is the future Dean. Mr. Forster assumes that the names are ranked in the order of seniority, but they are more likely to have been arranged alphabetically, in which case Jonathan would have preceded Thomas, and at best there is little to choose between three *mediocriters* and one *male*, one *bene*, and one *negligenter*. The document, whatever we may think of its importance, has been brought to light by Mr. Forster. Of his other materials hitherto unpublished, the most important is a letter proving that Swift's Whig friends did their best to make him a bishop in 1707. This shows that his own later account of the reasons of his change from Whig to Tory, if not absolutely untrue, is at least unjust to his former associates, and had been shaped to meet the charge of inconsistency if not of desertion to the enemy. Whatever the motives of his change, it would have been impossible to convince a sincere Whig of their honesty, and in spite of Mr. Forster's assertion that Addison continued to love and trust him to the last, we do not believe that there was any cordiality in their intercourse after 1710. No one familiar with Swift's manner of thinking will deem his political course of much import in judging of his moral character. At the bottom of his heart he had an impartial contempt for both parties, and a firm persuasion that the aims of both were more or less consciously selfish. Even if sincere, the matters at issue between them were as despicable to a sound judgment as that which divided the Big and Little-endians in Lilliput. With him the question was simply one between men who galled his pride and men who flattered it. Sunderland and Somers treated him as a serviceable inferior; Harley and Bolingbroke had the wit to receive him on a footing of friendship. To him they were all, more or less indifferently, rounds in the ladder by which he hoped to climb. He always claimed to have been a consistent Old Whig—that is, as he understood it, a High-churchman who accepted the Revolution of 1688. This, to be sure, was not quite true, but it could not have been hard for a man who prided himself on a Cavalier grandfather, and whose first known verses were addressed to the nonjuring primate Sancroft after his deprivation, to become first a Tory and then a conniver at the restoration of the Stuarts as the best device for preventing a foreign succession and an endless chance of civil war. A man of Swift's way of thinking would hardly have baulked at the scruple of creed, for he would not have deemed it possible that the Pretender should have valued a kingdom at any lower rate than his great-grandfather had done before him.

The more important part of Mr. Forster's fresh material is to come in future volumes, if now, alas! we are ever to have them. For some of what he gives us in this we can hardly thank him. One of the manuscripts he has unearthed is the original version of 'Baucis and Philemon' as it was before it had passed under the criticism of Addison. He seems to think it in some respects better than the revised copy, though in our judgment it entirely justifies the wisdom of the critic who counselled its curtailment and correction. The piece as we have hitherto had it comes as near poetry as anything Swift ever wrote except 'Cadenus and Vanessa,' though neither of them aspires above the region of cleverness and fancy. Indeed, it is misleading to talk of the poetry of one whose fatal gift was an eye that disidealized. But we are not concerned here with the discussion of Swift's claim to the title of poet. What we are concerned about is to protest in the interests of good literature against the practice, now too common, of hunting out and printing what the author would doubtless have burned. It is unfair to the dead writer and the living reader by disturbing that unitary impression which every good piece of work aims at making, and is sure to make, only in proportion to the author's self-denial and his skill in

> "The last and greatest art, the art to blot."

We do not wish, nor have we any right to know, those passages through which the castigating pen has been drawn.

Mr. Forster may almost claim to have rediscovered Swift's journals to Esther Johnson, to such good purpose has he used them in giving life and light to his narrative. He is certainly wrong, however, in saying to the disparagement of former editors that the name Stella was not invented "till long after all the letters were written." This statement, improbable in itself as respects a man who forthwith refined Betty, Waring, and Vanhomrigh into Eliza, Varina, and Vanessa, is refuted by a passage in the journal of 14th October, 1710, printed by Mr. Forster himself. At least, we know not what "Stellakins" means unless it be "little Stella." The value of these journals for their elucidation of Swift's character cannot be overestimated, and Mr. Forster is quite right in insisting upon the importance of the "little language," though we are by no means sure that he is always so in his interpretation of the cipher. It is quite impossible, for instance, that ME can stand for Madam Elderly, and so for Dingley. It is certainly addressed, like the other endearing epithets, to Esther Johnson, and may mean My Esther or even Marry Esther, for anything we know to the contrary.

Mr. Forster brings down his biography no farther than the early part of 1710, so that we have no means of judging what his opinion would be of the conduct of Swift during the three years that preceded the death of Queen Anne. But he has told us what he thinks of his relations with Esther Johnson; and it is in them, as it seems to us, that we are to seek the key to the greater part of what looks most enigmatical in his conduct. At first sight, it seems altogether unworthy of a man of Swift's genius to waste so much of it and so many of the best years of his life in a sordid struggle after preferment in the church—a career in which such selfish ambitions look most out of place. How much better to have stayed quietly at Laracor and written immortal works! Very good: only that was not Swift's way of looking at the matter, who had little appetite for literary fame, and all of whose immortal progeny were begotten of the moment's overmastering impulse, were thrown nameless upon the world by their father, and survived only in virtue of the vigor they had drawn from his stalwart loins. But how if Swift's worldly aspirations, and the intrigues they involved him in, were not altogether selfish? How if he was seeking advancement, in part at least, for another, and that other a woman who had sacrificed for him not only her chances of domestic happiness, but her good name? to whom he was bound by gratitude? and the hope of repairing whose good fame by making her his own was so passionate in that intense nature as to justify any and every expedient, and make the patronage of those whom he felt to be his inferiors endurable by

the proudest of men? We believe that this was the truth, and that the woman was Stella. No doubt there were other motives. Coming to manhood with a haughtiness of temper that was almost savage, he had forced himself to endure the hourly humiliation of what could not have been, however Mr. Forster may argue to the contrary, much above domestic servitude. This experience deepened in him the prevailing passions of his life, first for independence and next for consideration, the only ones which could, and in the end perhaps did, obscure the memory and hope of Stella. That he should have longed for London with a persistency that submitted to many a rebuff and overlived continual disappointment will seem childish only to those who do not consider that it was a longing for life. It was there only that his mind could be quickened by the society and spur of equals. In Dublin he felt it dying daily of the inanition of inferior company. His was not a nature, if there be any such, that could endure the solitude of supremacy without impair, and he foreboded with reason a Tiberian old age.

This certainly is not the ordinary temper of a youth on whom the world is just opening: In a letter to Pope, written in 1725, he says, "I desire that you and all my friends will take a special care that my disaffection to the world may not be imputed to my age; for I have credible witnesses ready to depose that it hath never varied from the twenty-first to the fifty-eighth year of my age." His contempt for mankind would not be lessened by his knowledge of the lying subterfuges by which the greatest poet of his age sought at once to gratify and conceal his own vanity, nor by listening to the professions of its cleverest statesman that he liked planting cabbages better than being prime minister. How he must have laughed at the unconscious parody when his old printer Barber wrote to him in the same strain of philosophic relief from the burthensome glories of lord-mayoralty!

Nay, he made another false start, and an irreparable one, in prose also with the 'Tale of a Tub.' Its levity, if it was not something worse, twice baulked him of the mitre when it seemed just within his reach. Justly or not, he had the reputation of scepticism. Mr. Forster would have us believe him devout, but the evidence goes no further than to prove him ceremonially decorous. Certain it is that his most intimate friends, except Arbuthnot, were free-thinkers, and wrote to him sometimes in a tone that was at least odd in addressing a clergyman. Probably the feeling that he had made a mistake in choosing a profession which was incompatible with success in politics, and with perfect independence of mind, soured him even more than his disappointed hopes. He saw Addison a secretary of state and Prior an ambassador, while he was bubbled (as he would have put it) with a shabby deanery among savages. Perhaps it was not altogether his clerical character that stood in his way. A man's little faults are more often the cause of his greatest miscarriages than he is able to conceive, and in whatever respects his two friends might have been his inferiors, they certainly had the advantage of him in that *savoir vivre* which makes so large an element of worldly success. In judging him, however, we must take into account that his first literary hit was made when he was already thirty-seven, with a confirmed bias towards moody suspicion of others and distrust of himself.

The reaction in Swift's temper and ambition told with the happiest effect on his prose. For its own purposes, as good working English, his style (if that may be called so whose chief success was that it had no style at all), has never been matched. It has been more praised than studied, or its manifest shortcomings, its occasional clumsiness, its want of harmony and of feeling for the finer genialities of language, would be more often present in the consciousness of those who discourse about it from a superficial acquaintance. With him language was a means and not an end. If he was plain and even coarse, it was from choice rather than because he lacked delicacy of perception; for in badinage, the most ticklish use to which words can be put, he was a master.

The Orphan of Pimlico, and other Sketches, Fragments, and Drawings. By William Makepeace Thackeray. With some Notes by Anne Isabella Thackeray. (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1876.)—Those who have read Thackeray with pleasure have always enjoyed his sketches and drawings, though possibly those who have put the highest value upon his literary qualities have not been quite ready to admit that he made a mistake in abandoning the pencil for the pen. We confess for our part that the broad caricatures with which the pages of 'Vanity Fair' are illustrated have always seemed to us to blunt rather than sharpen the point of the author's delicate satire, and we have almost felt a pang of regret that he had not been willing to allow us to form an idea, for instance, of the good Dobbin less hopelessly loutish and commonplace than the illustrations represented him. At the same time, how much we should have lost! In the 'Orphan of Pimlico' (a slight sketch of a story, with drawings, which serves the purpose of christening the volume before us), we have a considerable collection of Thackerayan odds and ends that no lover of his can fail to enjoy, collected by his daughter, and published in a luxurious edition. In looking them over, we have found most entertainment in the playing-cards, a complete pack of which, it appears, Thackeray originally intended to turn out. Only a few were done, and of these the one with which the caricaturist himself was, as his daughter says, best pleased is a three of spades made up with very slight changes, except the mutation of the handles of the spades to human noses, and the addition of wigs and clothes, into "Mr. Gibbon, Mr. Boswell, Mr. Johnson." The likenesses are very good. In the same way the ten of clubs becomes an Assyrian battle-scene; the eight of the same suit is used to illustrate a quotation from the second part of Henry IV., and so on. The volume also contains some amusing negro and negro-minstrel sketches (Thackeray was in this country in the heyday of negro-minstrelsy, when "Lucy Neal" and "Dandy Jim" were the accepted African types), and a letter from New York, containing the following lively description of the city: "The entrance to the bay is beautiful; the magnificent woods of the Susquehannah stretch down to the shore, and from Hoboken Lighthouse to Vancouver's Island the bay presents one brilliant blaze of natural and commercial loveliness. Hearing that Titmarsh was on board the steamer, the Lord Mayor and Aldermen of New York came down to receive us, and the batteries on Long Island fired a salute. General Jackson called at my hotel. I found him a kind old man, though he has a wooden leg and takes a great deal of snuff. Broadway has certainly disappointed me; it is nothing to be compared to our own dear Holborn Hill. But the beautiful range of the Alleyghanny Mountains, which I see from my windows, and the roar of the Niagara Cataract, which empties itself out of the Mississippi into the Oregon Territory, have an effect which your fine eye for the picturesque and keen sense of the beautiful and the natural would, I am sure, lead you to appreciate. . . . The house where Washington was born is still shown, but the General, I am informed, is dead and much regretted." Miss Thackeray's share in the work is chiefly noticeable for the thoroughness with which she has collected her material, and the earnestness with which she has done her best to throw any light that could be thrown upon the meaning of some of the more enigmatical sketches. She might, it seems to us, have done less of this with profit, or rather might have done it with profit in a less formal manner.

Cyclopædia of the Practice of Medicine. Edited by Dr. Hugo von Ziemssen, Professor of Clinical Medicine in Munich, Bavaria. Albert H. Buck, M.D., New York, editor of American Edition. Volumes I., II., III., V., X., 1874–5. (New York: William Wood & Co.)—The difficulties in the way of those who wish to know the whole of medicine are really insuperable; yet, without wishing to be an encyclopedist, one may properly desire to read and digest a good part of such a work as the present, with its distinctness, its businesslike style, and its avoidance of the unknown. The work we here notice is one of the most important of those now before the medical public. It is composed of a series of monographs, by a large number of German authors, upon the various classes of disease. The American edition or translation is to be complete in sixteen volumes; and while nothing in the execution of the work shows haste, yet there is every likelihood that the work will be completed punctually, as promised, in quarterly instalments. In this respect it contrasts pleasantly with the 'Nouveau Dictionnaire de Médicine et de Chirurgie Pratiques' and with Reynolds's 'System of Medicine,' which are its rivals in England and France. The very best talent is at work upon it in Germany; as for the translation, it is mainly by American hands, a few Englishmen and Irishmen being engaged upon it, and is very satisfactory upon the whole. The contents of the present five volumes are as follows: I. and II. Acute Infectious Diseases (typhoid, cholera, dysentery, diphtheria, malarial fevers, influenza, erysipelas, variola, etc.), by Liebermeister of Tübingen, Lebert of Breslau, Hänisch of Greifswald, Heubner of Leipzig, Oertel of Munich, Thomas of Leipzig, Curschmann of Berlin, Zülzer of Berlin, Hertz of Amsterdam, Ziemssen of Munich. III. Chronic Infectious Diseases (syphilis, glanders, anthrax, hydrophobia, cysticercus, etc.), by Bäumler of Erlangen, Bollinger of Munich, Heller of Kiel. V. Diseases of the Respiratory Organs, by Jürgensen of Tübingen, Hertz of Amsterdam, Rühle of Bonn, Rindfleisch of Würzburg. X. Diseases of the Female Sexual Organs, by Schröder of Erlangen.

The mechanical execution of the work is extremely good. It may be an objection that the volumes are too large and heavy to be easily held.

Fine Arts.

THE NATIONAL ACADEMY EXHIBITION.

II.

MR. JARVIS McENTEE sends in a cluster of landscapes. The languor which winter possesses, in distinction from its sharp blue moods—a languor which commands and deadens the nerves as completely as the most enervating languor of spring—is what this painter represents with the utmost closeness and subtlety of interpretation. His pictures this year, hung in juxtaposition, seem like so many panes in a casement, opening on the same horizon, the same day, in the same sad land. He is singularly successful in giving the dull vibration of skies muffled with cloud, through which the light struggles here and there, while the greater part of the view is soft with vapory gray in which the bare trees branch like sea-weeds under water. His dramas are perilously simple, depending altogether upon quality, and quality he seldom misses. One of his scenes this year is autumnal rather than wintry, though it is not the fruitful and vintage-yielding idea of autumn, but the bereavement and reverie. The leaves are hurrying down in eddies from a tall grove, and a woman in mourning dress stands fixed in the thickest part of their fall. The tree which especially confers the shower is perhaps a little too fountain-shaped, a little too conscious and voluntary in helping out the idea of leaf-shedding, resembling some of Blake's marginal tree-growths which likewise bend and bestow; our landscapists must remember that scenery is not allegory. The foreground in this picture (202) is a thick strewing of leaves upon water—the majority turning up their ribbed, nether sides, as they mostly do in nature—their abject flatness on the plane of the black wintry pond indicated with almost architectural precision. No. 206, "The Closing Year," has the same foreground of leaves upon water, admirably rendered and easily seized upon for approval; but it is the tone of these pictures, not so easy to indicate, but subtly expressing the tenderness of the frost, which makes them good. This group of pictures is, perhaps, the most fatally bad instance of the pernicious hanging of each painter's contribution together, as practised the present season. It is most unjust to the artist; for if his thoughts for the year have happened to run in the same vein, the similarity of his works is most strongly and unjustly emphasized by putting them side by side; if his pictures are in strong contrast, as, for example, Mr. Moran's, the very difference of effect, fitted and shaped as must needs be upon the unmistakable personality and individuality of the painter, confers a harlequin air most ruinous to sentiment and dignity; while if the exhibitor has innocently ordered a few canvases of the same size, their propinquity reacts on the exhibition, giving it a low, shoppy look than which nothing can well be worse.

Mr. Homer is marked for suffering, in the unkind style of hanging practised at the exhibition. His style, which never sins in the way of excessive modulation, looks bald as patchwork. The committee work their will, and four of his large flats come sliding over the stage to meet each other. Yet Mr. Homer gives us this spring the most admirable sketch he has made since the period of his war-pictures. The exulting freedom with which his brush ripples over the canvas, No. 194, in which a fresh sea is cloven by the fisherman's boat, while his little boys drink in the health and breeze of the young day, is for Mr. Homer a revelation. He has never told a story so well, nor has his pithy economy of expression in telling a story ever become him more. The boatman's bare-foot boy who sits upon the thwart, and whose bright eye evidently sees such enormous horizons as he looks through the curl of spray shaved up by the keel, is as clean-cut a piece of work as the best figure ever blocked out for a shipbuilder by the marine sculptor. The sense of motion, as the vessel leans on the wave, and the inlay of bluish shadow and warm golden white upon the sail, where the shade of the mast falls into its broad lap, are both expressive of the open air, as though quite out from shore. The picture is a thorough-built marine, conveying the illusion that no dust could ever possibly settle upon it. Another painting (193) of Mr. Homer's is almost the equal of this in sincerity and uncontaminated cleanliness of idea. Two girls, with that peculiar moral freshness which characterizes Mr. Homer's girls, and which in some of them becomes a kind of handsome hardness, are walking among the hills, knee-deep in clover; the four-leaved shamrock which one sister has found is balanced by the bouquet of red maple-leaves in the hand of the other. The sense of dustless air, of pastured hillsides, and wholesome maidenhood is perfect enough, but it must be confessed the painter has gone to a considerable expense to get it. His breadth of view becomes breadth of flatness; and the present picture, highly characteristic of a large class of Mr. Homer's work, suggests that if he could represent his hill on a Japanese box in two lacquers, upon which the women should be inlaid, their dresses corresponding in value with one of the colors, and their heads just cutting across the hypothenuse, his secret ideal would be satisfied. It is impossible to treat ungratefully the artist who has given us No 194, but we cannot but think it extraordinary that a person to whom ideas come so abundantly and graciously should frequently throw up the image of some slight sketch-book page upon a screen large enough to furnish a lecture-room.

Mr. La Farge, in his sole contribution (188), has another picture with a very high horizon, but it is not in the least like lacquer, and not in the least Japanese. It is a view, from some upper window, of an adjacent line of shore, the point of sight being unusually high, so that nearly all the scene is filled by the broad green lake of summer grass. A thread of blue ocean stretches across the distance, up to which the verdant pasture reaches all the way, as it does at Paradise, near Newport—intersected in the present view by idle-looking lines of stone fence. A lamb, in the perfect sense of security inspired by the scene, has strayed away from the flock without fear, and lies down in the foreground, all alone with the spectator. This lamb is very well drawn, and is the only piece of drawing in the whole large picture, all the rest of which is pure *qualité*. The "quality" of green in the far-stretching field, the "quality" in the gulf of air which is felt to sink upon it, and the "quality" in the faint bands of heated sea and sky, are what compose the effect. The view is an unusual one to choose, of course, and in its bald features, or approaches to feature, may be called American. In treatment, however, this painting, which owes everything to treatment, is distinctly of the *outre-mer*. No American master—from Cole and Doughty to Cropsey, Kensett, and Church—ever laid paint on so, or made it express this faint haze and respirable warmth. Few European painters would have chosen just such a view, perhaps, and it does not seem to us that empty fantasies of such a kind, demanding an enormous *tour de force* from the painter, and much willingness and a grand effort of sympathy from the spectator, ought to be very often painted, whether in Europe or America; but the merit and influence which make it worth looking at as it hangs, are the gift of other shores and traditions.

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MARTINEAU ON 'MATERIALISM: Its Relation to Theology,' A REJOINDER to PROFESSOR TYNDALL,

In *ECLECTIC MAGAZINE* for April.

Sent, postage prepaid, on receipt of 45 cents.

E. R. PELTON, Publisher, 25 Bond Street, N. Y.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 27, 1876.

The Week.

THE only thing that can be said with any approach to confidence about the Presidential canvass is that Bristow's chances, if one may judge by the press, seem to improve. Fresh declarations for him appear every day, and the charges made have thus far only benefited him, as they have all been completely disposed of. As regards Mr. Blaine, who may be said to be his only formidable competitor, the tide happens to be running strongly against politicians and persons skilled in the political art, and Mr. Blaine has been imprudently displaying more of this kind of skill than people like. His recent performances in Congress have shown want of an accurate knowledge of the popular temper, and a disposition to rely on expedients which, however useful they may have been at one time, have now little force, and in fact excite suspicion, for the public is very indifferent about questions, and has its attention almost wholly fixed on character. Mr. Blaine's enemies, too, show a disposition not to be satisfied with his late explanation of the Little Rock and Fort Smith matter, and pretend to find a justification for doubt in the sudden departure of one of the witnesses, Hayes, for Europe. Morton's arrangements at the South for bringing in pledged delegations to aid him in the defence of "human rights" seem to have broken down, and he is now so well known as an unprincipled and brassy schemer that he will probably be no more thought of outside of his own State. Among the Democrats, the only man who seems to be making any headway is Mr. Tilden, and, judging in the same way, he is "developing strength" very remarkably, has apparently crushed the opposition in this State, and grows in the Democratic imagination—at the South certainly, and probably in the West—as the time draws near. Mr. Boutwell is said to have been fondly spoken of by Mr. Dawes as his "first choice," and we should not be surprised if Mr. Boutwell returned the compliment; but the matter is hardly likely to go further. It is in the meantime amusing to notice the spread of hostility to "Favorite Sons." These eminent men are now never spoken of in the papers or on the platform but with sneering opprobrium.

Mr. Blaine has made a formal reply in the House to the charge against him which has been for some time afloat, that (in substance) he had made a bad investment in bonds of the Little Rock and Fort Smith Railroad in Arkansas, and that the Union Pacific Railroad Co., which had favors to expect of Congress, had lent him $64,000 on the bonds, or had taken up a loan of that amount made him by others on the bonds as collateral, after the bonds had become worthless. He denies flatly ever having received money by loan or otherwise, directly or indirectly, from the Company in question, and fortifies it by denials equally explicit from the officers of the Company, and from the bankers (Morton, Bliss & Co.) through whom the transaction was said to have been carried out. He explains that he did invest in the bonds above-mentioned, and lost heavily by it, and holds the bonds still; acknowledges that the Little Rock and Fort Smith road was indirectly indebted to the Government for a land-grant, but this was made before the war, and only reached the road through the State of Arkansas, which was really the donor; that the Atlantic and Pacific and Missouri, Kansas and Texas roads did take about $100,000 of the stock of the Little Rock and Fort Smith to help it to complete its connection with them, but that Mr. Blaine only benefited by this, if at all, as a person interested, like the other stock and bond holders, in the success of the road; and that in any event this transaction was a common and legitimate one. In fact, as far as allegation can go, Mr. Blaine has vindicated himself. The only thing further he could do would be to submit his proofs to an investigating committee; but this does not seem necessary, because there is nothing cloudy in the statement. So far, however, from regarding the accusation and defence as things to be deplored, we think they form part of a very healthy process, which is gradually bringing public men to a sharper perception of the proprieties of political life, with regard to gifts, favors, and pecuniary interest in enterprises directly affected, or likely to be directly affected, by legislation.

The Big Bonanza managers have at length shown their hand. Their game was for higher stakes than a market for $50,000,000 of silver change; this having been secured, they propose that the double standard shall be restored. Perhaps Mr. Sherman hesitated at covering so much ground at one stride; in the bill which he reported from the Finance Committee, it is proposed that a silver dollar shall be authorized to contain 412.8 grains, and that it shall be a legal tender for sums not exceeding $20, except for customs and interest on the public debt; and that it shall be exchangeable for United States legal-tender notes, the latter to be cancelled and credited to the Sinking Fund. This bill advances one step beyond the subsidiary coin bill. Mr. Bogy of Missouri moved an amendment, which makes the proposed silver dollar a full legal tender; this he supported in a "powerful" speech. The Senate has passed the Deficiency Appropriations Bill, and the House has, by a vote of 139 to 94, passed the bill for the transfer of the Indian Bureau to the War Department. The bill goes into effect after July 1. Officers will be detailed from the army to take charge of Indian affairs, and the commanding officers of departments will be *ex-officio* at the head of Indian administration within their departments. All contracts are to be made in the same way as those for the army. All religious sects are to have equal rights in the Indian Reservations.

When Mr. Jones of Nevada first made his appearance in the Senate, it never entered into any one's mind that his owning a rich silver mine made him an authority on currency or any cognate question. He brought himself into notice, however, by a sharp, pointed, and, in many respects, able reply to the inflationist absurdities which Morton, Cameron, Logan, and the like were then producing, and which were then justly alarming and amazing the commercial community. But Mr. Jones owed most of the fame of his effort to the surprise it created, and the relief it caused as coming from a Western Senator. It did not raise him in any way to the rank of a financial authority. He has apparently been deceived by it himself, however, into making a long speech this week advocating a double standard, and abounding in the follies and fallacies which Morton used to pour forth about paper-money. In fact, his plea for silver is substantially the same as Morton's for the "battle-born greenback," and the disuse of it as a legal-tender in England and Germany he ascribes to the same cause to which Morton and Logan ascribed their hostility to paper-money, namely, the dislike of the "money-kings" to the poor man's money. The English "plutocrats" like gold because it is a British product, he says, and is scarce and dear, and their imitators on the Continent follow their example. Silver, on the other hand, like paper, is an American product, and is cheap and plenty, and therefore fine money for the poor man. True, it fluctuates greatly in value, and is now falling rapidly—a circumstance which, to the selfish aristocratic financier, seems to unfit it to be a standard of value; to Mr. Jones, however, this is a strong recommendation, because the more it falls the better for "the debtor class." When it rose, the "creditor class" benefited by it; it is now only fair that the debtor should have a chance—with ever so much more of the

same familiar nonsense, and all in the Centennial year. The fact is that Mr. Jones has silver to sell, and his speech ranks with the ordinary "patter" of the razor-and-knife man in Wall Street.

General Belknap, who has the assistance of some shrewd lawyers, is engaged in making rejoinders to the pleadings of the Impeachment managers. He now declares that Marsh's story to Mr. Clymer's committee would not have supported articles of impeachment, but so affected persons nearly "connected with him by domestic ties" as to "greatly afflict him, and make him desire to secure the suppression of that part of the evidence at any cost"; that, therefore, he proposed to the committee that this evidence should be suppressed, while he should admit the receipt of the post-tradership money, "contrary to truth"; that the committee declined this proposition, but that Mr. Clymer declared to him (Belknap) that he should move for impeachment unless Belknap resigned on the next day, March 2, and that, believing Clymer to mean this as a hint that the scrape might so be avoided and reputation saved, he did resign; and that therefore (as we understand the argument) the House is estopped to deny the arrangement made by its agent, Clymer, by which the resignation was procured, or to take any advantage of it now. We would suggest to General Belknap's lawyers that they should not confine themselves to the law of agency, replete as that is with learning on the subject of impeachment. The law of landlord and tenant would furnish them several valuable defences, as, for instance, that in politics a notice of a Congressional investigation is equivalent to a "notice to quit," and *ipso facto* terminates the tenancy, making the tenant or office-holder a mere tenant at sufferance, and not possessed of any real term or office.

The Committee examining into the expenditures of the Department of Justice have discovered that Davenport, the United States Commissioner, received by the express direction of the President large sums of money ($35,000 is the amount given by Davenport, but this seems to be within the mark) for "preventing frauds" in the elections in this city between 1870 and 1875. The story told by Davenport, who is one of the tribe of "detectives" produced by the war, and was, he says, on General Butler's staff in charge of "scouts and spies," is that in 1868, apparently to his great surprise and sorrow, he discovered "the most atrocious frauds"; that he then "consulted with members of the Union League Club," and got the election laws of 1870 and 1871 passed, providing stringent penalties against fraudulent voting; that he then went to work and spent $10,000 in unearthing frauds; that, finding he "was being impoverished" by the good work, he went to the President and asked whether he could not be paid for it out of the Secret Service Fund; that the President thought it might be done, and accordingly issued orders to that effect. We believe there is nothing in the story more than this, and it does not convict the President of anything more than the same kind of disregard for law and liking for arbitrary government that he has frequently shown before. There was nothing in the election laws of 1870–71 to authorize any such payment of money, and the payment of $35,000 to philanthropists because they are "impoverishing" themselves in the prevention of frauds is not a use to which public moneys can be safely put, without at least very careful supervision of the expenditure, which in this case seems to have been entirely dispensed with. It must be perfectly obvious, however, that the whole thing was a job of Davenport's, who got the President to let him have money to prevent frauds in elections just as Sanborn got the Treasury to give him money for detecting frauds after they had been committed. In all these cases the detective comes to Washington, represents himself as horrified at the frauds which some class or other is committing or going to commit, produces his accounts showing that he is beggaring himself in unearthing them, and immediately receives an appointment to continue the good work and pay himself out of the Treasury. It is not the way to carry on the work of government, but it is the way the work of government just now is carried on.

The scandals connected with the Emma Mine have naturally led mining engineers and geologists into a discussion of the duties devolving upon them with regard to reports to "vendors," purchasers, and other interested parties. The *Mining Journal* has very well summed up the tables of the moral law on this head in an article which it might be of some benefit to Professor Silliman to read. The *Mining Journal* thinks that it is the right and may be the duty of the expert to "protest against partial publications, leading to false impressions of his views"; declares that he should avoid "vague generalities which can be misunderstood or misused"; and adds that any one who talks about the "immense" or "inexhaustible" resources of a mine "is simply signing a blank certificate which others may fill out with as many millions as they choose to name." With regard to the price of mines, it points out what seems as yet to have escaped the notice of the Emma investigating committee, that the risks involved in mining are so great that the annual dividend required to support the stock must be proportionately high. "In a region where 2 per cent. a month is paid on secured call loans, a mine ought to promise 100 per cent. Even in California, where the rate of interest is not half so high, 40 or 50 per cent. is the annual dividend required to support the price of a mining stock on exchange. The usual rate of dividend from metal mining (except in those rare cases in which the certain results for years are positively calculable) should be from three to five times the rate of ordinary interest. Evidently, foreign and domestic capital should be invested on the same terms. But this is not the usual practice. Mines are sold in New York or London because investors in those places are attracted by the prospect of returns which are not in San Francisco considered sufficient to cover the risks." This has an important bearing on the Emma Mine enquiry. The dividends talked of by Park—18 per cent.—were really absurdly low, and would have been no attraction whatever to persons familiar with mining property. That is to say, if the mine had paid 18 per cent. on $5,000,000, its proper price would have been not $5,000,000, but at the outside $2,500,000.

There has been a small revolution in Chicago, resulting in the ejection from office of a good many of the office-holders, and the substitution of others who represent the wishes of the taxpayers as distinguished from the "bummers." The popular excitement seems to have threatened at one time a resort to violent measures; overflowing meetings were held, and the probable effect upon the "bummer" faction of hanging to the nearest lamp-post some of its leaders was at least discussed with interest. The rising was in some respects like that against Tweed and the Ring in this city, and will result for the time in an improvement of the condition of the affairs of the city. The whole trouble, there as here, as we have so often observed, is that the good citizens do not perform their political duties by going to the primaries and seeing that none but good men are nominated for office. We trust they will now begin at once, and not suffer the bad men to have it their own way any longer.

The sixty days allowed by the Advisory Council for the production of charges against Mr. Beecher having expired, the Examining Committee of the church is availing itself of the privilege allowed it under these circumstances of calling on the Committee of Three to empanel the Commission of Five to make further enquiry into the case; and the Three are now understood to be at work convening the court. The *Christian Union* requests us to say that Mr. Beecher's friends also desire the kind of trial described by us a fortnight ago as desired by the Andover party, and that they have issued "a general invitation to any one who thought he knew anything against Mr. Beecher to act as prosecuting attorney before the Commission," and, meeting with no response, have offered the place in succession to Professor Smyth and Drs. Storrs and Budington; but it does not say with what result. It adds

that the Andover plan "proposes a trial without any prosecutor, or even any charges to prosecute or reply to, and for their trial it proposes a struck jury, selected one-half by Mr. Beecher's friends and one by his scarcely-concealed enemies, the inevitable result of which must be a divided verdict and a broken court." Of the Commission of Five, on the other hand, it says that it is "a tribunal composed of men against whose judicial fairness no one has yet ventured to say a word, and whose opinions, if they have any, have not been made public." To all of which the obvious reply is, that the Commission of Five, whatever its character, is and will be the creation of Mr. Beecher's friends or of persons who believe in him, and that neither his enemies or accusers nor any impartial body will have either art or part in its formation. It would be, therefore, even if dealing with an ordinary and obscure matter, an unfit tribunal, and one before which Mr. Beecher's accusers cannot fairly be expected to appear either as attorneys or witnesses. It ought surely to have occurred to the *Christian Union* that one very probable reason for the absence of any impeachment of the fairness and competency of the Five is that up to this moment nobody knows who they are to be.

Since the above was written, however, Mr. Moulton has made a proposal for the trial of the case which, as it seems to us, it is impossible for Mr. Beecher, either in the character of an honorable man or of a religious man, to decline, if he cares for any opinion but that of his own church. The proposal is that (1) the parties shall go to trial before the court of law in the case now pending on the single issue that Mr. Beecher committed perjury in procuring Moulton's indictment for libel, all technical objections to be waived, and all witnesses admitted, and the jury to be chosen either by ex-President Woolsey or Mr. George C. Robinson, one of Mr. Beecher's deacons; or (2) before three referees, one to be named by each party, and a third by these two; or (3) before twelve men—six selected by Mr. Thomas G. Shearman and Mr. Edward Beecher, and six by two persons named by Mr. Moulton, *the majority to give the verdict*. This offer cannot, we repeat, be refused with impunity. Moulton is not a looker-on, but Mr. Beecher's trusted friend during the four most trying years of his life, and Mrs. Moulton, whom Mr. Beecher has openly accused of perjury, was also his friend during the same period, and is now a member of a Christian church, in good standing.

Sealed proposals for the $5,883,000 United States 5 per cent. bonds, constituting that part of the *Alabama* Indemnity Fund which it was found necessary to sell to liquidate adjusted claims, were opened at the Treasury at Washington on Monday. Proposals were filed by twenty firms, banks, and companies; the entire amount of these proposals was $68,330,000. Ten proposals were for the entire lot, and these alone made an aggregate of $58,883,000; the largest proposal of the remaining $9,447,000 was for $2,500,000; the next largest was for $1,500,000; there were two for $1,000,000 each; and the remainder were for $500,000 each, that having been the smallest amount for which a proposal could be filed. The highest bid was 103.78$\frac{7}{8}$; it was made by Messrs. Drexel, Morgan & Co. for a syndicate composed of themselves, Messrs. N. M. Rothschild & Sons and J. S. Morgan of London, and Messrs. August Belmont & Co. The bonds were sold for gold, and the price obtained was nearly the market price at the time the proposals were opened. As the *Alabama* claimants are to be paid in currency, the gold received for the bonds is to be sold by the Treasury on the 27th instant. The actual price which the Government receives for the bonds will not be known until the gold is sold.

The Bank of England, which has now nearly 48 per cent. reserve, on Thursday last reduced its minimum discount rate to 2 per cent., and the other discount houses of London are taking prime three-months' bills at as low a rate as 1½ per cent. per annum. At the New York Stock Exchange, the tendency of prices has been downwards, and such substantial properties as the coal railroads have suffered most during the week. The value in gold during the week of $100 greenbacks has ranged between $88 39 and $88 88. The Treasury began paying out silver for fractional currency on Wednesday, and at the Sub-Treasury here less than $100,000 has come out, and for the whole country less than $400,000. This has been from no unwillingness to take it, as probably $4,000,000 to $5,000,000 would be readily taken for pocket-pieces, but because the Treasury has not taken the proper means to supply the demand.

Malietoa, King of the Samoan Islands, has dismissed Steinberger, the *bouffe* emissary sent out by the State Department to improve the ways of the South Sea Islanders, from his position of Premier, on the ground that he is "a liar and an impostor"—ground quite sufficient, we suppose, for the dismissal of any premier. The commander of a British man-of-war took possession of him at the king's request, and placed him under arrest. Steinberger's career appears to have been that of what is popularly known as a "fraud." There was no reason for sending him to the Samoan Islands, and he therefore got himself sent; knowing nothing of diplomacy, he was commissioned as a sort of diplomatic agent by the Administration; and, knowing nothing of either the Southern Seas or of their inhabitants, or of government, civilized or uncivilized, he induced the poor Samoan savages to believe him sent there by a powerful and distant potentate, a Great Father or Brother of the Sun and Moon, or something of the sort, to make them his children and introduce prosperity and progress among them. He accordingly set up a kind of *bouffe* monarchy, with a South Sea House of Lords and Commons, a judiciary, a body of constitutional law, in which, of course, the king was to play the part of lay-figure, while he, Steinberger, administered affairs. The whole affair was a pure farce, and the wonder is how Steinberger got anybody to play it with him.

Mr. Cave's report on the condition of Egyptian finances has been published, with the Khedive's permission, and, though it shows that it is not as bad as it was feared, it furnishes another illustration of the misfortune it has been to semi-barbarous countries to be admitted to the money markets of the world on the same footing as civilized borrowers. The importance of Egyptian, any more than of Turkish, finance to the world outside is not, however, due by any means so much to the amounts involved, or to the prospects of the debtor states, as to the probable effect of their embarrassments on the immediate future of European politics. Mr. Cave gives a deplorable account of the wastefulness and folly of Egyptian administration and of the condition of the Egyptian civil service, which in many important particulars resembles our own, as indeed does the civil service of all barbarous countries. The present revenue is about $55,000,000, and the expenditure, which cannot be cut down, somewhat less; but there is a floating debt, even after the receipt of the $20,000,000 for the Suez Canal shares, of $91,215,000, and it is this which is now driving the Khedive frantic and filling France and England with vague alarm. There has been an idea in London that the Khedive's private estate, which was supposed to be enormous, would somehow be brought to the relief of the public credit if the worst came to the worst, but it now appears that the total revenue from this source is only a little over $2,000,000, and that this, too, is heavily burdened, both with funded loans and a large floating debt of unknown amounts. This statement Mr. Cave made up from figures furnished him by the Egyptian officials, as they would not allow him to see the books or even enter the Treasury building, so we probably do not know the worst. The floating debt is mostly held in France, with the results described by our correspondent on another page. Mr. Cave shows, however, that if the administration were reformed, the unproductive or only remotely productive expenditure stopped, and the whole debt funded in a consolidated bond, Egypt would be able to meet all her liabilities; but this could only be done under European superintendence, which would almost amount to the government of the country; and the question now is whether England will do it alone, let France and Italy do it, or do it in combination with them.

THE POLITICAL USE OF SCANDAL.

WE are not about to attempt any general defence of the methods of the daily papers in the matter of collecting and publishing gossip injurious to the peace or character of private persons, when we say that there has been of late a great deal of ill-considered talk about the recklessness of the press in recent rakings-up and diffusion of charges against public men. Sometimes this comes from orators who are troubled, and not unnaturally, by the effect which the course of the newspapers has in diminishing popular respect for public officers; sometimes from editors who are friendly to the Administration or to the Senatorial Group, and are exasperated by the discredit which the production of "charges" throws on the Republican party; and in both cases we are treated to homilies on the immorality of evil-speaking and tale-bearing. General Hawley delivered one such discourse, unfortunately for him, only two or three days before the Belknap explosion, and others appear every now and then in the columns of papers which still expect "reform within the party," and count upon the continued usefulness of the party. If, however, we look back over the assaults of the press upon prominent public men during the last ten years, we venture to say it would be impossible to discover much, if any, foundation for this view of the matter. We have examined most of what has been said or written on this subject for specific instances of the persecution of men in positions at all prominent without justification or probable cause, and we have not lighted upon one. It is true that charges were made affecting the personal integrity of General Grant in a very reckless way prior to his re-election in 1872, but they were not very long persisted in, and in most cases were promptly refuted. This illustration apparently makes against our position, but only apparently; for it must be admitted that the history of his Administration now clearly shows that the tendencies and associations which have resulted in the recent exposures were then actively at work, and, if the character of the President still remains unimpeached, it is due to the resolute and charitable refusal of the public to apply to him the old-fashioned rule that a man must be judged by the company he keeps. In other words, although the attacks of the papers were wild or altogether false, there existed a state of things which made them in some degree excusable, or at all events prevented their being utterly wanton.

If we now turn to the other men who have been made the object of charges, and who were persistently followed up after they had had reasonable opportunity for defence, we venture to say it would be impossible to point out a single case of gross and prolonged injustice. Who is the man in public life at any time during the past ten years, on whom the press has fastened as corrupt or slippery, who to-day stands before the world as completely vindicated? In some instances, the papers have got hold of the wrong charge, but rarely, if ever, of the wrong man—that is to say, if the persons attacked had not done what they were attacked for doing, it generally turned out that they had done something else of the same character. The newspapers, in other words, have been almost always correct in their charges; their errors have been in their specifications. Of course, this shows that "trial by newspaper" is by no means an admirable thing, by no means a process by which a public man ought to stand or fall. It does not deal out exact justice; it occasionally deals out gross injustice; but it does, on the whole and in the long run, put the public on the track of the wrong-doer. It calls attention to the fact that he has fled, indicates the direction he has probably taken, and follows his trail until the proper authorities are able to secure him.

In these days of strong party spirit this service, rough and clumsily performed though it may be, is one of very great value. The legislature is theoretically the grand inquest of the nation, but occasions may arise, as the history of the last fifteen years has shown, when the majority of the party in power may be so great and the party self-confidence so deep-seated as to cause total abandonment of the inquisitorial function. Since the outbreak of the war, as everybody knows, the Republican party has refused to enquire into abuses, partly through overweening confidence in its own strength, and partly through the conviction that the dangers against which it was guarding the Government were so tremendous as to make administrative corruption of comparatively little moment. Under these circumstances, and during this long period, the press has furnished almost the only check upon fraud and venality in every department. It has made or brought about nearly all the disclosures of official misconduct in municipal, State, and Federal politics with little or no help from the machinery of government, and in the teeth of the powerful efforts of the rings and professional politicians of every grade to throw discredit on it. It was easy to throw discredit upon it, we do not deny, but it has been instrumental in bringing a large number of criminals to justice; and that it has done but little injustice to innocent men we most positively assert. Its general estimate of character has rarely been mistaken.

It must also be said that the charges so frequently made against public men are the offspring and the result of widespread and deep-seated suspiciousness; and this suspiciousness has not been created by the press, and is not wanton. It has grown out of the salient facts of our political and financial history since 1860. From the outbreak of the war until 1873 there was an upward movement in all branches of business and in all industrial enterprises. Nearly every undertaking was in a certain sense prosperous; everybody who had the art of making money was making it, and the great masters of finance were doubling their fortunes in a year. The national and State legislatures and municipal corporations were feeding the flame of this activity by grants and donations and loans which brought the political and the speculative classes into close and intimate relations. Nearly every prominent politician had a speculation of some kind under his wing. The great operators had each a small army of friends or relatives or dependents whom they were helping to make a little money in stocks or bonds. The consequence was that large numbers of people became corruptionists often without knowing it. Politicians accepted favors from financiers often without perceiving the effect it was going to have on their independence, and great railroad promoters came to look on the corruption of legislatures as a legitimate portion of their construction expenses.

The panic of 1873 suddenly sobered people, and turned their eyes to the position they were in and the road they were travelling. The "shrinkage of values," as it is called, and the disappointment of hopes consequent on the panic, brought to light a great number of transactions which would not bear the light, and which, but for the panic, would never have seen the light, and exhibited a good many leading men in relations in which certainly no one ever expected to find them. It is not surprising that under these circumstances the temper of the public should be fierce, fretful, and doubting, and if it should call upon even the most respectable men in political life to give an account of themselves. We view with a sort of melancholy satisfaction the process of liquidation, as it is called, which is going on in the commercial world. We console ourselves, looking at the long lists of frauds and failures which are presented to us every month, by the reflection that, to borrow the phrase in common use, the "rotten concerns are being rapidly weeded out," that "we are getting rid of the dead wood," that "we shall soon touch bottom," and that the process of healthy recovery will then set in. Now, the public sees no reason why there should not be "liquidation" in politics as well as in business, why embarrassed statesmen should not submit their books and file their inventory and retire as well as embarrassed traders, or, at all events, why a politician any more than a merchant should object to having those who trust or employ him look into his affairs; and the public is not far wrong. This is not a time for great touchiness, and is certainly not a time when any man can safely take his stand on his dignity. We have a general mixture of classes and conditions. All trades and callings run into all others. There has been a complete breakdown of the conventional barriers which formerly restricted men in their modes of making money. It is with the utmost difficulty that the press has succeeded, after years

of hard fighting, in getting the Government to stamp with reprobation the promotion of a joint-stock company by a national Minister in the country to which he was accredited. We have seen a doctor of divinity, whose whole life has been passed in pastoral duties, accept unblushingly a commission from the Treasury, which he must, if fit to be a pastor, have known was a job, at a high salary, for performance of duties for which he knew he was totally unfitted. We have seen religious newspapers, for a commission, helping speculators to sell worthless bonds to some of the poorest people in the community. In fact, it has seemed at times of late years as if a man had only to call a thing a "business transaction" in order to release himself in carrying it through from all the restraints hitherto imposed by religion, morality, and manners.

Under these circumstances, it is not surprising and it is not improper that the public should call upon every man who offers himself or is offered by his friends as a candidate for high office, to tell how much money he has and how he got it. The origin of a man's fortune and his pecuniary history are in fact, at this crisis in our affairs, of more importance if he be a candidate for the Presidency than his opinions upon any question of national politics. Dishonesty and connivance at dishonesty are the plague just now of our politics, and dishonesty or an easy temper with regard to dishonest practices ought to be therefore an absolute disqualification for office. As American life now is, and is likely to be for many generations to come, it is not indecent or inquisitorial to require that any man who seeks to take charge of the Government shall make plain to all the world the amount of his fortune and the mode in which he acquired it. The accumulation of money by secret and obscure means has been in all civilized countries in all ages a proper and needful source of discredit, and there is no reason why it should not be so here.

THE WORK OF A REFORM PRESIDENT.

THE intense personal interest which the struggle over the nomination and election of a President causes is so great that there is always danger lest in the midst of it we lose sight of the serious objects which lie behind the mere struggle for place, and which alone give it any meaning. The natural tendency, as the campaign grows warmer, is for all those actively interested in it to look more and more upon the election of the particular candidate they favor as an end in itself, superior even to the attainment of the ends for which the nomination was originally made. This is peculiarly the case in the present campaign, because the nature of the questions now before the country is such that the candidate occupies a far more prominent position than the platform he stands upon, if, indeed, this year there can be said to be any distinctive platforms at all. Every month, as the summer goes on, there will be a stronger and stronger feeling, not only that the salvation of the country depends upon this or that particular man, but that this or that man once elected, the country will be saved, and we need trouble ourselves no more about it.

This, however, is far from being really a true view of the matter. The election of the best of all possible Presidents, and the overwhelming defeat of General Grant and the "Senatorial Group," will release the country no doubt from the disgrace under which it labors now, but, so far from being the end, it will be only the beginning of any real reform. When the good President whom we all hope to see elected is fairly installed in the White House, he will not be able, as some people seem to believe, by this simple fact to "return to the ways of the Fathers," but he will find himself face to face with exactly the same system of political intrigue and corruption which is now at work, and which if it be not upset by him will make him its tool. The dilemma which he will find he has to meet will be that in theory the patronage is in the hands of the Executive, while in reality it is in the hands of Senators and Members of Congress. As a reformer, he will be bound in making all his appointments (and this will be the main work of the first year of his term of office) to enquire solely into the fitness of candidates; as a practical politician, he will be required to ask, "Whom do Ben Butler, Conkling, Simmons, Cornell, and Sharpe (or their counterparts in the other party if he is a Democrat) want to have put in?" There are, as we know by sad experience, two ways out of this difficulty. One is that which was tried by General Grant, of making a pretence of attempting a reform in the system of appointments by taking them from Congress, and then of giving way at the first show of resistance, throwing himself into the hands of the Senatorial Cabal which is really the present seat of administrative power, letting them make the appointments for him, and protesting at the same time that he is doing as well as he can under the circumstances; that it is necessary in politics to be "practical" and make "compromises"; and that it is hopeless to try to carry on a government in opposition to the advice of "influential leaders," and finally winding up by filling the offices with Belknaps, Babcocks, MacDonalds, Joyces, and Averys. This is one way of meeting the difficulty. The only other way is to determine at the outset that the system must be broken up, to defy the politicians to do their worst, and to fall back on popular support for vindication. This is what a reforming President will have to begin his term of office with, so that instead of his election proving the signal for a general "era of harmony," it will be the signal for a sharp and deadly battle between him and the system as it exists, headed by every senator and member of Congress who has a place to fill, with a following made up of the vast hordes of people who live by the trade of politics. It would not be at all surprising if the first result were to be a dead-lock between Congress and the President, the Senate refusing to confirm the President's appointments unless he agreed at least to "pool" nominations with them.

We have not the least question that the country would come to the support of a President capable of taking such a stand, and it is to such a struggle as this that we look forward as the most desirable issue from the present chaotic and disheartening condition of politics. But it is for this very reason that the selection of the proper man for the work that is to be done in the next four years is of so much more importance than even the temporary defeat of the present corrupt régime. What the times demand is a man who, if elected, will go to Washington firmly convinced, not that "good men should be appointed to office"—everybody is convinced of that—but that under the present system good men cannot be put into the offices, and that the way to fill the offices with good men is therefore to strike at the roots of the system itself. In looking for such a man, too, we ought to remember that Grant's Administration should have taught us at least one thing, that we are not likely to find the qualities we need in any man who is either "a part of the thing to be reformed," or whose associations, tastes, and general tone of character are of a low order. The next President must not merely recognize that it is politically unwise to touch pitch. He must shrink instinctively from the defilement of it. If there were not such serious interests at stake, there would be something ludicrous, in the light of what we know (and might have always known) of General Grant's associations and friendships, in the idea that he ever could have been a reformer. A man who selects his associates and friends from that class of society which we may call the Boss class, whether he does so because he thinks Bosses carry too many guns to be despised, or because he really enjoys their society, puts himself into such relations with them that it is impossible for him to be any longer a free man. Down to the Grant period, this fact was recognized by all Presidents; and the spectacle of the head of the Government going about, as we may say, junketing with Bosses all over the country, accepting dinners, testimonials, and "gifts" from them, driving with them, smoking with them, and making himself one of them, was unknown. General Grant, however, has changed all that, and with the natural result. It is impossible for a man to put himself in such a position without incurring obligations, and when the time came for firmness we had weakness instead. There will be just as many Bosses in the country after the election this autumn as there are now, and they will have the aid and support of the Whiskey Ring, Safe-Burglars

and Post-Traders, and all the Babcocks, Harringtons, Butlers, Jaynes, Camerons, Mortons, and Conklings; and the question is whether the next President will make himself their tool or defy them. He cannot, in the work he will have to do, first use them to get power and then throw them aside. He must be either their master or, as General Grant has become, their puppet.

THE HOUSE OF LORDS.

LONDON, April 8, 1876.

AMID the multitude of interesting subjects which are touched upon in that wonderful curiosity-shop of literary, social, and political articles of virtu, 'Lord Macaulay's Life and Letters,' just published by his nephew, Mr. Trevelyan, one cannot fail to be struck by the tone of grave and sometimes bitter foreboding which he uses in speaking of the future of the House of Lords. He fears for "a constitution in which a reformed House of Commons found itself face to face with an unreformed House of Lords." "Nobody," he says, "seems to care one straw for what the Peers say about any public matter." . . . "The institution of the Peerage is evidently dying a natural death"; and so on through different pages in his biography. And yet Lord Macaulay was not a man to whom the Cassandra vein came naturally. His mind was too robust and his temperament too buoyant to permit him to indulge in gloomy vaticination upon any subject, whether private or public. He had nothing of the croaker about him. His native self-confidence and his cheerful disposition and warm heart would not admit of any participation in pessimist opinions. It was not in the man to brood. We must look, therefore, at the times he lived in when these suggestions of future evil were given forth.

For many years previous to 1832 the House of Lords was undoubtedly an institution which wrought more evil than good in the land. To give a single instance, what could have been more pregnant with evil to the state than the perverse resistance which the House of Lords offered to the passing of the Reform Act—a resistance carried to the verge of a revolution which must have steeped the country in the blood of a civil war? Lord Macaulay lived through these tempestuous times, and realized the peril in which his country was plunged by the obstinacy of the hereditary branch of the legislature. But had he lived till now, and seen the rapid development of popular and proletariat forces which are so powerful in England at the present day, I cannot help thinking that he would have regarded the institution whose downfall he seemed to view without trepidation with greater favor than his letters seem to indicate.

Between 1832 and 1867 the House of Lords performed many foolish and some dangerous experiments upon the temper and forbearance of the people, of which perhaps the most notable was the rejection of the Paper-duties Bill in 1860. But during these years the House of Commons was, upon the whole, a sober-minded, independent body of English gentlemen, sent to Parliament to do the bidding (within the exercise of their own unfettered judgment) of a sober-minded and intelligent body of electors. The measures favorably received by such a body of English gentlemen were *prima facie* reasonable measures, calculated to enhance the welfare of the people at large, and in no sense violent or revolutionary. The chances were that any strong opposition offered by an hereditary body of legislators to measures emanating from a House of Commons so constituted was factious and unreasonable; and, if we look through the records of the transactions of the House of Lords during these years, we shall find that seven-tenths of the work which they executed was mischievous. It was obstructive, and it was directed against the reasonable wishes of a reasonable body of representatives elected by the flower of the people. But their obstructiveness never went the length of that of 1831 and 1832; the mischief that they did was more in matters of detail than in matters of principle. Their tendencies always were, and, in the nature of things, must always be, conservative. They have everything to lose and nothing to gain by change, and they cannot help looking at what comes before them from the point of view of their own order. Until 1867, accordingly, we find that their action was for the most part favorable to measures introduced by Tory ministers when such ministries happened to be in power, and hostile to measures introduced by Whig ministries. They prevented some good Whig proposals from becoming law; they postponed the passing of others until in recurring years they were forced by public opinion to let them go; and they took the Whig marrow out of many others. More than once during these years ominous queries were going about as to the utility of the House of Lords as an institution, and doubtful answers given that it was worth preserving just so long as it behaved itself, and did not attempt to play the part of a separate and dominant oligarchy, overriding the other estates of the realm. But we have fallen upon different times. The revolution—that first step towards imperialism—perpetrated by Mr. Disraeli in 1867, the effects of which were felt for the first time in the recent election of 1874, has changed much of the feeling in the country which was hostile to the House of Lords. We begin to feel that the institution of a body of hereditary legislators, who are above and independent of the dangerous influences attendant on popular representation, is a real safeguard in the state.

Members of the House of Commons are no longer independent men. So great is the desire for a seat in Parliament that the electors are able to make their own terms, and those who dictate the terms are neither the wisest nor the best in the constituencies. Rather they are the noisiest and the wildest. In more than one borough constituency which I could mention, the fact that a candidate is supported by the more respectable classes of electors is prejudicial and not unfrequently fatal to his chances of success. The lower orders of voters are jealous of the higher orders, and, being numerically superior, they can carry the man who pledges himself to carry out their wishes or who panders to their jealousies. The success of Dr. Kenealy at Stoke-upon-Trent is an instance in point, and many others suggest themselves to any one who is familiar with the general character of English constituencies.

In these circumstances the utility of the House of Lords is obvious. Individual members of the Lower House are swayed by the impulses of the least reasonable in their constituencies, and the Government of the day, when parties are divided equally, desire to catch the votes of the individual members. Hence they must legislate down to the desires and impulses of the tail of the constituencies. The present Government are carrying out this policy of legislation with reckless indifference to the real good of the community. During the two last sessions they exerted themselves to please individual classes in the state to whom they were under obligations or from whom they look for favors—the clergy, the licensed victuallers, the shopkeepers, the trades-unionists, and the metropolitan slaughter-house keepers. This year they have gone down a peg even beneath these classes. They have pandered to what the newspapers have called "the imperial instincts of the people." Abroad they have initiated a flashy, shallow policy, which imposes upon no one, and which can bring nothing but ridicule and contempt upon the country. At home, they have taken the first step towards debauching the lower section of the electorate, and have inaugurated a political move that even an unimaginative critic may regard as the foreshadowing of the "panem et circenses" policy of the evil days of Roman imperialism. This year's Budget, rightly nicknamed a "Bribery Budget," proposes to increase the income tax (a tax which Mr. Disraeli in his address to the electors of Buckinghamshire in 1874 promised indirectly to repeal) on all incomes over £400 a year, but to relieve the lower incomes even of that which they now pay. In other words, it is proposed to remit taxation on the mass of the borough electors, and impose taxation on the shoulders of the wealthier minority. The class, therefore, that has the voting power in its hands, and consequently the initiation of policy, and especially of foreign policy, is relieved of all anxiety as to the consequences of extravagance. It may drive the country into reckless waste and feel no evil effects, while the minority, which bears the burdens, is powerless to withstand the more numerous but irresponsible majority. Such barefaced pandering to the demos is unprecedented in our time. Philanthropists in this country have flattered it; tyrants have scorned it in time gone by; and agitators have excited it. It has been left to Mr. Disraeli's Ministry to attempt its corruption by unscrupulous and unblushing bribery.

It is as a check on these extravagances and demoralizing practices that the House of Lords can best exert its independent authority. It has precisely the same capacities for good or evil in legislation that the other House of Parliament enjoys in all measures which come before it except—and here is the difficulty—in measures relating to taxation. A "Money Bill" may be thrown out by the House of Lords, but it may not be amended. A "Bribery Budget" therefore, it is true, cannot be dealt with by the Upper House. The Commons are jealous of their privileges in money matters. We are, therefore, at the mercy of an unscrupulous minister with a mechanical majority at his back in all matters affecting taxation. We must therefore submit to this, the first instalment of "the bread and games" policy. But in all other matters affecting the welfare of the state the House of Lords has, in theory at least, a legislative authority co-ordinate with that possessed by the representatives of the people; and of late the House of Lords has not scrupled to exert this authority. Last session an act for the prevention of adulteration of food passed both Houses. In the Commons the Government, scrupulous lest the interests of fraudulent shopkeepers (who are

also voters) should suffer, insisted, in the face of hostile divisions, on relieving the adulterators of all responsibility unless it was shown that the adulteration was effected "knowingly." The Opposition, acting in the interest of the public and not of a class, endeavored vainly to omit this word. The bill went to the House of Lords, and the word was omitted without a division. So, in the Conspiracy Bill of last session, the House of Lords introduced certain provisions against the interests of the trades-unionists which the majority in the popular assembly declined, or were afraid, to sanction. These are but passing instances of the value of an independent house of legislature, which might easily be multiplied. This session the Liberal section of the House of Lords has already done good service in the sense that they have spoken out boldly on matters of importance wherein their testimony is more valuable than the testimony of the Commons. On the Oxford University Bill men like Lord Granville, Lord Morley, and Lord Carlingford have not hesitated to raise up their voices with no uncertain sound against the retention of clerical restrictions. So on that most unfortunate measure, the Royal Titles Bill, a very important body of Peers have entered their protest against the proposal to import the Imperial style upon the ancient monarchy—a protest which, even in our last extremity in this bad business, we fondly hope may have some influence upon our aged, and perhaps hardly responsible, sovereign. Party considerations, no doubt, were too powerful for the good sense and taste of the minority of the House of Lords. But the outspoken and independent words of even the minority are of immense value to the country while we are still under the domination of Mr. Disraeli and his majority. So long as that domination lasts we are not ashamed to say, with something approaching to fervor, "Thank God, we have a House of Lords!" or, at least, a Liberal minority in that House who are not afraid to speak the truth.

FRANCE AND EGYPT.

PARIS, April 7, 1876.

IT was once said of Louis Napoleon: "Il ne parle jamais, il ment toujours." It might sometimes be said of the French press: "Elle parle toujours et ne dit jamais rien." It is curious to notice, for instance, how little has been said about the mission of M. Outrey to Cairo. While Mr. Cave's name has been in the mouths of all Englishmen for the last month, while every newspaper has been discussing the character, the importance, the object of his mission, there has been nothing said in France about M. Outrey, and I doubt if he is much more widely known, at the present moment, in Paris than he was a year ago. The democratic press is much more occupied with the amnesty, the nomination of the new prefects, the validation or the invalidation of the new deputies, than with the defence of French interests in the East.

The mission of M. Outrey to Egypt has, nevertheless, a very great interest; and if the Duc Decazes wanted to have in Egypt a representative of France thoroughly conversant with the traditions, the habits, the people of the country, he could have made no better choice. The Outreys are what we call a Levantine family. In the time of Louis XIV. they were already the commercial and political agents of France in the East. They have for two centuries given consuls to France in the East. This tradition has, however, been broken in our time. M. Outrey, who has now a special mission in Egypt, has represented France in Japan, and if our relations with Mexico could have been renewed he was marked for the post of Mexico. He was in Paris, in what may be called the reserve of diplomacy, when he was asked by the Duc Decazes to go to Cairo, where he had long been consul-general.

We do not know, of course, the tenor of his instructions, and his was essentially a secret mission. But light has been pouring from all directions on the affairs of Egypt. What is perhaps not so well known is the transformation of public opinion in France in relation to the affairs of Egypt since Mr. Disraeli bought his shares of the Suez Canal. Lord Palmerston had always opposed, as much as was in his power, the scheme of the canal and the efforts of M. de Lesseps. It was found, however, not only that the canal could be made, but that it would become perforce the great road to the East, and England's line of communication with India. The imperial dependence of India has become the great prize of England's ambition; her small armies can no longer play in Europe the part which they did in old times; England sees new and powerful unities forming on the Continent, and absorbing those small states of which she once boasted herself the protector. But it is not in the nature of Great Britain to be timid and modest, and the English nation has never adopted the views of the economist school in foreign matters. England must have a field for her energy, and India is more and more becoming that field. Whatever may be the technical defects of the operation made by Mr. Disraeli when he made England an important partner in the Suez Canal, I believe that he gave satisfaction to the national feeling in England. When he made his *coup de théâtre* the national feeling was not aroused in France. We perfectly understand that England will never shut the canal against anybody in time of peace, and in time of war she will shut it whether she owns shares or not against her enemies. We have the satisfaction of having promoted the canal, and dug it, and we still hold the largest number of shares in the enterprise. France has completely renounced all idea of conquering Egypt, and she has done well. "En politique," said once to me a great diplomat, "il faut des idées simples." What is or ought to be for France *l'idée simple?* Of course there is but one, which I need not express, for it suggests itself at once to the mind of a patriot. The possession of Egypt, the primacy of Egypt, is not an *idée simple;* it is one of those old traditions which sleep in the bureaux of the Foreign Office. To me the idea of opposing at present the French influence to the English influence on those petty fields of Morocco, Tunis, Greece, Egypt, seems almost childish. Why should we compromise for a small object our good relations with England, which ought to be carefully preserved for a distant and simple objective? It is perhaps idle in such matters, and even under our Republican régime, to speak of public opinion. There is really no public opinion in France about Egypt and the Khedive, except perhaps among the holders of Egyptian bonds. It is for the leaders of opinion to frame and to choose a policy. Are they to begin war against England on that little field of Egypt or not?

The question, if it were put in this plain form, would be very easily answered; but unfortunately many private interests are mixed up with the public interest. The last Empire allowed the creation in France of some banks which are almost state institutions, and their statutes have permitted them to enter into speculations which are of a dangerous character. Such is the great institution called the *Crédit Foncier*, such is the *Crédit Agricole*. Now, it is no mystery among well-informed financiers that these establishments, which were instituted in the interest of French agriculture (they are essentially mortgage companies), have taken a more cosmopolitan view of their mission. The Khedive has been treated as the greatest landed proprietor in the world. These banks have in their hands an amount of his bonds which is somewhat alarming. The credit of the Khedive and of Egypt (it is one and the same thing) has become too important an element in the credit of an institution which, I regret to say, has somewhat the character of a state institution, as the state chooses its governor and has much to do with its operations. This is a very unfortunate complication; to say things brutally, and at the risk of making absurd suppositions, if the Khedive should fail as Turkey has failed, there would be in Paris a financial crisis which the Government wishes to avoid. The credit of the Khedive must, by all means, be maintained; such has been the theory of our administration and of the French financiers. The French public has somewhat lost its faith in Eastern finances; the collapse of Turkish credit is now complete, and it will, perhaps, be difficult to make the new Egyptian loan acceptable to our capitalists. Left to himself, the Khedive would find but few friends here at present; but if he has the support, or even what may be deemed the support of France, if by some device his credit may be represented as being placed under the responsibility of France, then there is no doubt that the new operation will be highly successful. Our great banks will place in the hands of the public the bonds with which they are now overburdened. Our ingenious financiers have spread for the last few days a rumor which is destined to facilitate their intended operations. A note, it seems, has come from Russia; and what said this note? It informed Marshal MacMahon that Russia had decidedly made up her mind to go into the Eastern question hand-in-hand with France. It was only after an interview between Prince Orloff and the Duc Decazes that it was decided that Egypt must be helped by all means, with or without the help of England. The patriotic gentlemen who spend their time at the Exchange speak of the coming Egyptian loan as "a national operation." You are almost looked upon and branded as a bad citizen if you express any doubt about the credit of Egypt.

Has there been an offer on the part of Russia to France of concerted action in the East? I do not know; but it seems strange that this diplomatic effusion of Prince Gortchakoff should have come so conveniently for the holders of Egyptian bonds; that Russia should have embarked so quickly in so great an enterprise as the division of the inheritance of the sick man; and that she should have taken for an ally in the coming "war of succession" the power which is now the least prepared to go to war. It is strange that Russia should invite France to help the Khedive, when she gives not a sixpence to the great Sultan and gloats over his bankruptcy. Surely, if Russia intends to take Constantinople and offers us Egypt, there

is no reason why the Khedive should not be allowed to become a bankrupt, like his lord the Sultan. The policy of a country like Russia is not conducted by fits and starts; there is a certain sort of continuity in the history of states as well as in the development of every man. It is quite true that Prince Gortchakoff has been startled by the book of Klaczko on the "two Chancellors"; that his enemies at home are secretly enjoying his anger at being represented as the tool and unconscious instrument of Bismarck. It may be that he feels a sudden impulse to "do something," as people say here when they don't know what to do; but to embark in the Eastern question with no better help than the Egyptian Khedive and the knot of international financiers who call themselves the "high finance" in Paris, without any assurance of procuring the active support of the Republican party, which is now in the ascendant in France, would be a very imprudent and extraordinary enterprise.

However, it is not for us to examine how far Prince Gortchakoff may or may not go; our duty is to care first for France, and not to embark in what I might call a new Mexican war. Egypt is not as far off as Mexico, but anything which might lead us in an emergency to an armed occupation of the valley of the Nile would be a great peril. If the *Crédit Foncier* and the banks which form "syndicates" with this great state establishment are placed in possession of the Egyptian railroads, if they become the masters of the Egyptian custom-house—if Egypt, in one word, is pawned by the Khedive—we might be led some day or other to interfere more than we might find convenient in the government of Egypt, and there will be a continual pressure of the Egyptian bondholders on the French Government in view of this dangerous possibility. We have gone back to the "age of gold," and one of its most extraordinary characteristics is the new combination of diplomacy and finance which has become so scandalously apparent lately in Eastern affairs. Have you not a proverb saying that it is better to lose your money and keep your credit? The Turkish Government can hardly follow this advice; it has lost money, credit, and all. Egypt might have become very prosperous under a good administration, but no distant European interference will ever alter the character of its administration; and whoever reads Mr. Cave's report must have little hope for the financial future of that country. We hope, therefore, that France will not get entangled in its affairs. Committees may be appointed and commissioners named to control the receipts; no commissioners will be allowed to control the expenses. The Ottoman Bank in Constantinople has not had the slightest influence over the internal administration of Turkey. What will two French and Italian commissioners in Cairo be able to do to eradicate the vices of an absolute government?

Notes.

HURD & HOUGHTON announce for early publication a translation of Julian Klaczko's 'Two Chancellors.'——'Free, Yet Forging Their Own Chains,' a story of the Pennsylvania mining regions; and 'Familiar Talks with Boys,' by the Rev. John Hall, D.D., are among Dodd & Mead's announcements.——D. Appleton & Co. will publish 'Uncontradicted Testimony in the Beecher Case,' compiled from the official records by the Rev. Lyman Abbott; 'The Warfare of Science,' by President Andrew D. White; a 'Life of James W. Grimes,' former Governor of Iowa and United States Senator, by William Salter; and a 'Life of Alexander T. Stewart,' by James Grant Wilson.——Macmillan & Co. have in press 'Three Centuries of English Poetry' (from Chaucer to Herrick), selections by R. O. Masson; and a 'Manual of Marks on Pottery and Porcelain,' by W. H. Hooper and W. C. Phillips.——'The Violin: its Famous Makers and their Imitators,' by George Hart, is announced by J. W. Bouton.——H. S. Allen, New York, will publish an illustrated history of the United States called 'One Hundred Years' Achievements of a Free People.'——M. E. Dufossé has just issued the first number of *Américana*, "bulletin bibliographique trimestriel des livres relatifs à l'Amérique."——Calmann Lévy, the successor of Michel Lévy Frères, has just published 'Chroniques Parisiennes, 1843–1845,' by C. A. Sainte-Beuve, a reprint, we suppose, from the *Revue des Deux Mondes*. The same house announces as in press 'Dialogues et Fragments Philosophiques,' a volume by Ernest Renan.——*Le Courrier Littéraire* is the name of a new literary weekly, of 32 pp. 8vo, published fortnightly by Sandoz and Fischbacher, Paris, beginning last month. It aims to meet the wants of readers of the present day by "a succinct analysis and rapid judgment" of new works after the manner of the *Athenæum* and *Academy*. Reviews will be anonymous, but each number will contain a longish *étude* signed by some well-known writer. M. François Coppée will be the dramatic editor. Literary correspondence from all parts of the world is promised. A novel stipulation is contained in the prospectus: "The editor promises to return in forty-eight hours the books which he cannot undertake to review."——A highly attractive work is in course of publication by C. Lichtwerck, Berlin (New York: L. W. Schmidt), namely, an album of thirty-two photographs of South American sights and scenery ('Landschafts- und Städtebilder'), with accompanying text, by Louis Rosenthal, for many years a resident and traveller in South America. The views comprise one for Uruguay, six for the Argentine Confederation, as many for Chile, ten for Peru, two for Ecuador, and three for New Granada.

—The *Publishers' Weekly's* enquiry of the trade as to the most salable works on the Revolutionary period elicited the following vote: Lossing's 'Field-Book,' 19; Greene's 'Historical View,' 17; Irving's 'Life of Washington' (four editions), 17; Greene's 'Life of Nathanael Greene,' 12; Sabine's 'American Loyalists,' 12; Frothingham's 'Siege of Boston,' 11; Headley's 'Washington,' 11; Watson's 'Camp-Fires,' 9; 'Letters of John Adams and Wife,' 8; Greene's 'German Element,' 8; Thomson's 'History of the War,' 8; Bigelow's 'Life of Franklin,' 7; Frothingham's 'Rise of the Republic,' 7; Wells's 'Life of Sam. Adams,' 7, etc. In this, as in most of the *Weekly's* previous tests of popular reading, the admission of recent publications detracts from the value of the indication, but there are not so many here that they cannot be readily eliminated. The older and standard works offer some surprises. That Prof. Greene's 'Historical View,' for instance, should hold the rank it does might have been expected; but that his Life of his grandfather should be three-fourths as much in request was, considering the size and cost of the work (3 vols. 8vo, $12), hardly to be looked for. Sabine's 'Loyalists,' too, of which the last edition was, we believe, published in 1864, shows a degree of favor for which, even conceding a Canadian demand for it, we were not prepared. Finally, that one copy of Wells's 'Life of Samuel Adams' (3 vols. 8vo, $12) should be called for say for every three of Lossing's 'Field-Book' (2 vols. royal 8vo, $14) was not antecedently probable to one possessed only of our information. The serious and scholarly works decidedly outrank the others among purchasers; it would be curious to compare with the above statistics the demand for the same works at some one of our public libraries. Backed by school-boy suffrages, we should doubtless see Mr. Headley and Mr. Watson stepping nearer to the front, and Mr. Judson and Mr. J. S. C. Abbott emerging from the obscurity of the rear.

—The Supreme Court of Massachusetts has rendered a decision in the "Bay Psalm-Book" case, dismissing the bill in equity brought by the deacons of the Old South Church in Boston to recover a particular book at present in the possession of the executrix of the late Mayor Shurtleff. The book in question was printed at Cambridge, in New England, in 1640, and is described by Thomas as being "the first book printed in this country." It had once belonged to Rev. Richard Mather (one of the translators), and afterwards to Rev. Increase Mather, and was contained in the collection bequeathed in 1758 by Rev. Thomas Prince "to the Old South Church for ever." The book remained in the Old South library for more than a century; but in the year 1860 there occurred a "mutual interchange of gifts" between the deacons (the custodians of the library) and Dr. N. B. Shurtleff, a noted antiquarian, afterwards Mayor of Boston—Dr. Shurtleff, for his part, receiving the Bay Psalm-Book, and the deacons, on behalf of the church library, accepting Winthrop's 'Journal' and Belknap's 'American Biography.' While Dr. Shurtleff lived he enjoyed peaceable possession of his "nugget," exhibiting it as "his own" to the old-book lovers, and making a fac-simile reprint, which was disposed of by subscription. But after his death, which took place in 1874, the deacons of the Old South, reminded by bibliomanists that they had exceeded their discretion in removing so valuable a book from the trust, commenced legal proceedings for its restoration. The Court (Judge Morton), after a full hearing of testimony as to the facts and arguments upon the law, has now decided that the "statute of limitations" is a sufficient bar to the claim made by the plaintiffs.

—In the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register* for April the opening paper is a genealogical sketch of the Lowndes Family of South Carolina. A steel portrait is given of William Lowndes, a Southern statesman whose name has not maintained itself with posterity like those of some of his contemporaries, though he was the appointed manager of the Missouri Compromise and in other and better ways was a leader in his time. He was the "favorite son" of his State for the Presidency in competition with Crawford and J. Q. Adams, and it is curious to find him the author of a phrase which we quoted the other day from Adams's diary, where it had reference to the very same contingency. Lowndes wrote his wife, Jan. 6,

1822: "The Presidency is not in my opinion an office to be either solicited or declined." Adams, when entreated to contribute money to advance his own election, used to reply: "The Presidency is not an office to be sought or declined," etc. This formula, so convenient for a willing candidate, was heard in our day when Judge Davis was approached in regard to his disposition to stand for the Presidency at Cincinnati in 1872; and it is worth remarking that the consent implied in this Delphic utterance cost the son of John Quincy Adams a nomination at least. Mr. Lowndes, to return to our subject, deserves special remembrance as the author of a scheme of representation in the Lower House which from 1809 to 1865 preserved South Carolina from Parkers, Scotts, Moseses, and Whippers; and which, while we are casting helplessly about for modes of reforming our legislatures, is worth reconsidering. He secured the passage of an act providing that half the representatives should be elected on the basis of population, and the other half on that of wealth. Another interesting genealogy in this number of the *Register* is that of the Folsom family, one member of which, Capt. Joseph L. Folsom, a classmate and intimate friend of Gen. Sherman's, was chiefly instrumental in 1847 in fixing the site of San Francisco. Moreover, with a perfect foresight, he invested $1,500—his all—in the land on which the present city stands, adding to this as he was able; his estate (he died in 1855) is now valued at eleven millions. In the diary of the Hon. W. D. Williamson, journeying from Bangor to take his seat in Congress in 1821, it is recorded: "Prayers in the morning by the Chaplain, the Speaker then takes the chair, calls to order—the members sit with hats on or off at pleasure."

—The literature relating to the spelling of Shakspere's name is not so bulky as that which touches some other moot points in the career of the dramatist, but a good deal has been written about it. It is certainly interesting to know whether, while finding time to make himself familiar with the *Corpus Juris*, to discover the circulation of the blood, and to write the voluminous works which still pass under the name of Lord Bacon, he took any pains to determine the spelling of his own name, or left to chance what letters should compose it. In the May number of *Scribner's* Mr. J. H. Gilmore has undertaken a discussion of this question, quoting White's 'Shakespeare's Scholar' as authority for the following as among the forms which the name has taken at one time and another:

Chaksper,	Shagspere,	Shaxper,
Shakspere,	Shaxpur,	Shakspear,
Shaxpere,	Shaksper,	Shaxpeare,
Shakspire,	Shaxsper,	Shakspeere,
Shaxspere,	Shackspeare,	Shaxburd,
Schaksper,	Saxpere,	Shackspeyr,
Shakespere,	Shakespire,	Shakespear,
Shakespeare,	Shakespeire,	Schakesper,
Schakespeyr,	Shackespeare,	Shackespere,
Shaxespeare,	Shakaspear,	Shakyspere.

Mr. Furnivall admits the existence of only five unquestionably genuine signatures of the poet's, two on his Stratford conveyance and mortgage and three on his will. Of these the first two are Shakspere; of the three will-signatures, two are Shakspere, while about the third there is no agreement, Furnivall making it Shakspere, Stevens and Malone as well as Sir Francis Madden deciphering it as Shakspeare. These autographs seem to settle one point—that Shakspere never inserted an *e* after the *k* any more than his father did before him, the name appearing in the latter's will Shakspear. The result of the study of the subject thus far has not been to produce uniformity, the fashion having changed from century to century, and giving us, in the seventeenth, Shakespear; in the eighteenth, Shakspeare; and in the nineteenth, till recently, Shakespeare. In the struggle for existence, it certainly looks now as if Mr. Furnivall's reading were likely to have the best of it, though the settled pronunciation of the name will always have a tendency to throw an *e* into the first syllable. Perhaps the most remarkable thing about the name is not that there should have been such a struggle over the spelling, but that there should be so little variation in Shakspere's own way of spelling it. In the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, spelling was notoriously loose, and the spelling of names frequently a mere matter of caprice. In a note to his 'Life of Jeffreys' (who was born in 1648), Lord Campbell says "the name is spelt no fewer than eight different ways: 'Jeffries,' 'Jefferies,' 'Jefferys,' 'Jefferys,' 'Jefferyes,' 'Jeffrys,' 'Jeffreys,' and 'Jeffreys,' and he himself spelt it differently at different times of his life; but the last spelling is that which is found in his patent of peerage, and which he always used afterwards."

—The *Atlantic* contains a very interesting number of Mrs. Kemble's "Gossip," with anecdotes of the Sheridan family, of "that exceedingly coarse, disagreeable, clever, and witty man, Theodore Hook," of whose "loud voice, and blazing red face, and staring black eyes" she declares that she always had a dread. Mrs. Kemble certainly does not give an agreeable picture of an evening at which Hook, when fairly forced into extemporizing at the piano by Mrs. Norton, extemporized upon her as a subject, in a highly satirical vein, so objectionable to the object of the satire that though she was able to restrain her feelings at the time, she subsequently broke out about Hook, "and his odious ill-nature and abominable coarseness, saying that it was a disgrace and a shame that for the sake of his paper, the *John Bull*, and its influence, the Tories should receive such a man in society"—an explanation of his social success, it may be imagined, rather inadequate. The life of Theodore Hook, with his musical knack, his talent for extemporizing verses, his great love of punning, and his equal love for practical jokes, might furnish some magazine writer a good subject for an article on the type—we do not know exactly what to call it—to which he belonged. Hook was by no means the only one of his kind in the society of the period, as the memoirs of the time sufficiently show. He was only the most noted of a set of men, all having some exceptional gift in the way of mimicry or music or verse-making, all finding their way into good society, and all leading a semi-Bohemian sort of life, very much more entertaining, according to Anglo-Saxon ideas, from its close connections with respectability and solid knowledge, than the outlaw life which Mürger has celebrated for France, and imitators of Mürger have imagined could be transplanted to America. Certainly, for the entertainment of others, no Bohemianism has been so profitable to the world as the kind of which Charles Matthews, Theodore Hook, and their friends were the centre. Perhaps as noticeable a thing as any about them is the fact that in the society of the present day, in which a kind of nervous excitement has unpleasantly replaced the rollicking animal spirits that made life formerly merry, they would hardly be tolerated.

—The ventilation of the House of Representatives having become so bad that it was evident that something must be done, a board of officers—composed of Professor Henry of the Smithsonian, Colonel Casey of the Engineers, Mr. Clark, the architect of the Capitol, Mr. Schumann, of the office of the Architect of the Treasury, and Dr. Billings, of the Army—has been appointed to examine the numerous plans submitted by professional ventilators, and to report as to the proper measures to be taken to afford relief. Whatever plan may be recommended, we presume that it will be necessary to make brains a part of the machinery, and that probably the board will find that no plan which they may recommend for the procuring and preserving this portion of the apparatus will be satisfactory. The English Parliament think it best to employ a well-known scientific man and physicist, Baron Percy, to supervise the heating and ventilation of their buildings, and pay him about $20,000 a year for his services. The engineer in charge of the ventilating machinery of the House of Representatives is appointed by the Clerk of the House, and holds his office at his pleasure. He receives $1,800 a year, and it has usually been considered requisite that he should know how to run a steam-engine. It will be of interest to note the changes in this plan recommended by the board, and the action taken thereon by the House.

—It is curious to see how the word *quite*, the synonym of 'entirely,' after coming into use in the sense of 'very' (which is, however, "quite recent"), is now passing current in the sense of 'not quite.' An illustration of this came to our notice in the case of an inventor of a new safety-lamp for burning-fluids, who found he could make no sales because the scientific experts certified that his lamp was "quite safe."

—It is now a long time since we have met with notices of the American knife-eater in the writings of contemporary critics; and when we recollect how frequently he used to be noticed by European tourists, and how he used to be held up to the scorn and loathing of mankind, we are forced to attribute the recent caducity of his ill-fame either to his gradual disappearance before the march of civilization or else to the increasing dulness of appreciation in the critical world caused by the progress of democracy and the breaking down of the old barriers which caste erected between those who eat with their fork and those who shovel with the baser implement. Mr. Proctor, the astronomer, has, however, in his Western travels, in the city of Des Moines, come across a fellow-creature who, as he distinctly avers, amused himself while at table, not simply by eating with his knife, but by dipping the knife (used meanwhile as more timid and delicately-nurtured persons use a fork) into the cream-pitcher and the sugar-bowl, and licking from it the adhering sugar and milk. These atrocities Mr. Proctor has without hesitation denounced, and the press has without reserve endorsed his denunciation. There can be no doubt that, if we are to draw the line anywhere, since the communal use of the sugar-bowl and the cream-pitcher is in reality but one remove from the institution—which we have never heard

of as in vogue except upon the high seas—of the communal tooth-brush, in the interest of civilization we must draw it where Mr. Proctor does. Indeed, we may say that the correct use of the knife and fork, like the correct use of *will* and *shall*, is among English-speaking races the surest and most absolute test of breeding. An American or Englishman who puts *will* where *shall* ought to be, and *vice versâ*, may not be a homicide or a burglar, and a man who eats with his knife may be a good husband and father; but this kind of defence, which is usually urged by genial lovers of their kind, is in reality not a defence, but a plea in mitigation of damages.

—We were inclined to think the change in the Ministry of Public Instruction by far the most serious consequence of the overthrow of the Minghetti Cabinet in Italy. The new incumbent is Signor Coppino, who held the same office in 1867 under Rattazzi, but left no mark on the educational progress of the country, and who has not the reputation of possessing the vigor necessary to continue the reforms instituted by his predecessor, or the independence to resist the attacks on them which will probably not long be delayed. Nevertheless, he has, to his great credit, announced his intention to adhere to Signor Bonghi's policy, and to resign his place if thwarted. The late minister, meantime, if his health is not too much impaired by his extraordinary devotion to his official duties, will inevitably have a large share as heretofore in shaping the legislation relating to public instruction. Some idea of the part which he has played in this respect as a simple deputy in the Italian Chamber may be had by consulting a work which we ought long ago to have brought to the attention of our readers. We refer to Prof. C. Hippeau's 'L'Instruction Publique en Italie' (Paris: Didier; New York: F. W. Christern). This essay was completed on the eve of Prof. Bonghi's accession to the Ministry, and so stops short of the last manifestation of the reformatory spirit by a statesman perhaps the best fitted among his peers by his study of English, German, and American institutions to improve the methods and elevate the standard of education in the Peninsula. But, this deficiency apart, the work will be found to give a very faithful picture of the present state of primary, secondary, and the higher education in Italy, and the organization of the Ministry which has them in charge. It abounds in statistics, but, throughout, it introduces them with a discussion of principles having a general interest, in the course of which frequent comparisons are made with the practices of other countries. Thus, on the subject of gratuitous instruction the author refers to the American device of a school-fund, and shows that our common schools are gratuitous only for the poor who pay no taxes, and that this class is benefited without being invidiously distinguished from those who are able to and in fact do pay. Again, having noted the fact that the choice of text-books in Italy is assigned to the provincial councils, he remarks that when the same question arose in France in 1874, the decision was in favor of centralization. On the subject of female education M. Hippeau has some very encouraging chapters. He cannot praise too highly the zeal, aptitude, and proficiency shown by girls in their studies; he can even say: "The question has been asked in Italy, as it has often enough been with us [in France], How is it that the young men who have finished their classical training are as a rule much poorer writers than girls who have had a much less complete and learned education?" He hopefully anticipates the increase of woman teachers after the pattern of the United States; already there are sixty-four normal schools for them to forty for male teachers. M. Hippeau refers also to the instrumentality of the Hon. Geo. P. Marsh in introducing the kindergarten into Italy, and to the services of the late Mrs. Emily B. Gould and "une riche demoiselle de Boston" in enabling it to take root. But we cannot go further into this interesting work, which is the fourth in a series already embracing the United States, England, and Germany, and which will be still further enlarged by this sincere and able writer.

—When a volume is introduced by a sketch on its cover from the pencil of M. J. G. Vibert and by a preface from the pen of M. Théodore Barrière it claims some degree of consideration. 'Les Soirées Parisiennes' (Paris: Dentu; New York: F. W. Christern) is a collected reprint of the amusing theatrical gossip contributed to the *Figaro* by M. Arnold Mortier under the name of "Un Monsieur de l'Orchestre." It is gossip, and nothing else; light, bright, unpretentious, and enlivened by a wit which, while it never rises to the fineness of Attic salt, never sinks to the coarseness of *sel gaulois*. The volume is neatly printed, and its merit is enhanced by an index of proper names, facilitating the immediate finding of any of the many pertinent anecdotes with which it abounds. The most amusing chapter is a very comic and quasi-macaronic account in Franco-Italian of the first appearance in Paris of the Italian tragedian, Signor Ernesto Rossi. We learn from the description (p. 65) of the first ball given in the new Opéra that American soda-water ("d'excellents sodas glacés à l'américaine") has already been introduced into the magnificent monument of M. Garnier. This shows rapid progress on the part of the Parisians, for it is only nine years since they had their first taste of this delectable beverage at the American restaurant in the Exhibition of 1867.

WILLIAM GODWIN.*

HOW many of our readers have perused a chapter of 'Political Justice'? Probably not ten. Is there any man living whose mode of thought or views of life are influenced by the writings of William Godwin? We venture to assert that there is not a single such person on either side of the Atlantic. Yet 'Political Justice' was once the book of the day. It was as well-known in its time as is now Mill's 'Liberty' or Darwin's 'Origin of Species.' It was admired. It was criticised. It was attacked. Young men read it with enthusiasm. Their elders denounced it with vehemence. The Ministry debated whether or not to prosecute its author; and not the public only, but authors whose names will live as long as the literature of England is studied, considered Godwin a man who, whether to be praised or to be abused, had made his mark in the history of speculation, and might be expected to occupy a place equal to that which has, as a matter of fact, been filled with such theorists as Bentham or Coleridge or Rousseau. Mr. Kegan Paul even now asserts that 'Political Justice' "may take its place with the 'Speech for Unlicensed Printing,' the 'Essay on Education,' and 'Émile,' among the unseen levers which have moved the changes of the times." If by these words be meant that the book should take rank among the highest class of speculative writings, Mr. Paul has, judging even by his own account of Godwin's performance, let the partiality of a biographer blunt the acuteness of a sound critic. But if the expressions cited merely mean that Godwin exerted at one period great influence over contemporary opinion, Mr. Paul's admirable life fully proves the truth of his assertion. Persons of the most different sentiments may be called as witnesses to the effect of Godwin's writings. Coleridge, Grattan, Curran, Horne Tooke, Parr, Wedgwood, and Lamb were each proud to consider Godwin their friend, and Godwin's very defects made it impossible for any man to share his friendship who did not admit the philosopher to a position of the most absolute intellectual and moral equality. A short sentence from a letter of Coleridge tells more of the place held by Godwin than could be gathered from volumes of eulogy: "In Bristol I was much with Davy, almost all day; he always talks of you with great affection. . . . If I settle at Keswick, he will be with me in the fall of the year, and so meet you. And let me tell you, Godwin, four such men as you, I, Davy, and Wordsworth do not meet together in one house every day of the year. I mean, four men so distinct, with so many sympathies."

The attacks of opponents are as strong a proof of celebrity as the admiration of followers, and this mark of fame was not wanting to Godwin. Mackintosh, in his celebrated lectures, attacked Godwinian doctrines with a directness at which the sensitive vanity of their author took offence. Parr denounced from the pulpit the teaching of a writer whose friendship was compromising to the reputation of a liberal ecclesiastic. Samuel Newton had been Godwin's tutor, and valued him as a pupil and disciple. He also sympathized with the reformer's political views; but the publication of 'Political Justice' compelled the Calvinistic divine to break off connection with his pupil. The letters of Newton are, it must be owned, creditable to the Independent minister. Their tone is in two respects remarkable. They display unfeigned respect for Godwin's abilities; they also show keen sympathy with Godwin's political views. "In the perusal," writes Newton, "of your book, I was charmed with your language and with many of your sentiments, and with your general idea of political justice and liberty. I said there were some descriptions, reasonings, and ideas which, for simplicity, for elegance, force, and utility . . . surpass all that I have ever read in Tacitus, Polybius, Montesquieu," etc., etc. The whole tone, in short, of Newton's criticism savors of 1793, when men of the sternest orthodoxy could yet glow with the feeling that a "torrent of political light" was "pouring in upon an oppressed world." Nor must the most famous of Godwin's critics be forgotten. 'Political Justice' will be remembered, long after it has ceased to be read, by the fact that it occasioned the publication by Malthus of his treatise on population.

Godwin was, in short, confessed by the voice both of enemies and of foes to have written the book of the day, and to have by one great effort placed himself among the foremost writers of his generation. Yet despite this testimony to his reputation, his name and his works are now unknown to

* 'William Godwin: His Friends and Contemporaries. By C. Kegan Paul.' London: Henry S. King & Co.; Boston: Roberts Bros.

the mass of Englishmen. Nor is the failure on his part to make an impression on the modern world due to the lapse of time. Bentham was born in 1748 and died in 1831. He may therefore well pass as a contemporary with Godwin, whose life extended from 1756 to 1836. Yet Bentham's works are still alive. Every branch of English law bears traces of his ideas of reform, and all English speculations in the field of ethics or of jurisprudence are affected, by way either of attraction or of repulsion, by his theories. Coleridge belonged to a somewhat younger generation ; but Coleridge has produced an effect on modern English thought unlike anything which can be attributed to the author of 'Caleb Williams.' It is vain to urge as an explanation of Godwin's failure that his method of thought and expression is old-fashioned. The same might be said of Butler. Yet Butler is read, and even the supercilious "Zeitgeist" deigns to criticise his errors. The fallacies of 'Political Justice' have long ceased to receive the compliment of refutation. Godwin, indeed, was "buried" long before he died. By the beginning of the century his renown had waned. Twenty years later, he attracted to his side enthusiastic spirits like Shelley, who rightly admired his dauntless honesty and his noble public spirit, but overrated his originality and logical powers. One disciple was born to him at the very close of his life. Bulwer received at the opening of his career the blessing of the patriarch of English republicanism. The connection between the two men is characteristic. Godwin read with "transport" the pages of 'Paul Clifford,' and wept over the theatrical benevolence which poured forth sympathy over the woes of a gentlemanlike highwayman. Bulwer in return gazed with probably sincere reverence on a democrat of the study, whose abstract speculations had never been tested by any attempt to apply them to the politics of ordinary life.

As readers of Mr. Paul's admirable biography meditate on Godwin's career, the question presents itself, What is the explanation of Godwin's temporary celebrity and of his utter failure to achieve lasting renown or to maintain permanent influence ? Is it that his contemporaries were utterly mistaken in their estimate of his powers, or that the present generation have ungratefully forgotten the services of an original thinker ? Neither suggestion completely hits the mark. The knowledge of Godwin supplied by his biographer—and it is on this basis that the criticism contained in the present article rests—is sufficient to show that neither were men like Coleridge and Lamb utterly mistaken in their judgment, nor is the present age unjust in refusing to Godwin the fame conceded to many of his friends. He possessed considerable gifts. His natural logical acumen had been sharpened by his training as a Calvinistic divine. His style was lucid and impressive. His intellect, though narrow, was not devoid of strength ; his moral character, though wanting in breadth, was distinguished by intense earnestness and absolute honesty. Markedly deficient in originality and humor, he seized with intensity and expressed with clearness the democratic ideas of the time. He was exactly fitted to be the exponent of "extreme" rather than of advanced views. A student of Rousseau and Helvetius, he reproduced their ideas with the fervor of conviction and in the unmodified form which they naturally assumed in the writings of a logician who drew out of every premiss its most extreme conclusions, unhampered by the knowledge of men or the experience of life. He knew more of teaching than of any other profession, and was a successful though severe pedagogue ; yet when he wrote on education he forgot every dictate of experience. "No creature in human form will be expected" in the model state "to learn anything but because he desires it and has some conception of its utility, and every man in proportion to his capacity will be ready to furnish such general hints and comprehensive views as will suffice for the guidance . . . . of him who studies from a principle of desire." The writer who, having once taught any human being, could believe that a child should not be taught the "rule of three" till the young gentleman studies it from a principle of desire, exhibits the sternness of his logic but also gives the measure of his incapacity for testing theory by the facts of experience. One is not surprised to find that the writer of such a sentence constantly trusted to argument in cases where he ought to have trusted to sense, that he wished to reason away differences with his friends which arose from essential incompatibility of character, pronounced all laws bad and the law of marriage the worst of laws, and thereupon not only went through the marriage ceremony like any ordinary mortal, but expended a great deal of useless labor in the attempt to prove that his conduct exactly conformed to his theory.

This intense belief in logic, which is the palpable weakness of Godwin's intellect, contributed in no small degree to his immediate success. It made him the very type of what may be termed "extreme thinkers"—that is, thinkers who carry to their very extreme point views which, as the saying goes, "are in the air." Such men have a twofold immediate advantage. They are in reality the exponents of the current thought of their age, but they seem to themselves and others to be in advance of it. They derive their strength from real sympathy with the sentiment of their age, combined with a delusive appearance of anticipating the thoughts of the future. The position of Godwin may be best understood by comparison with that of a modern writer whose temporary fame was at least equal to the reputation of the author of 'Political Justice.' Mr. Buckle darted like Godwin into sudden reputation. The 'History of Civilization' seemed to many who read it eighteen years ago a revelation. It was the work of a thinker who, devoid of originality, expressed with perfect good faith and with considerable force some few of the predominant sentiments of his time. But even the most ardent admirer will now admit that the name of Buckle will soon be as completely forgotten as that of Godwin. Each author has failed of permanent influence from the same cause. Each was the honest exponent of some of the sentiments of his age. The sentiment changes, and the man who has given it expression thereupon loses his power. If any one wishes to see the difference between a theorist who merely holds extreme views and a writer who to a certain extent looks forward to the future, he should read the extracts given by Mr. Paul from Mary Wollstonecraft's 'Rights of Women.' Did we know nothing of the book but Mr. Paul's extracts, the one passage on female education would show that Godwin's wife had, whatever her intellectual defects, that touch of genius or insight denied to her husband.

But though Godwin's influence is dead, Godwin well deserved the fame which may be given him by the present excellent biography. It is appropriately called 'William Godwin : his Friends and Contemporaries.' It is from his connection with men and women of genius and originality that his memory will live. He must have been one of the most trying of friends, but he certainly was one of the truest. He revived in the modern world that high classical estimate of friendship which, unfortunately, is nearly forgotten. Akin to his devotion to his friends was his infinite sympathy with the intellectual wants and desires of young men. There is something noble in the zeal with which, to the very end of his life, Godwin devoted himself to the young. If he had the faults he had also the virtues of a schoolmaster. He was an affectionate father, but even in his dealings with his daughters he gives way to an affectation of stoical composure which betrays the pedantry of his intellect and conceals the warmth of his feeling. But in his treatment of young men he displays a wisdom, a magnanimity and calmness, which justify the admiration of youthful pupils for a revered teacher. The following reflections on the Revolution are striking as coming from Godwin and as being addressed to Shelley. The latter had urged with bitterness that nothing had been done "within these last twenty years," and Godwin replies by pointing to the irreparable evil which impatience had done to the cause of progress. "It is not after this fashion that moral causes work in the eye of him who looks profoundly through the vast and, allow me to add, venerable machine of human society. But so reasoned the French Revolutionists. Auspicious and admirable materials were working in the general mind of France. But these men said, as you say : 'When we look on the last twenty years, we are seized with a sort of moral scepticism ; we must own that we are eager that something should be done'—and see what has been the result of their doings ! He that would benefit mankind on a comprehensive scale, by changing the principle and elements of society, must learn the hard lesson to put off self and to contribute by a quiet but incessant activity, like a rill of water, to irrigate and fertilize the intellectual soil." This and similar passages from letters to young men explain how Godwin, after he had survived much of his reputation and many of his contemporaries, lived and deserved to live in the reverence of his friends.

CHARLES BAUDELAIRE.*

As a brief discussion was carried on in these pages some months since touching the merits of the writer whose name we have prefixed to these lines, it may not be amiss to introduce him to some of those readers who must have observed the contest with little more than a vague sense of the strangeness of its subject. Charles Baudelaire is not a novelty in literature ; his principal work dates from 1857, and his career terminated a few years later. But his admirers have made a classic of him and elevated him to the rank of one of those subjects which are always in order. Even if we differ with them on this point, such attention as Baudelaire demands will not lead us very much astray. He is not, in quantity (whatever he may have been in quality), a formidable writer ; having died young, he was not

* 'Les Fleurs du Mal. Par Charles Baudelaire. Précédé d'une Notice par Théophile Gautier.' Paris : Michel Lévy ; New York : F. W. Christern. 1875.

prolific, and the most noticeable of his original productions are contained in two small volumes.

His celebrity began with the publication of 'Les Fleurs du Mal,' a collection of verses some of which had already appeared in periodicals. The *Revue des Deux Mondes* had taken the responsibility of introducing a few of them to the world—or rather, though it held them at the baptismal font of public opinion, it declined to stand godfather. An accompanying note in the *Revue* disclaimed all editorial approval of their morality. This of course procured them a good many readers; and when, on its appearance, the volume we have mentioned was overhauled by the police, a still greater number of persons desired to possess it. Yet in spite of the service rendered him by the censorship, Baudelaire has never become in any degree popular; the lapse of twenty years has seen but five editions of 'Les Fleurs du Mal.' The foremost feeling of the reader of the present day will be one of surprise, and even amusement, at Baudelaire's audacities having provoked this degree of scandal. The world has travelled fast since then, and the French censorship must have been, in the year 1857, in a very prudish mood. There is little in 'Les Fleurs du Mal' to make the reader of either French or English prose and verse of the present day even open his eyes. We have passed through the fiery furnace and profited by experience. We are like Racine's heroine, who had

"Su se faire un front qui ne rougit jamais."

Baudelaire's verses do not strike us as being dictated by a spirit of bravado—though we have heard that, in talk, it was his habit, to an even tiresome degree, to cultivate the quietly outrageous—to pile up monstrosities and blasphemies without winking, and with the air of uttering proper commonplaces.

'Les Fleurs du Mal' is evidently a sincere book—so far as anything for a man of Baudelaire's temper and culture could be sincere. Sincerity seems to us to belong to a range of qualities with which Baudelaire and his friends were but scantily conversant. His great quality was an inordinate cultivation of the sense of the picturesque, and his care was for how things looked, and whether some kind of imaginative amusement was not to be got out of them, much more than for what they meant and whither they led, and what was their use in human life at large. The later editions of 'Les Fleurs du Mal' (with some of the interdicted pieces still omitted and others, we believe, restored) contain a long preface by Théophile Gautier, which throws a curious side-light upon what the Spiritualist newspapers would call Baudelaire's "mentality." Of course Baudelaire is not to be held accountable for what Gautier says of him, but we cannot help judging a man in some degree by the company he keeps. To admire Gautier is certainly excellent taste, but to be admired by Gautier we cannot but regard as rather compromising. He gives a magnificently picturesque account of the author of 'Les Fleurs du Mal,' in which, indeed, the question of pure veracity is evidently so very subordinate that it seems grossly ill-natured for us to appeal to such a standard. While we are reading him, however, we find ourselves wishing that Baudelaire's analogy with him were either greater or less. Gautier was perfectly sincere, because he dealt only with the picturesque, and pretended to care only for appearances. But Baudelaire (who, to our mind, was an altogether inferior genius to Gautier) applied the same process of interpretation to things as regards which it was altogether inadequate; so that one is constantly tempted to suppose he cares more for his process—for making grotesquely-pictorial verse—than for the things themselves. On the whole, as we have said, this inference would be unfair. Baudelaire had a certain groping sense of the moral complexities of life, and if the best that he succeeds in doing is to drag them down into the very turbid element in which he himself plashes and flounders, and there present them to us much besmirched and bespattered, this was not a want of goodwill in him, but rather a dulness and permanent immaturity of vision. For American readers, furthermore, Baudelaire is compromised by his having made himself the apostle of our own Edgar Poe. He translated, very carefully and exactly, all of Poe's prose writings, and, we believe, some of his very valueless verses. With all due respect to the very original genius of the author of the 'Tales of Mystery,' it seems to us that to take him with more than a certain degree of seriousness is to lack seriousness one's self. An enthusiasm for Poe is the mark of a decidedly primitive stage of reflection. Baudelaire thought him a profound philosopher, the neglect of whose golden utterances stamped his native land with infamy. Nevertheless, Poe was vastly the greater charlatan of the two, as well as the greater genius.

'Les Fleurs du Mal' was a very happy title for Baudelaire's verses, but it is not altogether a just one. Scattered flowers incontestably do bloom in the quaking swamps of evil, and the poet who does not mind encountering bad odors in his pursuit of sweet ones is quite at liberty to go in search of them. But Baudelaire has, as a general thing, not plucked the flowers—he has plucked the evil-smelling weeds (we take it that he did not use the word flowers in a purely ironical sense), and he has often taken up mere cupfuls of mud and bog-water. He had said to himself that it was a great shame that the realm of evil and unclean things should be fenced off from the domain of poetry; that it was full of subjects, of chances and effects; that it had its light and shade, its logic and its mystery; and that there was the making of some capital verses in it. So he leaped the barrier, and was soon immersed in it up to his neck. Baudelaire's imagination was of a melancholy and sinister kind, and, to a considerable extent, this plunging into darkness and dirt was doubtless very spontaneous and disinterested. But he strikes us on the whole as passionless, and this, in view of the unquestionable pluck and acuteness of his fancy, is a great pity. He knew evil not by experience, not as something within himself, but by contemplation and curiosity, as something outside of himself, by which his own intellectual agility was not in the least discomposed, rather, indeed (as we say his fancy was of a dusky cast), agreeably flattered and stimulated. In the former case, Baudelaire, with his other gifts, might have been a great poet. But, as it is, evil for him begins outside and not inside, and consists primarily of a great deal of lurid landscape and unclean furniture. This is an almost ludicrously puerile view of the matter. Evil is represented as an affair of blood and carrion and physical sickness—there must be stinking corpses and starving prostitutes and empty laudanum bottles in order that the poet shall be effectively inspired.

A good way to embrace Baudelaire at a glance is to say that he was, in his treatment of evil, exactly what Hawthorne was not—Hawthorne, who felt the thing at its source, deep in the human consciousness. Baudelaire's infinitely slighter volume of genius apart, he was a sort of Hawthorne reversed. It is the absence of this metaphysical quality in his treatment of his favorite subjects (Poe was his metaphysician, and his devotion sustained him through a translation of 'Eureka!') which exposes him to that class of accusations of which M. Edmond Schérer's talk about his feeding upon *pourriture* is an example; and, in fact, in his pages we never know with what we are dealing. We encounter an inextricable confusion of sad emotions and vile things, and we are at a loss to know whether the subject pretends to appeal to our conscience or—we were going to say—to our olfactories. "*Le Mal?*" we exclaim; "you do yourself too much honor. This is not Evil; it is not the wrong; it is simply the nasty!" Our impatience is of the same order as that which we should feel if a poet, pretending to pluck "the flowers of good," should come and present us, as specimens, a rhapsody on plum-cake and on cologne-water. Independently of the question of his subjects, the charm of Baudelaire's verse is often of a very high order. He belongs to the class of geniuses in whom we ourselves find but a limited pleasure—the laborious, deliberate, economical writers, those who fumble a long time in their pockets before they bring out their hand with a coin in the palm. But the coin, when Baudelaire at last produced it, was often of a high value. He had an extraordinary verbal instinct and an exquisite felicity of epithet. We cannot help wondering, however, at Gautier's extreme admiration for his endowment in this direction; it is the admiration of the writer who flows for the writer who trickles. In one point Baudelaire is extremely remarkable—in his talent for suggesting associations. His epithets seem to have come out of old cupboards and pockets; they have a kind of magical mustiness. Moreover, his natural sense of the superficial picturesqueness of the miserable and the unclean was extremely acute; there may be a difference of opinion as to the advantage of possessing such a sense; but whatever it is worth, Baudelaire had it in a high degree. One of his poems—"To a red-haired Beggar Girl"—is a masterpiece in the way of graceful expression of this high relish of what is shameful:

"Pour moi, poëte chétif,
Ton jeune corps maladif,
Plein de taches de rousseur,
A sa douceur."

Baudelaire repudiated with indignation the charge that he was what is called a realist, and he was doubtless right in doing so. He had too much fancy to adhere strictly to the real; he always embroiders and elaborates and endeavors to impart that touch of strangeness and mystery which is the very *raison d'être* of poetry. Baudelaire was a poet, and for a poet to be a realist is of course nonsense. The idea which Baudelaire imported into his theme was, as a general thing, an intensification of its repulsiveness, but it was at any rate ingenious. When he makes an invocation to "la Débauche aux bras immondes," one may be sure he means more by it than is evident to the vulgar—he means, that is, an intenser perversity. Occasionally he treats agreeable subjects, and his least sympathetic critics must make a point of admitting that his most successful poem is also his most wholesome

and most touching: we allude to "Les Petites Vieilles"—a really masterly production. But if it represents the author's maximum, it is a note which he very rarely struck.

Baudelaire, of course, is a capital text for a discussion of the question as to the importance of the morality—or of the subject-matter in general—of a work of art; for he offers a rare combination of technical zeal and patience and of vicious sentiment. But even if we had space to enter upon such a discussion, we should spare our words, for argument on this point wears to our sense a simply ridiculous aspect. To deny the relevancy of subject-matter and the importance of the moral quality of a work of art strikes us as, in two words, ineffably puerile. We do not know what the great moralists would say about the matter—they would probably treat it very good-humoredly; but that is not the question. There is very little doubt what the great artists would say. These geniuses feel that the whole thinking man is one, and that to count out the moral element in one's appreciation of an artistic total is exactly as sane as it would be (if the total is a poem) to eliminate all the words in three syllables, or to consider only such portions of it as were written by candlelight. The crudity of sentiment of the advocates of "art for art" is often a striking example of the fact that a great deal of what is called culture may fail to dissipate a well-seated provincialism of spirit. They talk of morality as Miss Edgeworth's infantine heroes and heroines talk of "physic"—they allude to its being put in and kept out of a work of art, put in and kept out of one's appreciation of the same, as if it were a colored fluid kept in a big-labelled bottle in some mysterious intellectual closet. It is in reality simply a part of the essential richness of inspiration—it has nothing to do with the artistic process, and it has everything to do with the artistic effect. The more a work of art feels it at its source, the richer it is; the less it feels it, the poorer it is. People of a large taste prefer rich works to poor ones, and they are not inclined to assent to the assumption that the process is the whole work. We are safe in believing that all this is comfortably clear to most of those who have, in any degree, been initiated into art by production. For them the subject is as much a part of their work as their hunger is a part of their dinner. Baudelaire was not so far from being of this way of thinking as some of his admirers would persuade us; yet we may say on the whole that he was the victim of a grotesque illusion. He tried to make fine verses on ignoble subjects, and in our opinion he signally failed. He gives, as a poet, a perpetual impression of discomfort and pain. He went in search of corruption, and the ill-conditioned jade proved a thankless muse. The thinking reader, feeling himself, as a critic, all one, as we have said, finds the beauty perverted by the ugliness. What the poet wished, doubtless, was to seem to be always in the poetic attitude; what the reader sees is a gentleman in a painful-looking posture, staring very hard at a mass of things from which we more intelligently avert our heads.

CAROLINE HERSCHEL.*

SIR WILLIAM HERSCHEL was by far the most widely-known philosopher of his day in England. His works were of the kind likely to command attention, and from the time of his discovery of *Uranus* in 1781 until his death in 1822 his fame was known of all men. It is somewhat singular in view of these facts that probably there is not a great name in English science of which so little is known in the way of biographical details. Several sketches of his life are extant, notably the *éloges* of Fourier and Arago, but these are quite unsatisfactory. There is even no collection of his complete works in English, a want which is severely felt, and, so far as we know, there is only one complete collection of his papers and memoirs, and this was made after his death by his son and presented to the elder Struve at Pulkova.

Students of his wonderful series of memoirs in the 'Philosophical Transactions' of the Royal Society of London could acquire a knowledge of his scientific life and development; but it has seemed until lately that the time had gone by to expect a true history of the man himself, based on those intimate and personal details which are known only to a generation which has passed away. The life is not yet written; but it is fortunate that we now have in the memoirs of his youngest sister Caroline, who from the very commencement of his astronomical activity was his constant assistant and intimate companion, a series of the most familiar letters and a diary of daily events as well as fragments of recollections which cover the most important years of his life. It is not only that these memoirs are of interest in relation to the history of Herschel himself, but they give to the world a new friend in the person of Caroline Herschel, a friend of whom it would not willingly remain ignorant.

The Herschel family lived in Hanover in mean circumstances; the father, a musician of some note, was in the band of the Guards, and he trained his sons to be musicians like himself, so that in 1755, when the Guards were ordered to England, the father and his sons, Jacob and William, went with them. William was at this time seventeen years old, and his sister Caroline, who was left in Hanover, was but five. After their return to Hanover in 1757 the health of William was so poor that it was decided to "remove him" from the service.* This having been accomplished with some difficulty, William Herschel soon found himself (1772) established at Bath as organist to the Octagon Chapel. Here he led an active and successful life, composing anthems, chants, and whole services for the choir under his management, but devoting every spare moment of the day and many hours stolen from the night to the study of languages and of astronomy.

In the midst of his busy life at Bath, his sister joined him, sharing with him his manifold pursuits, copying the scores of oratorios for an orchestra of one hundred performers, aiding him in the making of reflecting-telescopes, singing in concerts under his direction, and now, as always, devoted heart and soul to all that could advance his cause or make him happy. In 1781 William Herschel discovered a new planet, Georgium Sidus, and from that moment his life was entirely devoted to astronomy. He gave up his lucrative calling at Bath, and became Royal Astronomer, on a salary of £200 a year, and, after a short residence at Datchet and Clay Hall, he finally settled at Slough, near Windsor, which was his home for the remainder of his life. Here he lived in his observatory, with his faithful sister as his assistant, and to the activity of these years his long series of classic memoirs bears witness. As Arago says: "We may confidently assert, relative to the little house and garden of Slough, that it is the spot of all the world where the greatest number of discoveries has been made. The name of that village will never die; science will transmit it religiously to the latest posterity." All that is known of him henceforth is learned through his sister's letters and diary. He was constant in "minding the heavens," observing, as was his constant habit, "every night until daybreak," and only leaving his work for a few weeks in summer and to go [to the Royal Society meetings. Even then he was only absent on the moonlight nights when his work would not suffer by the interruption.

In every way his sister Caroline was his constant helper; it was she who recorded the results of his sweeps—who stood, note-book in hand, by the clock to reduce his observations to writing. It was she who copied them out in full on the succeeding day, bringing order out of what would otherwise have been chaos. In the intervals of work she had her own comet-sweeper, with which she independently discovered *eight* comets. The Royal Society published two of her communications, and she was named Assistant Astronomer by the King, and granted a salary; yet her modest estimate of her own performance never changes: "My only reason for saying so much of myself is to show with what miserable assistance my brother made shift to obtain the means of exploring the heavens." And again: "I did nothing for my brother but what a well-trained puppy-dog would have done. I was a mere tool that he had the trouble of sharpening." As Lady Herschel says of her: "One all-sufficing reward sweetened her labors—'I had the comfort to see that my brother was satisfied with my endeavors in assisting him.'" Under the influence of his inspiring example, she acquired ardor and enthusiasm *as a habit*, and in her old age she writes to her nephew, Sir John Herschel, when she hears of his proposed journey to the Cape of Good Hope: "Ja! if I was thirty or forty years junger, and could go too? in Gottes nahmen!"

She contented herself for many years after her brother's death in her old home in Hanover as well as she could, pining all the while for something, she hardly knew what. Learned societies honored her with their membership, and the work of her declining years, a complete reduction of all the nebulæ observations made at Slough, was rewarded by the gold medal of the Royal Astronomical Society. In all this she retained her simplicity—"What is *that* for?" was her question to every new honor. Her delight was to hear of the astronomical work doing in the world, and to see the men who were doing it. She had always the greatest incredulity as to the performance of Lord Rosse's great reflector: "It was not like the forty-foot," her brother's masterpiece.

Lady Herschel has done the world a service in giving it these letters, and no one can put them down without feeling that he has looked on the inner recesses of a noble life.

* 'Memoir and Correspondence of Caroline Herschel. By Mrs. John Herschel.' With portraits. London: John Murray; New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1876.

* Thus in the Memoirs. Sir George Airy, however, in a letter to the *Academy*, says that he learned from the late Duke of Sussex that it was a case of desertion, which was formally pardoned by the king at Herschel's first interview with him.

THE *NORTH AMERICAN REVIEW* FOR APRIL.

THE two articles in the current number of the *North American* of most general interest are Mr. Wells's on local taxation, and Mr. Lewis H. Morgan's on "Montezuma's Dinner." Taxation, as Mr. Wells observes, has only since the war taken up much of the thoughts and time of the American public. Only one work of any importance relating to local taxation was published in the United States down to 1870. Since that time this branch of literature has been steadily growing. That there should be a steady increase of interest in this subject is not remarkable, when we recollect that the system of taxation generally in vogue in this country is so antique and barbarous that in other civilized nations it has long since been out of date. No such system is in use in Great Britain or France or Germany, and, curiously enough, even in this country, in the case of taxes for the General Government, there is an approximation to a civilized scheme, while in local taxation the time-honored practice of taxing everything—persons, property, debts, and credits, wherever they can be found—is still kept up; and, by the help of inquisitorial processes handed down from the Middle Ages, and the free exercise of the sovereign right of confiscation, the tax-gatherer ekes out ways and means to carry on the State and town and city governments. Mr. Wells, in searching for some parallel system to ours, is unable to find any short of that which was in existence in France a hundred years before the Revolution, and which then led to such unpleasant consequences. It will probably surprise Mr. Thomas Hills—the faithful Boston patriot who goes on year after year proving to his own satisfaction, if to nobody else's, that the plan of making everything out of which a tax can be squeezed pay a tax is the only fair and just one, that taxes on mortgages are not double taxes, and that taxes are paid not by the consumer but by the person to whom they are assessed—to learn that a system very much like his, and supportable only by such theories as his, caused such dissatisfaction and "unpleasant feeling" in France a hundred years ago that most of the persons concerned in the collection of the taxes were driven out of the kingdom, the government upset, the king and queen beheaded, and such a disturbance in general created that Europe hardly recovered from it after twenty years of bloody warfare. There is, to be sure, no reason to apprehend bloodshed in this country or a popular demand for the head of Mr. Thomas Hills, for there are important differences between our system of local taxation and that of France under the old régime. The taxes then were in general commutations in money for some feudal personal services, and bore with frightful weight upon a country in which the feudal system was really a thing of the past, and in which the subject got no longer any return either for services or their money equivalent. In our case the barbarous system we insist upon is simply the result of popular ignorance and inattention, in a country in which the people themselves determine both how much they will be taxed and how the money shall be raised.

Mr. Morgan, in his paper on "Montezuma's Dinner," goes over ground that is familiar to every child who has gloated over the fairy tales of the Spanish conquest of Mexico in the pages of Robertson and his successors, and undertakes to show that from the day when Cortes landed down to the day of the publication of Mr. H. H. Bancroft's 'Native Races of the Pacific States,' there has been a total misconception and misrepresentation of the condition of civilization which the Spaniards found in Mexico. Mr. Morgan, the author of a learned work on 'Systems of Consanguinity,' approaches the subject as an ethnologist, and first asks, not what do the Spaniards, fond as they were of bombast and extravagance and anxious as they must have been to magnify their own exploits, say they found in Mexico, but what was it antecedently possible that they could find there? If ethnology gives an answer to this question, we shall clearly be in a position to weigh the Spanish evidence, and determine what part of it is probably true or what untrue. Now, ethnology does give us the answer we need, for it explains that the Aztecs were simply Indians who had raised themselves to a higher level of barbarism—not civilization—than the other tribes; that they must have had a family, gentile, and tribal organization; that they lived in a community, that they had one communal meal a day; and that there is not the remotest possibility that they can have had anything like a European court, with a king and nobles and retainers. The materials out of which the chroniclers have constructed their marvellous tales of Montezuma's court were simply these: A confederacy of Indian tribes, with chiefs at the head, living in communities, or as Mr. Morgan calls them joint-tenement houses, and having in each house one common meal. It is certainly creditable to the human imagination that on this slender superstructure should have been reared an edifice in which (we follow Mr. Bancroft) "from sunrise to sunset . . . six hundred noblemen and gentlemen . . . passed their time (in the antechambers) lounging about and discussing the gossip of the day in low tones," while the outer courts were filled with "retainers" to the number of two or three thousand; in which we find goblets of gold and silver, elaborate dinners made by "cunning cooks,' chafing-dishes, "four hundred pages of noble birth," a "steward," "aged lords," and a great quantity of other feudal properties and characters that would have seemed to the democratic Aztecs rather out of place.

Mr. Charles Hale, formerly Consul-General of the United States, contributes a paper on the Consular System of the United States. This branch of the public service is almost the only one which has been taken "out of politics"—an act of Congress providing against removals except for cause. *A priori*, we might expect to find the following results: small salaries and rigid supervision of expenses, faithfulness and skill in the service itself, and a disposition in Congress, whenever bent on economy, to cut down the Consular Appropriation Bill, in a rage of virtue. We find all these things in actual practice. The Consular service is, perhaps, the least expensive branch of the Government; twenty years ago there was an annual deficiency of a hundred and forty thousand dollars to be provided for; now there is an actual surplus of a hundred and forty-eight thousand; a comparison with the British service, the only one with which any comparison can be made, shows ours to be self-supporting, while the English Government finds an annual deficiency of $600,000 to be met. This might show either that England pays too much, or that we pay too little, but there is independent evidence that the latter alternative is probably the correct explanation. The salaries we pay are decidedly small, none being over $6,000; there are only seven posts which yield more than $4,000; while all the fees collected by salaried consuls are returned into the Treasury, and the remainder barely support the consuls who have no salaries. But besides this the allowances for clerk-hire and office-rent are made on a scale that in some cases may be called parsimonious, the law requiring, also, for every item regular vouchers:

"There is an infinity of detail involving expense to a consul for which no provision is now made, often in matters insignificant in themselves and not pleasant to talk about. For instance, no American citizen who has occasion to visit a consulate abroad, likes to see the windows dirty and the floor covered with filth. But who does he suppose ought to have washed the windows or swept out the office in the morning? The Government does not allow a cent for any such expense. It would appear to be the theory of the Government that the consul should wash his own windows and sweep his own office, on Jefferson's principle, that one is sure a thing is well done when he does it himself. Even clerk-hire is allowed but at few places; a charge for anything like a porter or messenger would startle the accounting-officers at Washington like Oliver Twist's demand for a second helping of soup. So, also, the visiting citizen is probably pleased to find the consular office warmed in winter; and if it is open in the evening (as very many are kept open for the convenience of travellers, or at certain times, at seaports, for the convenience of shipmasters) it ought to be lighted; but no allowance for fuel or lights would pass in an account. Prior to 1852, indeed, consuls were expected to pay themselves for the paper on which they wrote their despatches and the pens with which they wrote them. Mr. Donald G. Mitchell (Ik Marvel), in his amusing account of his experiences as consul at Venice, attributes the allowance by the Government of charges for official stationery to Mr. Edward Everett's brief term of service as Secretary of State. But even now the consul must pay for the table on which he places his inkstand and paper, and (if not for the chair in which he sits himself) for the chairs in which the people sit who come to see him on business. Bookcases are the only articles of office furniture allowed to consular officers at Government expense; and of these only one at a time. We have known of consuls ingenious enough to construct a plan of a bookcase that would also serve as a table or desk to write upon; but to make a set of chairs of any article that could be vouched for as a bookcase we believe has baffled even consular ingenuity."

It may be seen from this, not what would be the effect upon the consular system of a thoroughgoing reform of the civil service, but what is the actual effect of having a civil service generally unreformed, with here and there a little bit like the one in question removed from the influence of patronage and rotation. The politicians proper, or rather the demagogues in Congress, look upon it as a sort of *corpus vile* upon which any experiment in the way of retrenchment and "lightening the burdens of taxation" may be made, and accordingly we find the Democrats now engaged in an attack on the consuls, who, so far from being wasteful or extravagant, are now actually doing what very few of its other servants are—making money for the Government.

"Dr. Cutler and the Ordinance of 1787" is not a very attractive title for an historical article, inasmuch as the reader has never perhaps heard of Dr. Manasseh Cutler, and has heard or thinks he has heard once too often the sounding of the praises of that monument of statesmanship, the Ordinance for the government of the territory northwest of the Ohio River. But Mr. William Frederick Poole contrives to give new interest to this

well-worn subject, though what he has to tell is not wholly new. Readers of the 'History of Athens County, Ohio,' know that the Ordinance (which was taken almost bodily from the Massachusetts constitution) was not the work of Thomas Jefferson, nor yet of Nathan Dane, who gained the credit of it from being one of the committee which drafted it, but of Dr. Manasseh Cutler of Ipswich, Massachusetts, a doctor of law, of divinity and medicine, a member of many learned societies, an astronomer and botanist of no mean rank, a friend of Franklin and Rush, and withal, as appears by his success with the Continental Congress, an accomplished lobbyist and what would now be called a "promoter" of enterprises. The passage of the Ordinance had its origin in a land speculation got up by Dr. Cutler and his friends, their object being to induce the Government to sell them a quantity of Western lands in exchange for depreciated Government paper, of which there was at the close of the Revolution a glut in the market. The Government had an obvious interest in having the lands opened and the paper retired, while on the other hand the scheme must have promised very considerable profits. Dr. Cutler went in person to New York, pushed the Ordinance through a committee which he appears to have got appointed himself, and finally, with the aid of the Southern States, through Congress. In this way the Southerners were the means of adding to the Union the States of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, and Wisconsin, prohibiting slavery within their limits by the terms of the Ordinance, and so, without meaning it, creating the basis for the growth of a power at the West which was necessarily to end in the doom of slavery in its own home.

Besides the book-notices (which contain two interesting reviews of Tyndall on 'Sound' and Darwin's 'Insectivorous Plants'), the present number of the *Review* also has an article by Isaac F. Redfield on Chief-Justice Chase which, if it had appeared anywhere else, we should have said was unmitigated twaddle. Unfortunately for the writer (though fortunately for the other contributors), the principle *noscitur a sociis* does not necessarily apply in the case of contributors to quarterly reviews.

The Natural History and Antiquities of Selborne. By Gilbert White, with Notes by Frank Buckland; A Chapter on Antiquities by Lord Selborne; and New Letters. Illustrated by P. H. Delamotte. (New York: Macmillan. 1875. 8vo.)—That books have their fates is an old saw that lacks not for modern illustration. In English literature there are two that have had a fortune of their own, setting them apart from all others and conferring immortality upon them in spite of all likelihood and expectation. These are Walton's 'Compleat Angler' and White's 'Natural History of Selborne.' Both have found readers and lovers far beyond the narrow circle of adepts, and of both one edition treads close upon the heels of another. We can recall no books in any language precisely similar that give us Nature unsophisticate as yet with metaphysics, no mysterious mother, but a companion, and Science with so agreeable an infusion of the author's personal qualities as to bring it within the easy reach of human sympathy. These two men had the luck or the wit to stand as children at the knees of Wisdom, and to feel a pure delight in simple things without preaching it. They profess no special goodness of heart, but we cannot be long in their company without being sure that it is the base of character in both. Their books have the same hypæthral charm, the same confidingness of personal enthusiasm that makes originality; above all, the same gift of inspiring us with their own cheerful temper and harmless ambitions. Both Walton and White had the genius to be simple.

The 'Natural History of Selborne' is a striking illustration of Gray's remark "that any fool may write a most valuable book by chance if he will only tell us what he heard and saw with veracity." Not that Gilbert White was not the farthest possible from being a fool. Nor would Gray have thought him one, who himself philandered with his thermometer and kept a naturalist's calendar of his own. But the great merit of White's book is its want of intention to be a book at all, and the conscientiousness of its author as observer and reporter. Of his habitual punctuality we have an example in the volume before us. A facsimile of two successive entries in the parish register is given, one by White (then in his seventy-second year) recording on the tenth of June a burial of the same date, and one by his vicar, in which White's own burial is entered when it was already five days old. He was a good scholar after the elegant fashion of his day, which valued scholarship not for its pedantic niceties but for its civilizing associations and for being the most agreeable furniture of the mind. He was what in those days would have been called a very pretty poet, and wrote some descriptive verses as good as such things can be without a lift from the imagination. He considered the accomplishment of verse one of those to be acquired by a gentleman among the rest, like the Grand Tour. To his nephew, Samuel Barker, he writes that "a little turn for English poetry is no doubt a pretty accomplishment for a young gent, and will not only enable him the better to read and relish our best poets, but will, like dancing to the body, have an happy influence even on his prose compositions." There is something comic in this, but, on the whole, one's smile subsides into a sigh in thinking that the notion of polite training should seem so absurdly old-fashioned after the lapse of a century. The brief *ars poetica* which he sketches for his nephew shows knowledge and good taste. What was poetical in himself is mainly of the passive kind, making him shyly sensitive to the charms and caprices of the visible universe, and giving his prose a virtue of rural suggestiveness more easily felt than defined. More truly than with Thomson, you assist with him at the procession of the seasons; you hear the first adventurous bird; you are one of the gossips sent for when the earth lies-in of her earliest snowdrop; you smell the hay-cock which you do not see; you grow pensive when the falling leaves simulate awkwardly the winged creatures that are flown; you are isolated by the snow whose depth of drift gives a momentary importance to the oldest inhabitant. Nor is White without a humorous twinkle of the eye, observant of due clerical limits, and all the more mirthful for that, as where he speaks of the hen-sparrow "scandalized" at the size of the cuckoo's egg she is brooding, or describes the mobbing of the disabled hawk by the matrons of the poultry-yard. But the inadvertent humor of the book is perhaps its greatest charm. His interest in the placid competitions of the thermometer, beyond Ascot or Derby, his evident satisfaction in being able to say that two millers were struck dead by lightning as proving the severity of the storm, above all, his intense Selbornianism, are inexhaustibly entertaining.

The moral of this book is not the least of its qualities, and it is both high and profitable. It shows how much may be made out of the most secluded life if one only have the wit to be content with it, and how sincerity and enthusiasm may widen the narrowest sphere into relations of permanent interest with the world. Nor even as an unconscious satire does it fail to give us some pertinent intimations. How many warriors, statesmen, philosophers, and poets, who then shook the dust of their awful periwigs into the eyes of a world at gaze, have gone utterly to nothing, while White's inarticulate parishioners keep as fresh in the memories of men as the heroes of Plutarch! A great deal of what is palmed off upon us as history is purely fictitious, because the actors in it are themselves fictions and not solid men, while in White's little commonwealth every meanest member has the antique sincerity of nature. There is something ineffably consoling in the sight of a man so happy through Seven Years' Wars, dismemberments of empires, and French Revolutions, and happy, too, not through a selfish indifference but through wholesome sympathies with innocent and perdurable things.

The edition before us is certainly a handsome one, though not so easy to handle as our old favorite of 1802. The new letters, though few in number, are interesting and characteristic, and the illustrations pertinent and good. But we cannot say that Mr. Buckland altogether answers to our notion as an ideal editor. The prime quality, that of enthusiasm for his subject, he certainly has, but it is an enthusiasm without judgment which calls White the "father of English natural history." What is called the "Memoir of White" is provokingly full of everything but what we want to know, and one finds himself wishing that Mr. Buckland had learned something of the reserve of the fishes for whom he has done such good service. As one of the interesting facts of White's life, he informs us that Queen Anne died in 1714, six years before he was born. And he tells us gravely that the Vicar of Newton Valence "pointed out to me by means of an old army list of March 15, 1786, who the Honorable Daines Barrington was"! From the same gentleman he "learnt that the late Bishop Wilberforce had been a frequent visitor at Newton Valence," and then follows half a page about that clever prelate. Had White been as much concerned with the natural history of bishops as too many of his contemporaries were, he would long ago have gone back to dust with them. We confess that we should have been gladder to know what White's income was than that Mr. Buckland was born "in Christ Church College, Oxford, December 17, 1826," though no doubt to *him* this event was of some consequence. The notes, also, strike us as too discursive, and like the emptying of a naturalist's note-book. It is one of the great charms of White's book that it is not natural history in general, but that of Selborne in particular, and we resent being importuned with facts, however interesting in themselves, that drag us from the seclusion of that happy valley.

English Constitutional History. A Text-book for Students and others. By Thomas P. Taswell-Langmead, B.C.L., late Vinerian Scholar in the University of Oxford, of Lincoln's Inn, Barrister-at-law. (London: Stevens & Haynes. 1875. 8vo, pp. 736.)—For the history of the English constitution we have three standard works, which, taken together, present a nearly complete and continuous discussion of the subject: the Constitutional Histories of Stubbs, Hallam, and May. But a treatise at once brief and complete, with a unity of plan covering the entire ground, and containing the results of the latest scholarship, was very much needed. This want Mr. Taswell-Langmead has undertaken to supply, and, we are glad to say, with complete success. He does not lay claim to any originality in material or treatment, professing to have done nothing but compile from the three treatises above-mentioned; and so frankly is this plan carried out that not only do we find constant references to them and citations from them in the foot-notes, but entire pages in the text are literally quoted from them with the use of inverted commas; nay, at times we have almost their exact language, varying only so much as not to pass precisely as a quotation (*e.g.*, from Stubbs, p. 103, and from Hallam, p. 175). This is done, however, so openly and with such full acknowledgment that a charge of plagiarism would be out of the question. Nevertheless, in spite of the disclaimer of originality and the numerous quotations, not only from these writers, but from others—Bagehot, Green, Freeman, Macaulay, Forster, etc.—the book is far from following its authorities slavishly; its author has thoroughly digested their contents and made a book which is completely his own. He knows how to select materials and how to use them to advantage when selected. For example, the arrangement is entirely original, and is a very excellent one. He has especially had in mind the requirements of class instruction, and with a view to this use he has introduced the entire text of the three most important documents in English constitutional history—the Magna Charta, the Petition of Right, and the Bill of Rights.

Mr. Taswell-Langmead's professional training as a lawyer is the source of one high qualification for this work. His legal definitions are conspicuous for clearness and exactness; for example, in giving the two elements of feudalism (p. 53), where, after describing the personal element of vassalage, he goes on: "(2) The holding of the usufruct (*dominium utile*) of land on the condition of rendering military service, the ultimate property (*dominium directum*) remaining in the lord, the grantor." Where the complete text of documents is not given, we have admirable analyses of their contents; the "Constitutions of Clarendon" (p. 90) afford a striking example of this excellence. The arrangement, which, as we have said, is the author's own, combines the advantages of the chronological and the topical order. It is in general chronological. The first four chapters and the last six are strictly so; between these are interposed six chapters, which are mainly topical, upon the "Administrative System," the "Succession to the Crown," and the "History of Parliament." For the middle period—the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, which are treated principally in these topical chapters—the author is under the disadvantage that he wrote before the appearance of Prof. Stubbs's second volume, so that this part of his work is on the whole the least satisfactory. Towards the end, also, the growing dimensions of his book appear to have frightened him into a less full treatment than, relatively to the earlier periods, would have been desirable. The period of the Commonwealth is hardly touched upon; Strafford's career is inadequately treated—his policy of "Thorough" is not even mentioned; and, what is unaccountable, no account is given of the results of his impeachment. The student is left to suppose that, if executed at all (which is nowhere stated), it was after conviction upon impeachment, and not by bill of attainder. The "Incident" (p. 558) need not have been mentioned at all in a work like this, but, if mentioned, the term ought surely to be explained. We find some confusion in the use of the terms Great Council and *Curia Regis*, even in view of the definitions of the latter term given in the note to p. 151—as equivalent to 1, the *Commune Concilium*; 2, the *Ordinarium Concilium*; and 3, the *Court of King's Bench*. Undoubtedly in the twelfth century its special use is as "a perpetual committee of the national council" (Stubbs), for administrative and judicial purposes. This was, in a constitutional point of view, precisely the equivalent of the *Concilium Ordinarium*, or Privy Council; but *historically* the two bodies had no connection with each other, but were independent offshoots of the same body, the *Commune Concilium* (the representative of the Anglo-Saxon Witenagemot). As the Great Council became distinctly a feudal court, the *Curia Regis* was detached from it, and became the source of the common-law courts; later, the permanent (Ordinary) Council was likewise detached, and became the source of the Privy Council and the Court of Chancery, while the *Commune Concilium* itself was transformed from a feudal court to a Parliament or Assembly of Estates. This is one of the points in which we miss the influence of the second volume of Stubbs (p. 255).

The subject of the peasantry and its relation to the constitution—one in regard to which Mr. Hallam was still quite in the dark—is discussed in a very satisfactory manner. Certain expressions of the law-writers of the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, borrowed from the civil law or the law of France, have given occasion to an exaggerated notion of the servitude of these classes in England—a notion quite inconsistent with the ascertained facts as to the structure of English society, even as modified by feudalism. The view here presented is essentially correct. There are still, however, one or two points which lack precision and clearness. As a result of the Norman Conquest, it is stated (p. 268) that "ceorls who had land for the most part retained it, either as 'libere tenentes' or as 'socmanni,'" etc., much as if one should say "noblemen or earls." The *socmanni* were a class of *libere tenentes*, being those who held of the lord of the manor by agricultural instead of military services, while other *libere tenentes* held by knights' service. Again, the *villein socage, privileged villenage*, or *customary freehold* (as it is indifferently called) of p. 272 was merely that privileged form of prædial serfdom which existed in the royal manors, or, as they are technically called, the manors in "ancient demesne."

We hope that some American publisher will make arrangements with Mr. Taswell-Langmead to bring out a cheaper edition of this excellent book, with such alterations as may be suggested to him by publications subsequent to his first edition. We know nothing so well adapted to the use of college classes.

A Grammar of the New Testament Greek. By Alexander Buttmann. Authorized Translation, with numerous additions and corrections by the author. (Andover: Warren F. Draper.)—The translator, who modestly withholds his name from the title-page, is J. H. Thayer, Professor of Greek in Andover Theological Seminary, already known as a translator from the German by his version of Winer's 'Grammar of the New Testament Diction,' to which the present work may be regarded as a supplement. The publication of Winer's 'Grammar' was an era in the history of exegesis and exegetical theology. Before this work appeared, theologians had known no restraint from eliciting from the Bible whatever teachings they chose, making their own doctrines the premises from which to deduce the interpretations of texts, instead of making the obvious sense of texts the premises from which to infer doctrines. A century ago, theologians used to pretend that the Greek prepositions and tenses were in the Scriptures used indiscriminately, and that we had a right to assume that one form was used for another whenever such assumption would adapt itself better to the opinion which we wished to corroborate. This loose usage Winer was the first to attack and check. In his 'Grammar' he proved by abundant instances that the writers of the New Testament, though not as accurate as the classical authors, did yet use language with ordinary propriety, and were incapable of the solecisms which theologians had attributed to them. Winer did a work which did not need to be done again; but, by very reason of the magnitude of his achievement, some of its details had to be ignored, and this is why we speak of Buttmann's work as supplementing his. For instance, Buttmann could afford to make more allowances than his predecessor to the usage which he was opposing, and conceded incipient departures from classic usage and traces of Latinisms, the mention of which by Winer would have disproportionately weakened his argument. Buttmann also adopts the habit of modern criticism in giving greater prominence than Winer to the influence of the Septuagint. We would not be understood as implying that Buttmann is more accurate than Winer, because, on the contrary, he shows a decided feebleness of discernment in distinguishing things that differ. As between the two books we should prefer to own Winer, yet the present work is useful from referring to several-fold more texts than Winer, and from the exhaustive indexes, four in number, which are appended to it. Prof. Thayer has added a glossary of technical terms, excellent as far as it goes. We should have inserted many other words, such as *ilacism, cacophony*, which occur in the text. It is made more valuable as a companion to Winer from the fact that whenever Buttmann refers to Winer the page of the latter is inserted doubly, once from the original German and again from Prof. Thayer's translation, which translation, by the way, has the advantage over all preceding translations in using the last (seventh) edition. All other translators of Winer have followed earlier editions—a matter of unusual importance in this department, owing to the fruitful labors of Tischendorf. Alexander Buttmann, let us add, should not be confounded with his father Philip Buttmann, author of the well-known classical grammar.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 4, 1876.

The Week.

THE Senate has been occupied in listening to the conclusion of Senator Jones's great speech on resumption and with the impeachment proceedings. General Belknap's counsel have tried without success to get a postponement, first to December and then for two weeks. They will have to argue the question of jurisdiction this week, and stories are now industriously circulated that the Senate will decide that it has not jurisdiction. The arguments, however, in favor of such a decision are so technical that we can hardly believe they will have much weight. The notion that because the process only applies to "civil officers of the United States," the Senate has no jurisdiction over persons who are out of office through resignation, is open to the serious objection that it renders the whole process nugatory, inasmuch as any officer can thus escape it and immediately be reappointed to office, although one of the objects of impeachment is to make such a result impossible. A President who had committed an impeachable offence might resign, and immediately run again for a second or third term, or, if that were not possible, take a seat in the very body which might have disqualified him for ever from holding office. In the sufficiently analogous case of a statute providing that conspiracies between gaugers and supervisors shall be punished by fine and imprisonment, we take it a court of justice would be greatly amused by a plea to the jurisdiction on the ground that the persons indicted had resigned their offices and were no longer supervisors or gaugers. Senator Jones, having gained the ear of the public, has been turning it to very good account, proving not merely that the "double standard" of gold and silver is the proper basis for resumption, but that resumption on a gold basis is "not practical, financially, metallurgically, internationally, or politically." It would require $350,000,000, and to get this we should need at least seven hundred years. "And even this cannot be done unless Austria, Italy, and Russia shall leave us to monopolize all the gold we need before they reform their own debased currency."

These calculations seem to make it advisable either to repeal the Resumption Act at once or to postpone the date mentioned in it at least as far as 2579 A.D. Notwithstanding this, the House has again refused even to repeal it by a vote of 115 to 111. The attempt was made by Mr. Holman, but failed from want of a two-thirds vote. The Senate having insisted on its amendments to the Deficiency and Diplomatic appropriation bills, both Houses have appointed conference committees. The House has also passed a resolution for the appointment of a committee of nine to investigate the Custom-House at New Orleans and other Federal offices in Louisiana. The Speaker has sustained an objection made by Mr. Seelye of Massachusetts to the clause of the legislative Appropriation Bill (which was subsequently passed) transferring the Indian Bureau to the War Department, on the ground that it was no proper part of an appropriation bill, and not germane to its general objects. This is an excellent decision, and will have the effect no doubt of spoiling the chances of many a nice little job which, not having strength enough to stand on its own feet, would have been jostled through both Houses in the rush of the last few days, and then would have obtained the President's signature, under the usual plea that unless he signed the bill the whole appropriation would fall through. The impossibility of vetoing separate parts of bills, while approving the rest, is a great inconvenience, and will always lead to trouble as long as it exists. A constitutional amendment has been introduced into Congress giving the President the right to the separate-clause veto (a power which the governors of this and we believe other States possess), but we ought not to have to wait for the passage of an amendment. It seems a pity that the Supreme Court does not recognize such a right on general principles. As the matter stands at present, a hostile Congress might, if it pleased, render the veto power almost useless by consolidating all its acts at a given session under one head, calling it all an Act to carry on the Government, and then demanding a veto or the passage of the whole. Mr. Blaine on Monday exploded the scandal with regard to his alleged connection with the Kansas Pacific road, by showing that he never had anything to do with the road at all, except in actively opposing it in Congress. The charge arose out of confusion between his name and that of his brother, J. E. Blaine, who invested money in the securities of the company.

In a vague way, it is given out from Washington that since April 20 less than $1,500,000 in small change has been put in circulation—how much less is not specified. At New York, the Sub-Treasurer has paid out less than $400,000. Small change of both descriptions (silver and paper) is at a premium of 3 to 5 per cent., and there is much inconvenience and no little grumbling. At Washington, the question is how to relieve what is called the small-change famine. Mr. New, the United States Treasurer, proposes that silver shall be issued for legal-tender notes, and then held for the redemption of fractional currency as it comes in. This is a good suggestion, and differs from the Bonanza proposition in that the latter would issue silver for fractional notes up to $50,000,000, and as much more as legal-tender notes could be obtained for. A bill to effect this object has been introduced, and is likely to pass. Mr. Boutwell proposes to reissue fractional notes. Senator Jones, it is said, has twenty men preparing a speech for him on the subject. In his last speech he expressed the opinion that the Comstock Lode mines were near exhaustion; this produced a panic in San Francisco, which was checked by the counter-statement of Mr. Flood, of the firm of Flood & O'Brien, at present the largest owners of mines on the Comstock Lode, that the mines "never looked better."

Hallett Kilbourn has been released on habeas corpus, Judge Cartter holding that two punishments—by the House for contempt, and by the courts for a misdemeanor—cannot go on together. It is not at all clear why they cannot, inasmuch as one process seems to reinforce the other. The House has the undoubted right to punish a contumacious witness, and, in addition to this, a statute has been passed making a contumacious refusal to answer a question a misdemeanor. There seems to be no reason why the House may not use both remedies. As the power to punish for contempt is an arbitrary power of undefined extent, we can see no reason why a statute of this kind, affixing a slight penalty, should take it away. The case is more important than it seems, for at the present time, with the air full of accusations of fraud and crime, and with so many of them turning out to be true, it is of the greatest consequence that no unnecessary obstacles shall be thrown in the way of the most searching investigation. An indictment for a refusal to answer a question furnishes no safeguard whatever, for many men who have heavy interests at stake will prefer to stand a trial and even suffer a slight punishment to answering a question, and often they will have it made for their interest to do so. What is wanted is a vague and unlimited power, with terrors for the imagination as well as the body and purse. The power of contempt, both in courts of justice and in legislative bodies, has generally answered this purpose, and we doubt if any other will.

The British Government has decided to release Winslow, and has announced that it will also release Gray, the Wall-Street swindler, and a third prisoner by the name of Brent, as soon as their term of arrest expires. This cannot but be regarded as a most lamentable break-down of justice, for which both governments are to blame. The object of extradition treaties is the suppression of crime, and, while every government has an interest in seeing that the process is not abused, there was no doubt in Winslow's case that there was substantially no room for abuse. The English Government could have easily satisfied themselves of this without requiring any guarantee of the United States, and the United States might at the same time have far better given the guarantee than let the prisoner escape. There would have been a good deal to be said had the Lawrence case never arisen, for the position of our Government is that, as the Treaty itself provides certain specified causes of surrender, it is to be presumed that we will not first demand a prisoner under the Treaty and then try him for some offence outside it. But, unfortunately, this is just what we have been doing in Lawrence's case. Lawrence has been on trial for an offence outside the Treaty, and the District-Attorney has been reprimanded for trying the indictment, while the judge has decided that the Treaty does not bind the court in any way, but that, having got possession of the prisoner, it may try him for any offence of which it has jurisdiction. There would, in the present state of affairs, be nothing surprising if Tweed should determine to pass the declining years of his life in London. Continual travel has probably not that attraction for him that it might have for a younger man, and, though he would perhaps be arrested at the instance of this Government, he could easily be released on the representations of his counsel that, though demanded as an offender against the criminal law, he was really the victim of a "political persecution." The State Department has given notice of the abrogation of the extradition clause of the Treaty.

On Thursday last the United States Treasury sold the $6,105,000 gold which it received for the $5,883,000 United States five per cent. bonds in which part of the *Alabama* Indemnity Fund had been invested. The average price obtained for this gold was 112 42, which made the currency price obtained for the bonds $118 07, or about ¾ below the current market price. Since the gold sale the price of gold has advanced to 113, and sterling exchange has advanced to 4.90½ for short-sight bills—a rate which makes it profitable to export gold coin. The value in gold of $100 greenbacks has ranged during the week between $88 88 and $88 49.

The Utica Convention has met and adjourned, after adopting a platform "reaffirming" the party principles of the last two years, which are, as the *World* would say, "free-trade, hard money, and home rule," and instructing the delegates to St. Louis to go into the Convention "as a unit"—that is, to support solidly the choice of the majority, whoever he may be, and recommending Mr. Tilden as the nominee. The anti-Tammany men appeared in full force, headed by John Morrissey, but John Kelly was too strong for them, and, finding the Convention not disposed to recognize their claims, they left the room in disgust. Whether the action of the Convention means the active support of Tilden or something less is now a point a good deal discussed in the newspapers, there being extremists, of course, on both sides—those opposed to Tilden going so far as to declare that he is not a true-hearted man of the people, but is of a cold, treacherous, and aristocratic nature, and that his pretences of reform are all humbug; while the other party would probably agree with the glowing eulogium of the Cohoes *Eagle*, which modestly admits that for itself "to laud Mr. Tilden is as absurd as to gild the glowing marble," and adds: "From the sources that feed the mighty Mississippi, from the craggy slopes of the Rocky Mounts to the wooded banks of the Monongahela, in every part of this vast continent, from the forests of Canada to the morasses of New Orleans, we find the name of Samuel J. Tilden coupled with the cry of reform." There seems to us little doubt, from the declarations of Mr. Horatio Seymour—who is frank enough to describe the present state of politics as one in which "the Republicans have lost the confidence of the public, and the Democrats have not gained it"—and of other leaders, that the chieftains in this State are determined to fight their campaign out on a reform basis; and this in New York of course means the nomination of Mr. Tilden.

The Republicans of California and Massachusetts have both held their conventions, and adopted platforms strongly in favor of civil-service reform and a good candidate for President. The Massachusetts convention put at the head of its delegation Mr. R. H. Dana, jr., and he will have the assistance of men of the standing and ability of Mr. J. M. Forbes and Judge Hoar, whom Messrs. Morton and Conkling will find, when they get to work, are "practical" men, not "idealists" or "visionaries." The general impression is that the Californians will support Blaine, while the Massachusetts delegation will be for Bristow. The Bristow movement shows every week decided gains in strength, its latest addition being Bristow Clubs in Boston and Cincinnati, and we suppose we may add the new Reform Club in this city, which has been organized by the better part of the Union League, for, though not avowedly in his favor, it is in such hands as will naturally conduct it into support of him. This Club, with Judge Emott at its head, and with most of the leading Republicans and Reformers in the city as its managers, and free from the depressing influence of the society of Messrs. Sharpe, Bliss, and Davenport, demands resumption, civil-service reform, retrenchment, and for a President "a statesman of tried character, in sympathy with the best sentiments of the people on all public questions, conversant with the affairs of government, discriminating and independent in the choice of public servants, one who will thoroughly reform the public service, and whose name alone will be a guarantee of official integrity, of wise and prudent administration, and a fearless enforcement of the laws."

There is no doubt that Mr. Bristow has endeared himself to a very large constituency by his manner of meeting the charges which his enemies have been industriously bringing forward. The ordinary way of meeting accusations of fraud, embezzlement, or other crimes in politics is for the statesman accused either, first, to "hurl back the foul-mouthed insinuation," and having hurled it back to consider himself by this simple process vindicated; or, second, to request an immediate investigation by his own party, and then get the investigating committee to postpone action till the election is over; or, third, to go before it and, after explaining that the crime actually committed was not fraud or embezzlement, but really was obtaining money under false pretences, get a unanimous exculpation from the committee; or, fourth, to declare that the whole thing was a "newspaper lie" unworthy the attention of any self-respecting statesman; or, fifth, to get out of it by simple perjury. Of all these different processes the public has grown somewhat tired, and it has been as refreshing as pure air in a pest-house to have at least one man come forward, as a man of honor and a gentleman naturally would on being charged with crime, and demand his accusers' proofs; and, instead of manifesting a desire to have the thing "die out," to show the strongest inclination to kill it himself at once, and in disproving it not merely to exonerate himself, but to cover his slanderers with the shame that ought to cover them. This Mr. Bristow has been doing very successfully; and the astonishing and novel spectacle of a politician in office meeting his accusers with the indignation of an honest man has probably won him many supporters in the last two weeks.

The enemies of Mr. Blaine are not satisfied with his denial of the charge that he received $64,000 from the Union Pacific on a pledge of Little Rock and Fort Smith bonds, even though he is supported by the denials of the officials of the road and the bankers supposed to have been concerned in the transaction. Mr. Harrison of Indianapolis, a Government director, has published a card, in which he says that in September, 1872, his attention was called to the fact that the road held these bonds, and that on trying to dis-

cover what the explanation was, Mr. E. H. Rollins—who now denies that Blaine had anything to do with it—begged him to go no further, as an investigation would ruin the political career of Mr. Blaine; and that this statement was subsequently repeated in the presence of a witness, another Government director. Mr. Harrison also says that when the Crédit-Mobilier investigation was going on, he called the attention of the chairman of the investigating committee, Mr. Jeremiah M. Wilson, to these bonds, but Mr. Wilson said nothing about it. Twenty-three days later an attempt was made by Delano, then Secretary of the Interior, to have him (Harrison) removed from his position of a Government director. He offers to go before the Judiciary Committee of the House and make oath to this. Mr. Rollins refuses to be "interviewed" on the subject.

Meantime, an investigation has been ordered by the House, and, whether it leads to any damaging revelations as to Mr. Blaine or not, one thing is quite certain, that it will throw light on a very dark piece of railroad history. The Little Rock and Fort Smith Road was a carpet-bag enterprise, and issued bonds and stock in a way that would make a Granger's hair stand on end. The "company of Boston gentlemen," as Mr. Blaine calls them—or the Ring, as it has been generally known—that got up the road, for every thousand dollars they received issued two thousand dollars' worth of bonds and two thousand dollars' worth of stock; so that Mr. Blaine's payment for his bonds of "the regular price fixed for their sale" does not mean precisely that he paid dollar for dollar. His statement, too, that the road got nothing from Congress, but "derived its life, franchise, and value wholly from the State," is misleading; for, though the State of Arkansas was the intermediary between Congress and the road, the real donor of the land-grant which gave it all its value was the United States. Mr. Blaine's statement, also, that the only act passed by Congress after the land-grant affecting the road was simply to "rectify a mistake in previous legislation," is we believe misleading. It appears from his statement that Mr. Blaine bought his bonds in the summer of 1869. At that time an act of Congress, passed in the spring of the same year, restricted the road to $2 50 per acre in sales of its grant. On March 8, 1870, another act was passed removing this restriction. All this may in no way show that Mr. Blaine did anything he ought not to have done: while, however, he may be a very good and frank man, the Little Rock and Fort Smith Road may be a very bad and mysterious corporation, and the latter seems without doubt to be the case.

Governor Rice of Massachusetts has vetoed the act of the Legislature of that State legalizing the marriage of Mr. James Parton with his step-daughter, on the ground that it is "contrary to sound principles of legislation and to the good of society." Few persons will, we suppose, question the truth of this statement, and there seems to be very little disposition in any quarter to take any other view of it. Whatever may be thought of the policy of a statute forbidding such marriages, it is quite clear that if any change is to be made it should be a general abolition of the restriction, not by withdrawing a particular marriage from the operation of the statute. This is not special legislation—it is not legislation at all; and there is probably no subject involving the relations of persons in civilized society that we could less well afford to have tampered with in such a way than that of marriage. It would be bad enough for a legislature to undertake to exempt favorites from taxation, or to pardon for crime, but not so bad as for it to introduce chaos into the marriage laws. The objections to it are precisely the same in kind with those that we make to the laxity of many Western States with regard to divorce. Any rules on the subject of marriage that are not uniform or that tend to make people reckless as to entering into it, whether by making it easy for them to escape its bonds or by making the legalization of forbidden marriages easy and open, tend to bring the family itself, home, and the civilization which they preserve, into contempt. It is by a poetical sort of justice that Mr. Parton, who has always been a worshipper of the "dictates of Nature," should by this little oversight be suddenly made to feel how very disagreeably they may be interfered with by those of law.

The poor character of the security of first-mortgage railroad bonds issued with no other basis of invested capital than that derived by the sale of the bonds themselves, has now been pretty well learned through the unfortunate experience of the holders of many such issues. Though the bonds were really backed by little or no prior expenditure of capital, they had, in almost all instances, the apparent support of a paid-up capital stock of an amount equal to or greater than the debt; this paid-up stock being generally issued as part of the contract price paid to a construction company, in whose hands it represented the profits of a contract made for no other purpose than that of legalizing such issue. In some cases, however, even this legal fiction was dispensed with, and the paid-up capital stock, as it was termed, was issued as a bonus to the original parties who subscribed for the bonds, without even the nominal existence of any valuable consideration. We are glad to see that the legal position of the holders of such stock is about to be judicially tested, a portion of the creditors of the Leavenworth, Lawrence and Galveston Railroad Company, whose stock was distributed in the manner last described, having determined to institute a suit against the stockholders on the ground that they are individually responsible to the extent of the par value of their stock. There can be no doubt that in such cases as this the existence of what is called full-paid stock operates as an inducement to people who purchase the bonds in the market. The Grangers used to maintain that they were the parties injured by the transaction, inasmuch as the company immediately put up its rates so as to pay dividends on the stock; so that what the creditors ought to do, on the Granger theory, would be to get a mandatory injunction compelling the Leavenworth, Lawrence and Galveston Railroad to put up their rates to a point which would make the stock worth par. But this simple remedy, for some reason, does not seem to have occurred to them.

The effort in Parliament to alter the Queen's purpose of assuming the new title of Empress of India resulted in nothing more than a sharp debate on Thursday, Mr. Fawcett being the active mover in opposition. On the same day the Royal assent to the bill was announced to the House without eliciting any demonstration, and on Friday the proclamation of the title appeared in the *Gazette*. There could be no better illustration of the different ideas attached to the same name in different countries than is afforded by the feeling which this incident of Mr. Disraeli's Administration has caused in England. Britons have long been proud of their British Empire, and have long been accustomed to speak of their Indian Empire, but in either case have used the term in a purely territorial and impersonal sense, and one in which it was not the correlative of Emperor at all. "Emperor" has retained on both sides of the Channel its Latin equivalence to "Cæsar," and Cæsarism is a principle of government as repugnant to Anglo-Saxons as it has now become to the last victims of it, the French themselves. In England everybody is perfectly well aware that the British Empire will gain nothing in unity or solidity by giving a new style to the Queen's relations to India, while the best sentiment of all classes shrinks from adopting a title which in their eyes is as disreputable as it is meaningless and superfluous. The depth of this feeling and the amount of opposition it produced have caused the Germans some amusement, and generally, perhaps, some surprise. Their more intelligent writers, however, perceive the true merits of the controversy, and analyze correctly the contrast between English mortification over Victoria's assuming the title of Empress and German exultation over Wilhelm's taking on that of Kaiser. In the latter case, the title was a pledge and a symbol of national integration and regeneration; in the former, a sign of no organic change whatever, but merely of a vulgar yearning for a sounding and showy appellation on the part of the chief ruler of a purely constitutional monarchy.

THE PROSPECT OF A GENERAL WAR IN EUROPE.

THAT time-honored resource of the American editor at a loss for a subject, "the imminence of a general war in Europe," seems just at present to have more attractions than it has had for some years. The money markets of the Old World are now in a state of depression which is almost unprecedented for its depth and duration, and there is apparently no sign of recovery. Part of it is undoubtedly due to the magnitude of the defaults in the obligations of various semi-civilized governments, but its prolongation is largely the result of the increasing feeling of uncertainty about the fate of European Turkey. The recovery of confidence, indeed, seems impossible as long as the accumulation of explosive materials continues in the valley of the Danube and on the shores of the Adriatic, and that it does thus far continue and increase there is no question. The Austrian plan of pacification has proved a total failure. The acceptance by the Porte of the Joint Note of the three Great Powers, with the adhesion of France and England, has exercised absolutely no influence on the status in Herzegovina. The promised reforms and conditional amnesty have been duly proclaimed, but they have not only been treated as nullities by the insurgents in the field, but have not been even partially carried out by the Turkish commander, and this not so much for want of will as for want of power. In all Turkish wars, the regular army is but a portion of the force by which hostilities are carried on. There is sure, in the first place, to be a considerable force of irregular cavalry, known as bashi-bazuks, composed of volunteers drawn from the half-robber population of Kurdistan and the other regions of Asia Minor bordering on the Persian frontier, who are totally undisciplined, and whose employment on detached service and reconnoitring gives them ample opportunity for the plunder and murder of the Christian population. Telling these people about the Sultan's reforms, and about the equality of the Christians and the new common citizenship of men of all creeds in the Empire, is telling them of impossibilities, or improbabilities so wild as to be the next thing to impossibilities. In the next place, as every Christian revolt is a rising against Mohammedanism, every Turk becomes a soldier in it, whether he is called into the army or not, and feels that he serves the cause nearly as much by cutting the throat of his next-door neighbor, or carrying off his wife or daughter, as by enlisting in the army; and the consequence of this is that civil war in Turkey involves an amount of social dissolution which could hardly take place in any Christian country in our day, whatever the differences of race or creed. In fact, the mediæval state of mind which sees in wholesale massacre a possible political expedient, can probably be now nowhere met with out of Turkey. The Christian refugees who have gone home under the promise of amnesty find that, though it is all very well on paper, the irregular troops and their Turkish neighbors know nothing about it, and every day the imagination of the insurgents in the field is tired, and the Sultan's proclamation covered with ridicule, by the news of fresh atrocities.

Moreover, they have, as they are finding out, calculated rightly with regard to the effect of their protracted resistance on the surrounding states. In Servia the popular enthusiasm has proved too much for the Government, the militia is being called out, a forced loan is proposed to pay the expenses of the armament, and we may any day hear of a rush over the border and a collision with the Turkish troops. If Montenegro keeps out of the fray, it is mainly owing to the fact that a large proportion of her fighting men are already engaged in it, and the news from Roumania reports active military preparation in that quarter also. All this, too, is accompanied by open encouragement from the semi-official press in Russia; and the rumors about the Czar's weariness of business and desire to abdicate are believed to have reference to his anticipation of a sudden necessity for the solution of the old Turkish problem. If it has to be a military solution, and Russia has to take part in it, he does not, it is said, feel equal to the cares and responsibilities of the undertaking, but will retire and leave it to his son, who is eager to precipitate it, and would not regret its bringing him into collision with Germany. Indeed, the fate of Turkey is now said to be dependent on the result of the conflict going on in Russian councils between the Old Russian party, headed by the Czarevitch, and the German party, headed or supported by the Emperor himself. Should the former get the upper hand, the Emperor will bow to influences which in Russia are stronger even than the Czar, and let younger men meet the resulting crisis. In that case, sufficient encouragement would be given to the Servians and Roumanians to reinforce the insurgents, and if Austria intervened there would be a collision between her and Russia, in which Germany would probably take part at once. Documents have been published at Rome showing that Count Andrássy expected war with Russia on this question as long ago as 1870, and that he assigned to Turkey the task of reconquering the eastern and northern shores of the Black Sea, while Austria set up the Polish kingdom again. Things have changed a good deal since then, and if Poland were to be set up Germany would have more to say about it than any one else, while Turkey, whatever she may have been then, is certainly no longer equal to the task of conquering anything from anybody. The Austrian occupation of Herzegovina and Bosnia, as a piece of police duty, is the step which ought most naturally to follow next, but this is said to be retarded by the strong objection of the Magyars, who now weigh so heavily in Austrian councils, to any Slavic additions to the Empire.

On the whole, we presume nobody's judgment as to what will happen next is worth much, because it will depend on the result of the fighting, in which nothing decisive has occurred, or is likely to occur as long as Turkey has only insurgents to deal with. The troops are being steadily frittered away by disease and the sword, but they are also being steadily reinforced, because the Mussulman population bears drafting better than any other in Europe, and the Christians will still bear a great deal of taxing. The insurgents, too, draw as much help in men and supplies from over the border as unconquerable hate and increasing hope need in order to protract the struggle, and probably nothing decisive will occur until Servia or Roumania intervenes. This will probably draw after it the intervention of one or other of the Great Powers, and then it is impossible to foresee the nature and extent of the struggle which will follow. One thing is certain, and that is that Bismarck will never permit the Empire to be seriously menaced by any new political combination in the East, and it is almost equally certain that in case Turkey breaks up, the very existence of Austria will depend on her securing such additions to her Slavic population as will compensate her for the loss of the remainder of her Germans, which every one admits is now only a question of time. Financially considered, the more quickly the crash in Turkey comes, the better. Her restoration is now impossible, and in her present decrepit condition she contains the materials for an explosion, the mere waiting for which must have and has a paralyzing effect on business. If her European provinces, too, were brought under an orderly and well-established government, it would be almost equivalent, in many of its effects on production and trade, to the discovery of a new country of great fertility and as large as France, and would give an enormous stimulus to the commerce of the Mediterranean.

PURIFYING THE PRIMARIES.

THE exultation of a certain part of the Republican and Reform press in this city over the row at Utica between the Tammany and anti-Tammany leaders, Morrissey and Kelly, is difficult to account for or explain. It is only six months since a precisely similar row, followed by a bolt on the part of Morrissey into the "Reform" party, ended in identifying the Republican and "Reform" cause for the time being with that of the most corrupt and shameless gang of politicians in the country, having a retired prize-fighter at its head, and for a tail a real proletariat, who live on "wages" extorted from the public under the guise of taxes by the politicians who owe their power to tax to the votes of this same proletariat bought by the proceeds of taxation. The reform-

ers and honest people who were misled into voting the "Reform" ticket at the election last fall, did so under the idea that the movement was directed against the "one-man power" and the tyranny of Tammany Hall and the Boss system. We endeavored to point out at the time that the hope was a simple delusion; that the tyranny of Tammany Hall and the one-man power and the Boss system did not come from the existence of a club having legal authority to use a corporate name and seal, and own a piece of real estate; and that Morrissey was himself a Boss just as Kelly was a Boss—the difference between them being that Kelly was trying to be a good Boss and use his power for the advancement of good government, while Morrissey was a bad Boss, and was trying to get into power by an open and barefaced appeal to communism. The only result of the alliance between Morrissey and the Reformers that did or could come was the covering of the cause of reform with ridicule and contempt; the appearance as a senator at Albany of Morrissey in the character of a *bouffe* reformer, who was going to destroy Tammany Hall and its wicked sachems, and restore the country to the pure and simple democracy of an earlier day; the filling of the offices with little Morrisseys; a renewed assault by the proletariat upon the pockets of the taxpayers; and no perceptible diminution of the power of the Tammany-Hall, the one-man power, or the Boss system whatever.

That many good people should have succumbed to this swindle last fall was perhaps natural; but, in the name of common sense and decent government, we must protest against its being played over again this year. That Morrissey is fully impressed with the desirability of trying it is evident from his proceedings in the Utica Convention, at which he denounced in the same strain as last fall the tyrant Kelly, and announced himself as the upholder of popular rights against fraud and oppression, and made vague threats of the terrible consequences which would ensue if he were not admitted. In the wrangle which followed, both Bosses in the most open way laid bare the real source of their troubles in words so plain that we should think it would be possible even for the *Post* to understand them; Kelly declaring that it was in fact "an utter impossibility to hold primary elections in New York that would be equitable and fair," and Morrissey, with great candor, admitting, in the genuine Boss dialect, that "the whole of the delegates on both sides were a fraud," and indignantly adding that some of the credentials came from a meeting which "was purported to be held at a brown-stone front"—evidently, in the estimation of the Convention, a strong point; the idea, as Morrissey said, of primaries being held in "gentlemen's houses" being preposterous.

The meaning of such admissions as this is plain enough. It is that the primary, as a political institution in the large centres of population and politics, is dead and lifeless; that it is used only as a cover for the real operations of a campaign; and that its formal employment at the present day is merely an instance of what is called a "survival." The early notion of a primary was that of an assemblage of the citizens of a particular locality and party, for the purpose of deliberation and comparison of views as to the selection of candidates. Now, the citizens stay at home, and the candidates go themselves or send representatives, and the nominations made by them are the result of combinations and bargains based on the number of offices or the money controlled by the bargaining parties. But this is not a peculiarity of the Democrats. It would certainly be a most singular state of affairs if the primaries of one party remained pure democratic gatherings, while those of the other had become what Morrissey and Kelly describe them. And such is not the case. In all the places where population is concentrated, the Republican primaries are of just the same kind as the Democratic, and produce just the same results. Tammany Hall bears just the same relation to the Democratic primaries of one side that another organization does to the Republican primaries. This other organization is not a society, and does not need a charter nor the power to hold real estate, for it represents one of the most powerful corporations in the world, and has its clubs scattered all over the country, with headquarters, and Bosses, and one-man power, and dictation, and tyranny, wherever there is a collector, a supervisor, or a postmaster.

There is not much chance that Morrissey will become an important leader in the Presidential campaign, for his instincts, and those of his followers, will lead them naturally to the support of the national Democratic ticket, even when they are most resolved upon a local reform movement. But it would certainly be a reason for substantial regret if any honest reformers were to mistake the real meaning of movements like this, or were to be led astray either by outcries against "dictation," "arbitrary rule," or the "one-man power," into believing that if the primaries are only purified all will be well. There is a close resemblance, it must be observed, between the delusions on this subject spread abroad by Morrissey and his kind and those which disturb the brains of many Republican reformers. The Republicans, for instance, who went to Syracuse and opposed the Conkling movement, made a great deal too much of cries closely resembling Morrissey's and a great deal too little display of the real feelings that took them there. The outcry made by them against "pledging" was natural enough, for, under the circumstances, "pledging" meant nothing but Conkling; but the appeals of the leaders to the Convention's supposed love of fair play and fondness for democratic institutions and freedom of debate must have seemed very funny to Cornell, and Sharpe, and Spencer, who knew how the Convention had been got together, and how it would have gone unless outside intimidation, through the press and by other means, had been vigorously used before it met.

It is not "dictation" and "tyranny," or the "one-man power," that we are fighting against, and that we want to see put down; but the lamentable fact, so pithily stated by Morrissey, that the "whole of the delegates on both sides are a fraud," and that we have a system which, no matter what party be in power, produces such results. From this point of view—and we know that in saying so we shall not be suspected of any want of sympathy with the motives of reformers in either party—the success of such movements as that at Syracuse against Conkling seems almost at times regrettable, because they tend to confirm people in the false hope that we can get good government again by reforming the primaries, by getting the fabled good citizen to "attend to his political duties" and see to it that "none but fit men" are nominated to office. Reform in the mode of making nominations must be found in the direction of making the work simpler and easier, and providing a way in which the votes of persons who do not care to adopt the ticket of either party may vote without throwing their votes away. The "primary," as now constituted, cannot, at least in the large cities, be reformed, as long as it is as far away from the actual nomination as it is now, and as long as it leads to so many nominations at every election. With fewer persons to nominate, and with a process by which fractional minorities could combine on candidates of their own, we should be in a fair way to secure the public that intervention in the choice of its own officers which it is the business of "primary" politicians to prevent.

Notes.

ROBERTS BROS., Boston, have in press 'Revolutionary Times,' by Mr. Edward Abbott, whose well-executed paragraph histories of the United States and of the Revolution are already before the public.——Sheldon & Co. will soon publish a work on the 'Doctrine of Prayer,' by Dr. P. H. Mell, of the University of Georgia; and one on 'Commenting and Commentaries,' by Mr. Spurgeon.——Henry Holt & Co. announce that they will republish Mr. Taswell-Langmead's 'English Constitutional History,' reviewed in the last issue of the *Nation*. They have in press a volume by the late Robert K. Weeks, entitled 'Twenty Poems,' in the midst of the preparation of which the author died.——A 'History of Independence Hall, Philadelphia,' by Col. Frank M. Etting, will be shortly published by J. R. Osgood & Co.——John Wiley & Sons have in press 'Practical Notes on the Construction of Iron Highway Bridges,' by Alfred P. Boller, C.E.——Bulletin No. 37 of the Boston Public Library continues the

check list for American local history (the present instalment being all about Boston), and furnishes abundant bibliographical information concerning America before Columbus, and concerning Autographs. ——Mr. W. W. Skeat has begun in *Notes and Queries* a series of occasional articles on the "Chronology of English."——Under the direction of the Royal Society of Literature, there will shortly be published in London 'The Autograph Commonplace-Book of John Milton,' executed in permanent photography, by the Autotype Company, with an introduction by Alfred J. Horwood.——From B. Westermann & Co. we receive Part 14 of Spruner's 'Historical Atlas,' of which the maps represent the Frankish Empire under the Merovingians, and under Karl the Great and his successors to A.D. 900; the sixth plate of "Deutschland's Gaue"; and Germany from the beginning of the tenth century to A.D. 1137. A large number of side-maps fill out the first two plates.——The number of recent German works relating to the United States is indicated by the reviews in a single number of *Ausland* (for Feb. 28), viz., 'Reiseblider und Skizzen aus Amerika,' by T. Kirchhoff (Altona, 1876); 'Amerikanische Skizzen,' by Prof. Karl Knortz (Halle, 1876); 'Die Prairien des Westens,' by Prof. R. von Schlagintweit (Cologne, 1876); 'Amerikanische Skizzebüchelche,' a rhythmical description of American society, by G. Asmus (Cologne, 1876); and a new edition of Lieut.-Col. Max von Versen's 'Reisen in Amerika.' ——Besides M. Simonin's 'Monde Américan,' Mr. Christern has received M. Léon Chotteau's 'La Guerre de l'Indépendance (1775–1783)—les Français en Amérique,' to which M. Laboulaye furnishes an introduction. M. Chotteau has already been preceded in this field, and in French, by our countryman Mr. Thomas Balch.

'—At the meeting of the Maine Historical Society held in Portland, March 30, there were read papers by Judge Godfrey, of Bangor, on "Norombega"; by Judge Williamson, of Belfast, on "Gen. Samuel Waldo"; by R. K. Sewall, of Wiscasset, on "Cairns in Maine"; by Gen. J. M. Brown, of Portland, on "Carrying-places of Maine Rivers"; and by Hon. Wm. Goold, of Windham, on "Fort Halifax." Mr. Goold's paper gave a thorough history of the construction, locality, etc., of Fort Halifax, on the Kennebec, in the present town of Winslow. There remains of it now only a dilapidated block-house, the only one extant, we understand, of scores in New England a century ago. A part of Gen. Brown's paper traversed the same region, as Arnold's expedition to Quebec, narrated in the diaries of so many of those engaged in the expedition, took the route up the Kennebec past Fort Halifax, and by the carrying-place from the Kennebec to the Chaudière; the length of this carry appears to be only three and three-quarters miles. The seventh volume of the Society's papers, which is nearly ready, will contain essays on early Indian history in the vicinity of Bangor, by Judge Godfrey; Pemaquid; the voyages of Champlain, by Gen. Brown; early Spanish settlements on the coast of Maine, by Mr. Sewall; a history of the Bingham purchase; a paper respecting the old families on the Kennebec, by Mr. Allen, of Norridgewock; and a number of memorial papers, including a history of the Gardiner family and others.

—The Harvard Summer School of Geology is to be continued the coming summer on the ground of its work in 1875, in the neighborhood of Cumberland Gap. Profiting by the experience of last year, considerable improvements will be made in its methods of study and exploration. The excursions will be extended as far as the Black Mountains of North Carolina. The connection of the school with the Kentucky Geological Survey will enable the students to take part in all the actual processes of a geological and topographical survey. The presence of eight competent instructors has been secured. The fee of fifty dollars is designed to meet the expenses other than the cost of instruction. Students will be received up to June 15, and as the number to be admitted is increased to fifty, there will doubtless be room for all who may desire to enter the school.

—One of the latest changes talked of at Harvard is an enlargement of Gore Hall, the library building. In 1841, when the forty thousand volumes then constituting the library were moved into it, the Hall was thought to be of sufficient capacity to hold the accumulations during the present century. Since then one hundred and nine thousand books have been added to the library. Fit storage failed long ago, and, besides the inconvenience to which the authorities have been forced of breaking up the symmetry of classification in the alcoves by transferring books to other than their proper departments, the division of the alcoves and the shelves piled up in the galleries have seriously interfered with the light. The Hall, also, as every one knows who is familiar with it, affords no private room for the librarians or workroom for the assistants. But, although some relief is necessary, we regret, because we think the final result will be so unsatisfactory, that the change is to take the form of an addition to the present structure. The claims of learning, the reputation of the college, the proper preservation of the books, demand a new building. There is an opinion prevalent, we know, that President Eliot considers the present edifice adapted to its purpose, and prefers to enlarge rather than build anew. But a great quantity of testimony can be brought forward to prove the unsuitableness of Gore Hall. It will be enough to refer to Mr. Sibley's —the head librarian's—constant opinion, reiterated in the 'Harvard Book,' and none too strongly expressed: "Gore Hall is not perfectly secure against fire, is at no time of the year entirely free from dampness, and is so ill-planned as to require all the work of the library to be done under great disadvantages." As to President Eliot's plan, we judge it to be no preference, but a *pis-aller* to which the want of funds too often compels college presidents. At the commencement of his administration (1869–70), indeed, he said: "If suitable working-rooms were added to the library, it would be an excellent building for its uses"; and (1870–71) "the corporation have repeatedly enquired, through competent experts, into this alleged dampness, and are entirely satisfied that there is now no ground whatever for such an allegation." But two years after, the opinion of the corporation appears to have changed, for, in addition to the former steam apparatus, a wrought-iron furnace was put in "to keep the atmosphere of the library drier than it has been." We doubt much whether the president would refuse a gift intended for a new library building. The objections to Gore Hall, aside from those mentioned by Mr. Sibley, are that whatever beauty the building may have will be destroyed by the addition, as an enlargement of it was never contemplated. The funds for the purchase of books ought to be increased, and are likely to be, and another enlargement will be called for in another thirty or forty years. Besides, the sum required for the enlargement is so very great, $80,000, that friends of the college may ask reasonably: Would not a little stronger effort secure $200,000 or $250,000, so that a hall may be erected fit for the proper storage and use of books, constructed especially with reference to enlargement, and better representing the resources and the taste of the graduates of the college? Perhaps the consent of the graduates might be obtained to divert the Class Subscription Fund to this purpose. Subscriptions to this fund have become languid, and a change in its object might revive some interest in it.

—The *American Socialist* is the name of a new weekly paper published at Oneida, in this State, and edited by Mr. John H. Noyes. We do not know the precise nature of the connection between the *Socialist* and the *Circular*, except that the latter has disappeared, and that the new paper is in some measure its heir. The *Socialist*, however, is not merely the organ of the community at Oneida (though, like it, it is devoted to the "enlargement and perfection of home"), but also of the Shakers, Harmonists, Eben-Ezers, Zoarites, and Bethel-Aurora societies as well, and, as we understand it, of any other sect or organization which is working in good faith to break up the narrow slavery of what we may call the feudal Home and introduce phalansteries of some sort. "This," the editor says, "is really the principal problem of Socialism. The oracles of ordinary society say that a home should be limited to man, wife, and children. Fourier held that a normal home should contain eighteen hundred persons! These are the two extremes of opinion on this question." We observe, by the way, that a correspondent of the *Socialist*, says that he has "lived in homes varying in number from one [it is needless to say that the celibate home, if home it may be called, is here referred to] to several hundred," and his experience and observation lead him to regard "one hundred and twenty-five as about the right number to form a complete home." As the key to the domestic position handed down to us from the dark ages is undoubtedly the institution of monogamic marriage (resting on the basis of assault and battery, bargain and sale, or individual preference), it is hardly necessary to say that Mr. Noyes proposes a vigorous assault on it. Indeed, we believe the Beecher Scandal has served in the Oneida community as an awful warning to the faithful of what lying, hypocrisy, slander, libel, and other bad practices come directly from the custom of "single marriage."

—In the number of the *Socialist* before us is given an account of the "Old Guard" of Socialism, or, in other words, a list of some of the thinkers of 1843 who used to write for the *Phalanx*, with extracts from their opinions, which, it would seem from later "utterances" of the same gentlemen, have undergone some change since that time. Mr. Horace Greeley, it is true, were he now in the flesh, need not feel that there was anything to be recalled or recanted in his declaration in the *Phalanx* that the "renovation of the world" must come through "union, harmony, and the reconciling of all interests, the giving scope to all noble sentiments and aspirations"; but it may be doubted whether Mr. George Ripley (described as "formerly a Unitarian minister, founder of 'Brook Farm,' for many years literary editor of the New York *Tribune*, and editor of the

'New American Encyclopædia'"), if he were now uttering his views on these questions, would draw the following depressing picture as "a truthful type of the effect of civilization on human nature": "Humanity is now all dissevered—tongues—heads—hearts—arms—limbs—all tumbling and jostling one another in the fierce whirlpool of this dislocated society." In 1843 it seems that Mr. Charles A. Dana (described as "a member of the Brook Farm Association, afterwards editor of the New York *Tribune* and of the 'New American Encyclopædia,' Assistant-Secretary of War, and editor of the New York *Sun*") expressed his beliefs and hopes as follows: "When the future condition of humanity lies before us, and we behold a united race moving in beauty and intelligence to the fulfilment of its divine destiny, all present men and achievements sink into insignificance. But to be reassured and convinced that our efforts are not worthless or ineffectual we need only to look back to civilization. Measured with it, the most defective of our associations is a paradise"; while Mr. Parke Godwin (described as "editor of the New York *Evening Post*, author of a popular view of the doctrines of Fourier, 'Constructive and Pacific Democracy,' a 'History of France,' etc.") used language of this kind: "The time has come when all partial movements of reform must fulfil and complete each other, and flow together in one onward, mighty movement toward Universal Unity: Unity of Man with Man in true Society; Unity of Man with God in true Religion; Unity of Man with Nature in Creative Art and Industry. Our flag is given to the breeze; its threefold motto is full of the power of faith and hope and charity. Let all true hearts join in its benediction, and aid in its fulfilment!" "The future is ours—the future is ours . . . . We want the love and wisdom of the Highest to make their daily abode with us; we wish to see all mankind happy and good; we desire to emancipate the human body and the human soul; we long for unity between man and man in true society, between man and nature by the cultivation of the earth, and between man and God, in universal joy and religion." The *Socialist* does not revive these utterances in a spirit of mockery, but, on the contrary, declares that their work was the "noblest which men ever undertook," and "though hidden for a season" "will live for ever."

—In the April number of the *New Quarterly Magazine*, a periodical scarcely three years old but of considerable pretensions, there is an extraordinary article on "Artemus Ward and the Humorists of America," which is only another instance of the left-handed ideas held by some English critics on the subject of American literature. The article opens by asserting that "Artemus Ward will assuredly hold a place with posterity in the famous line which begins with Rabelais and ends with Charles Dickens"; then, after refusing Irving a claim to originality, it continues: "Lowell, the author of the 'Biglow Papers,' and Wendell Holmes, both excellent writers, are hardly acknowledged as humorists in Europe, and the reputation of Hawthorne, deservedly high as it stands, owes hardly any of its eminence to his fame as a humorist." Then the writer discovers "this in Mr. Brown which distinguishes him from most other humorists—that he was a dramatic artist of decidedly great power. His conception and delineation of the character of the showman, quite apart from the jests which he makes him utter, come very near to true genius. Setting aside the conceptions of Dickens—the Gamps, the Wellers, and the Pecksniffs—we greatly doubt if this century has produced any character of greater comic power, any that will float longer down the stream of time, than the Artemus Ward of Mr. Charles Brown. He never speaks but in character." After this we are not surprised that it was in England "among the higher classes of literary men that the young American was first recognized as a true genius"; although it is a little startling to be told that "even our philosophers delighted in his freshness and originality, and Mr. Carlyle himself has been heard to speak of him emphatically as the 'divine Artemus.'" In short, the writer seems unable to see either where the real merit of Ward lay or what its limitations were. He has apparently no acquaintance with John Phœnix, the predecessor and preceptor of A. Ward. There are also many petty errors, such as the misspelling of Mr. Browne's name, and the assertion that the Ward letters have not been collected into one volume, and that the first ones were contributed to *Vanity Fair*. The article ends with criticism of Mr. Clemens ("Mark Twain is a jester, and very little more") and of Mr. Harte ("a versifier . . . . who, once or twice, reaches to real pathos"). For the benefit of those who have thought 'Condensed Novels' to be the best book of its kind since the appearance of Mr. Punch's 'Prize Novelists,' we may make one final quotation: "Bret Harte, like Mark Twain, has written parodies which, if anything, are worse than those of his brother humorist."

—Captain Eyre M. Shaw, of the London Fire Brigade, has just published a modestly-written pamphlet on the causes and prevention of fires in theatres, which is well worthy of careful consideration in this country, where the conditions are for the most part the same as in England. Although there is no building which should be more substantially constructed than a theatre, there is also none which can be built so cheaply—too often cheapness and haste compete. According to Captain Shaw, a theatre should be divided into as many distinct parts as may be possible by fire-proof walls firmly built into the external walls; all offices and dressing-rooms should be integral parts of the building, and not merely tacked to it; the theatre should not touch the surrounding buildings (the laws of one European country require that an alley thirteen feet wide be left on every side); there should be separate exits for each class of spectators, and these exits should be as large and, above all, as many as possible—two for three hundred spectators and three for five hundred are required by law in one country. The sense of security felt in such a building would go far towards preventing a panic. Captain Shaw's suggestions, of which we have noted but a few, are simple, and the result of common-sense and experience; yet neither in England nor America do architects always think it necessary to answer these requirements. In this city most of the leading theatres (and especially Booth's) are well planned; but in other parts of the country, and particularly in the West, this is not the case. Theatres there are even to be found on the second story, over stores, with exits through long, narrow passages and down steep stairs! The architect who has given the most attention to the subject is undoubtedly M. Charles Garnier. He has set forth the result of his studies in print in 'Le Théâtre,' and in fact in the new Paris Opéra, which Captain Shaw thinks is likely, "for years to come, to be, in respect of convenience, comfort, and safety, the model theatre of the world," and of which a full description, with plans and illustrations, can be found in M. Nuitter's 'Nouvel Opéra.' He had his working plans lithographed, and in the Boston Public Library may be found one of the only three sets known to exist. Captain Shaw's pamphlet includes an account of the five fires at the earlier Paris opera-houses, and a list of theatres destroyed by fire, in which we note not a few faults of omission and commission—*e. g.*, the burning, in 1875, of the Opera-House at "Nevada, U. S."

—The *Revue des Questions Historiques* for last October contains three articles of peculiar interest for students of the Middle Ages. The first is by M. Boutaric (author of 'La France sous Philippe le Bel'), upon the origin of feudalism, especially in the institution of Immunity. It is an admirable paper in every way; the most important special points made are in drawing attention to the fundamental distinction between the fief and the *censive*, or land held by agricultural service, and in showing from the documents that the development of feudalism in France was slower and later than has usually been assumed: its full development does not come before the eleventh century. The second article is by M. Robion, on the rural population at the close of the Crusades. As M. Boutaric shows the full establishment of feudalism to have been later than is generally assumed, so M. Robion shows that its force was weakened much earlier than is generally supposed; that even at the beginning of the thirteenth century, and so more and more all through the century, the condition of the peasantry was steadily improving. The third article—a very long one—by M. Longnon, is upon the geography of France at the close of the Hundred Years' War—a study which has never before been made in detail. A map in illustration of the text is published in the new edition of the 'Life of Jeanne Dare' by M. Wallon, just published by Didot; the same author prepared a map of France in the time of St. Louis for De Wailly's magnificent edition of 'Joinville.' The rest of the *Revue* is occupied chiefly with book notices, of which a very large number is given. This review, by the way, is distinctively Roman Catholic, and its theological opinions are of course very prominent in the reviews—not so much so, however, as to prevent a very fair and even highly laudatory review of Ranke's works. In the three leading articles this theological bias is hardly perceptible.

—Dr. Friedrich von Bezold, whose monograph, 'Zur Geschichte des Husitentums,' we noticed some months ago (*Nation*, No. 512), has published (in 168 pages) the second division of 'König Sigmund und die Reichskriege gegen die Husiten.' The first division, published in 1872, covered the period of the first three Crusades (1419 to 1423); the present division extends to 1428, embracing the fourth Crusade. Between the third and the fourth (1427) lies an interval devoted mostly to negotiations and diplomacy, in which the Hussites appear to have labored sincerely for a reconciliation. In this interval falls the death of the great Puritan leader, Ziska (1424), the rule of Coryiut, and the rise of the new leader, Procopius. It was the overwhelming victory of Procopius at Aussig (1426)

that aroused Germany anew, and excited to the fourth Crusade in the following year. Frederic of Brandenburg, the founder of the House of Hohenzollern, appears throughout as the leading spirit of the Anti-Hussite movement, and in this last stage we find prominent an Englishman, Cardinal Henry Beaufort, whom we know very well in English history and in Shakspere. Another instalment will probably bring the work down to the Council of Basel in 1431.

—The German excavations at Olympia appear to have stimulated the Russian ambassador at Athens to a similar enterprise. We find the following in the *Stoa* of Athens (March 10):

"A new Scythian invasion threatens the antiquities in Tanagra. M. Papaerhegopoulos of Athens has purchased the lands of numerous Tanagraians, with the purpose of making excavations, the yield of which, it is said, is to belong to the Russian ambassador. Let the Government see to it that our ancestral possessions are not plundered in broad daylight."

Also the following in the *Star of the East* (Athens, February 26):

"Philotheos, Archbishop of Serrai, in Macedonia, has lately edited from a Greek MS. of the library of the convent of the Holy Sepulchre, in the Fanar at Constantinople, two epistles of Clement, Bishop of Rome. It is now reported that there exists in the library of the convent of St. John the Baptist, at Serrai, a second Greek MS. of the same father, dating from the beginning of the eleventh century (1008). This MS. consists of forty-nine sheets, is written in double columns, upon pages of vellum of unusual size, is addressed, in the form of a letter, to James, the brother of the Lord, and has the title: 'Life of the Holy Martyr Clement, Bishop of Rome, disciple of the holy Apostle Peter.' Heretofore, only the Latin translation of this work was known to be in existence."

TAINE'S ANCIEN RÉGIME.*

TAINE is not an original thinker or a brilliant writer. He is an intelligent and industrious disciple of De Tocqueville. He has thoroughly mastered the principles of his teacher, and though he has added to them no original conclusions of his own, he has brought together an immense mass of facts in support of the views laid down by De Tocqueville in *his* 'Ancien Régime." Taine's book might, in fact, be considered with justice an appendix to De Tocqueville's treatise, containing a mass of citations and extracts in confirmation of the theories contained in the body of the book. As far as Taine's general views of French history are concerned, he has the merits and also displays the deficiencies of his teacher. Wherever De Tocqueville is strong, there Taine is strong also. Where De Tocqueville failed to grasp any aspect of his subject Taine's insight also fails him. De Tocqueville, for example, certainly failed fully to appreciate the permanent injury done to France by the ruin of French Protestantism. He failed, also, as compared with a writer like Quinet, fully to understand what may be termed the spiritual side of the Revolutionary movement. Precisely the same shortcomings can be discerned in Taine. He alludes very cursorily to the persecution of the Protestants, and, curiously enough, never seems to trace the connection between the triumph of Catholicism and the increase of centralization, to which he, in common with all writers of his school, ascribes the ruin of the *ancien régime*. Nor, again, does he enter into the strong side of the philosophic movement which preceded and no doubt in part caused the Revolution. He devotes, as might be expected from his antecedents, a large portion of the present volume to the literary history of France during the eighteenth century. The book entitled 'La Propagation de la Doctrine' is interesting reading, but it is, in our judgment, the least satisfactory portion of Taine's work. He never seems fully to enter into the character of the writer whom he criticizes. His criticism is sensible, but it is, if the truth may be said, not a little commonplace.

But to state that the first volume of 'Les Origines de la France contemporaine' will not entitle its author to take his place among historians of the first rank, is quite a different thing from denying that the book has noticeable merits. It is a successful attempt to collect together a body of actual facts about the state of France towards the end of the last century. When we reflect how much obscurity has been thrown over the history of the Revolution by its having been made the theme of rhetoric, of imagination, of invective, or of eulogy, we can scarcely feel too grateful to a man who makes it his business to dismiss as far as possible all vague generalizations, and put before the world trustworthy information as to the actual condition of France before and during the great change which transformed the France of Louis the Sixteenth into the France of Napoleon. Taine has attempted honestly to ground every statement he makes upon an elaborate investigation of authorities on whom reliance can be placed. No one who has not a far greater knowledge of French history than scarcely one educated man in ten thousand can pretend to, is in a position to determine whether so careful a student as Taine has or has not fallen into errors; but the candid reader will not fail to be convinced that the work is one which deserves careful attention, and which has at least two very considerable merits.

The first merit is that the facts which it contains give reality and substance to many general notions the truth of which every English or American reader would admit without fully appreciating their real bearing or force. Thus most of our readers will easily concede that the French *noblesse* excited popular ill-will through the possession of unjust privileges, but it is easy enough to make this admission and yet at the same time entertain very vague and indefinite conceptions as to the nature of these privileges, the persons by whom they were possessed, and the causes which rendered the privileges and their possessors odious to the French nation. Nothing will more certainly dissipate all such vagueness and haziness than a perusal of Taine's first volume. In place of the general outlines supplied by De Tocqueville you have put before you a minute picture of the condition of French society. As you read page after page of petty details and trifling anecdotes of small importance in themselves, each adds a new touch to the drawing, till you may be said, almost without exaggeration, to see the nobility as they actually existed immediately before 1789. Two or three points in their position then become so clear that they can scarcely be overlooked. It is manifest that Burke was perfectly right in the estimate which he formed of the amiability and liberal spirit of the younger nobles. There never was a class of men who on the whole were less inclined to play the part of tyrants or had less power to play the part if they had felt the inclination. It is impossible in the limited space of a newspaper article to bring forward the numerous and in themselves trifling facts by which Taine conclusively proves that, at any rate during the latter part of the eighteenth century, the nobility and the upper classes generally were filled with benevolent though very ignorant good intentions towards the poorer classes. What every gentleman dreaded was to be thought wanting in "sensibility." In this there was much of fashion and something of affectation; still, the benevolent impulse actually led to acts of benevolence. The nobles showed at times a strange readiness to surrender privileges which they themselves felt to be unjust, and the churchmen of France, in spite of all their faults, often performed liberal acts of charity towards the poor. But while this is true, there is another side to the picture which Taine brings into the clearest light. The privileges of the nobles were utterly incompatible with the good administration of government. Put shortly, the result of these privileges was that the whole weight of taxation was thrown more and more on the poorest classes. Till the system is examined in detail its injustice is hardly credible, yet no one who has read the chapters which Taine entitles "Le Peuple" (the expression can hardly be adequately translated into English) can doubt that the poorer a man was, the greater was the relative proportion of taxation which he paid. Taine computes that the persons who were liable to the *taille* (and these included all except the privileged classes) paid as direct taxes, in the shape of taxes payable to the king, of tithes and feudal dues, rather more than eighty-one out of every hundred francs of net income. If this view be even approximately correct, the smaller proprietors were deprived by crown, church, and nobles of more than three-fourths of their annual revenues.

Side by side with the existence of this crushing weight of taxation must be put the fact that the privileged classes (*privilégiés*) openly escaped from bearing their share of the burden. Nor was this the whole or nearly the whole of the grievance. The immediate sufferings of the peasants arose not from the action of the central government, but from that of the neighboring noble. The nobles in many cases exacted the *corvée*. The nobles kept the game which the farmer was not allowed to destroy. The nobles exacted tolls and feudal dues of every description, and meanwhile the nobility, while they exerted every odious privilege, did not for the most part perform any of the duties which in England or Germany fell to the great landowners. The richer nobles or gentlemen were absentees, and were, indeed, from causes which Taine elaborately explains, all but compelled to live at court. The poorer members of the aristocracy lived no doubt among their neighbors, but this fact was not by any means in all cases a gain to the peasants. Taine brings out, what we do not remember to have seen before brought into prominence, the extreme poverty of a large number among the nobility. Their property was mortgaged or sold. They had sunk in many cases below the peasantry in wealth. Nothing remained but their privileges. They were compelled to live on their feudal rights. Poverty, therefore, made it necessary for them to exact every penny which they could claim even from the very poorest. One example is sufficient to

* 'Les Origines de la France contemporaine. Par H. Taine. Tome I. L'ancien Régime.' Paris: Hachette et Cie; New York: F. W. Christern. 1875.
'The Ancient Régime. By Hippolyte Adolphe Taine. Translated by John Durand.' New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1876.

show the evils resulting from the possession of privileges without wealth to support them: The nobles still retained in many cases the right of administering justice throughout their domains. This right was constantly turned to money. Judicial places and reversionary claims to judicial places were put up for sale by indigent nobles. This is as if in England in the last century the squire of the village had been accustomed to keep a private law-court for his own tenants, and to sell the administration of justice therein to the highest bidder, and therefore probably the least reputable of the local attorneys. Another circumstance must also be noticed: all the noblesse belonged to the privileged classes, but privilege was not confined to the nobles. Their immunity from taxation was constantly extended to their tenants and servants. Every person in the employment of government, every postmaster, every petty official, every person who could by hook or by crook attach himself to the administration, could claim exemption of one sort or another. A rich man could hardly fail in one form or another to obtain privileges and exemptions. The towns, again, threw the burdens of the state on the country, and within the towns the richer citizens contrived to shuffle off some tax which they ought to have borne on to the shoulders of the poor. If you add to this that the mode in which the taxes were levied was at least as oppressive as their amount (and that this was so cannot be doubted by any one who has studied the fifth book of Taine's volume), it becomes easy to understand the misery of the poor and also the hatred which was gradually accumulating against the men whose exemption from taxation was a main cause, and no doubt seemed the sole cause, of the intolerable sufferings of the people.

The second merit of Taine's treatise is that his vast accumulation of facts constantly suggests conclusions which are not directly drawn by the author himself. Englishmen, for example, are constantly perplexed to account for the French passion for equality. A study of life under the *ancien régime* fully accounts for the origin at any rate of this sentiment. Inequality, or in other words privilege, was, down to the Revolution, the actual source of half the evils under which France suffered. The evils which it caused were felt in all the transactions of daily life, and these evils the Revolution in fact removed. If any one reflects for how great a length of time a sentiment will often survive the state of things which gave rise to it, he will see little cause for wonder that in 1876 Frenchmen should prize above all things the equality which not a century ago was in reality the great need of the country. Another phenomenon of modern French society is, it may be suggested, in part at least attributable to this same source. The desire for Government employment which certainly distinguishes modern Frenchmen is almost certainly, like so many other features in French society, a legacy of the monarchy. In the eighteenth century Government employment had two great recommendations: to the ordinary man it offered an escape from many burdens; to the man of energy or benevolence it offered the one sphere for display either of political ability or public spirit. The attraction in this case has also survived the state of society which made Government employment specially attractive. In nothing, however, does the suggestiveness of Taine's facts appear in a stronger light than in that occasional tendency to force upon the mind of the reader an inference to which Taine himself does not, as we have already pointed out, appear to attach as much importance as it deserves. The conclusion that the fall of Protestantism gave, if not a deadly, yet certainly a most serious blow to the prosperity of France, is one which the Catholic sympathies of De Tocqueville disinclined him to draw. Here as elsewhere Taine is silent where his teacher has not spoken, but the facts he collects tell their own tale. Thus he cites, incidentally, in a note the following statement as to the town of Blet: "It formerly had a large population, but the civil wars of the sixteenth century, and especially the Protestant emigration, caused it to be so deserted that it now (1783) contains, instead of 3,000 inhabitants which it used to hold, not more than 300; and this is the case with all the neighboring towns." With this quotation should be compared almost the only other passage in the volume having reference to French Protestantism. The following sentences form part of a passage too long for complete quotation:

"In 1717 a conventicle of seventy-four Protestants was surprised at Anduze. The men were sent to the galleys, the women to prison. In 1724 an edict declared that every person who should take part in a conventicle, and that every one who should directly or indirectly hold communication with the Protestant preachers, should be condemned to have his property confiscated. Every woman guilty of these offences must have her hair shaved and be imprisoned for life, and every man was to be sent to the galleys for life. . . . In Languedoc, down to the very approach of the Revolution, they used to hang Protestant ministers and send dragoons against Protestant congregations who had assembled for prayer in the mountains. At one of these assemblies M. Guizot's mother received shots in her dress."

RAWLINSON'S PERSIA.*

WE can well imagine that in reading the last proof of this portly volume Canon Rawlinson's feelings may have been akin to those so graphically described by Gibbon when he reached the end of his life-work. For eighteen years the author has been industriously elucidating the history of Western Asia with the aid of the wonderful accumulation of new material afforded by the deciphering of the Assyrian and Persian inscriptions, the recent translations of Oriental writings, the numismatics of the several dynasties, and the vast architectural remains of the various races which successively bore sway from the Hindu Kush to the Mediterranean. Thus bringing to bear upon many of the most obscure points of history all the direct and subsidiary information resulting from modern scientific research, his remarkable series of volumes—the 'Herodotus,' the 'Five Oriental Monarchies,' the 'Sixth Monarchy' (Parthia), and the present 'Seventh Monarchy'—form a monument to his well-directed industry of which English literature may well be proud. There are few scholars of the present day to whom the historical student owes a larger debt of gratitude.

In his modest preface Professor Rawlinson speaks of this work as bringing to its completion the ancient history of the East, to which he has so long devoted himself. We trust that this is not to be taken as a valedictory, and that we are not to look forward to his abandonment of a career so useful and so honorable. There yet remains a theme, the worthy treatment of which would form a fitting complement to the task already performed—the rise and establishment of Islam. Such a work, embracing the results of the investigation and criticism of the last fifty years, is, so far as we know, yet lacking to the English reader, and for it the author's conscientious study of original sources, his clear and connected narrative, and his cool and impartial habit of thought, render him especially fitted.

The 'Seventh Oriental Monarchy' is in no way less interesting than its predecessors. The sudden revival of the Persian nationality under Ardeshir Babegan, or Artaxerxes, the son of Babek, is a very striking episode in Eastern history; and the tumultuous reigns of his successors, involved in endless struggles with Rome on the West, Armenia on the North, and Tartar hordes on the East, varied with occasional intestine commotion, offer a series of vicissitudes of the most stirring character. The picturesque effect of the whole is greatly heightened by the startling contrasts observable in the imperfect though elevated civilization of the Sassanians, where the lofty practical morality of Zoroastrianism is seen constantly struggling with the barbarous tendencies of Oriental despotism. These contrasts are well brought out by the author in his occasional sketches of the internal condition of the Empire, and in his descriptions of Sassanian art, as shown in an interesting and well-selected series of illustrations of coins and architectural remains. Perhaps, indeed, he might have been less sparing in his use of the romantic stories told by Tabari and other Oriental writers—stories which, however apocryphal, yet have their value as reproducing popular tradition and belief.

Possibly also it might not have been amiss to develop in more detail the religion of the Sassanian epoch. In the account of the debasement of Mazdeism under Parthian domination we do not observe any reference to the curious allusion of Moses of Chorene (lib. ii. c. 88) to the worship of an idol of Ormazd by the Iberians, which, if trustworthy, is a very significant fact. In describing also the religious revival which was one of the leading features of the Sassanian revolution, we think it might have been well to consult some of the later sacred books of that period, instead of referring exclusively to the Zendavesta. The extreme sacerdotalism of the Sadder, for instance, throws abundant light on the acquisition of power by the priesthood in the Sassanian political system. So the duty of the sovereign to watch with constant solicitude every detail of the material welfare of his people—a solicitude to which Professor Rawlinson repeatedly calls attention—may be traced directly to the precepts so forcibly enunciated in the Dinkard. Among few races have religious tenets exercised so powerful an influence as among the Zoroastrian Persians, and their theological speculations are well worthy the closest study of their historian. The introduction of Magism and idolatrous worship under the Achæmenidæ may safely be held to have had its share in the downfall of the first Persian Empire; and so one element in the collapse of the Sassanians may perhaps be looked for in the changes undergone by Mazdeism. Zarvanism, for instance, to which Professor Rawlinson barely alludes, introduced a permanent and radical alteration in the primal dualistic belief, by making both the Good and Evil Principles subordinate to Zarvana Akarana, or Limitless Time; and this,

* 'The Seventh Great Oriental Monarchy; or, The Geography, History, and Antiquities of the Sassanian or New Persian Empire. Collected and illustrated from Ancient and Modern Sources. By George Rawlinson, M.A.' 1 vol. 8vo. London; Longmans; New York: Scribner, Welford & Armstrong. 1876.

again, in the system of the Minokhired, took the shape of inevitable Destiny as the power supreme over the affairs of men, thus emasculating the robust ancestral faith of the Persians with the enervating poison of Fatalism in its worst form.

It also seems to us rash to assert without qualification (pp. 622–3) that the dualistic conflict in Mazdeism was endless and eternal. What may have been, on this subject, the primitive teaching of Zoroaster and his disciples can perhaps hardly at this day be determined positively, though some passages in the earliest Gathas seem to point to an eternal struggle. There can be no question, however, that under the Sassanians the orthodox belief was in the final triumph of Ormazd over Ahriman at the expiration of the nine thousand years allotted to their mutual strife. At the Frashokereti, or final deliverance, all created beings, save Ahriman, are to be saved by the Messiah Saosyans, to be born of the virgin Eredhat-fedhri, when, after a battle of Armageddon, evil shall finally cease, and the good creation shall exist undisturbed throughout eternity. So thoroughly was this an essential part of faith, that its profession is a test of orthodoxy in the Khordah-Avesta and the Dinkard.

We cannot but think, moreover, that Professor Rawlinson is in error in adopting the generally received opinion that animal sacrifices formed part of the original Mazdean worship; but to prove this would require more space than we have at our disposal. We observe, also, that in his description of the Homa ceremony, he speaks of the distribution of the Homa juice among the worshippers after the officiating priest had partaken of it. In this he differs from Haug ('Essays,' p. 239), our best authority, who says that after the preparation of the Parahoma, or sacred liquor, it is tasted only by the priest, the remainder being thrown into a well. The point is not without interest in consequence of the strange similarity between the Izeshne sacrifice (the regular form of Mazdean worship, in which the Homa offering occurs) and that of the Mass. The Draona, or thin wafer of unleavened wheaten bread, which is consecrated by the priest and then eaten by both priest and laity, is not unlike the Host; while the cup seems to have its prototype in the Homa or Vedic Soma. Now, it is well known that in the early Christian church the laity were admitted to communion in both elements. The Manicheans, whose heresy consisted in an effort to fuse together the Christian and Mazdean systems, borrowed from the latter the refusal of the cup to the laity, and their administration of communion in one element was, in the fifth century, regarded as a test of their heresy (Leon. PP. I. Serm. XLII. c. 5). It is, therefore, interesting to trace the introduction of this Mazdean practice into the Latin Church, which, among other innovations derived from Manicheism, adopted the withholding of the cup from the laity, and this so irrevocably that she was unmoved both by the revolt of the Hussites in the fifteenth century and the earnest pleadings of orthodox Germany at the Council of Trent.

The strange career of the communistic heresiarch Mazdak and his deluded followers is briefly but clearly traced out by Professor Rawlinson—the illogical favor at first shown to them by Kobad I. with the revolution which it entailed, and their subsequent massacre both by Kobad and Chosroes I. They were not, however, finally exterminated by the latter, as stated in the Index (p. 679). We learn from the 'Dabistan' that in the middle of the seventeenth century Mazdakanians still existed in Persia, where copies of their sacred book, the Desnad, were in circulation, though the dangerously revolutionary nature of their doctrines obliged them to keep their faith concealed from the authorities.

Possibly, if the 'Seventh Oriental Monarchy' shall, as it deserves, soon pass into a second edition, the author may deem it consistent with his plan to elaborate in more detail the religious system of the Sassanids; but, whether he does so or not, his work will remain as a standard authority on a most interesting period, and all who consult it will join with us in hoping that he will not consider his mission accomplished. Great as is the amount of good work that he has performed, it only leads us to wish for still further benefits from his indefatigable labors.

THE GERMAN COINAGE.*

PROF. JEVONS, in his recent work on 'Money,' remarks that so much discussion has been recently devoted to paper money and the numerous kindred forms of credit as to produce an impression that the specie basis itself—that is, the coinage—is a point of perfect rest. This is peculiarly true of the United States, where for fifty years past gold coin in circulation and silver coin larger than half-dollars have been so rare as, when seen, rather to excite curiosity. Specie with us meant, at the best, a means of foreign remittance and an index, sometimes acting very violently, of the condition of the banks. But if we consider that in the last five years silver has fallen relatively to gold about fifteen per cent., or the full amount of the premium on gold as compared with our paper, the problem in this regard has evidently become serious. The Bank of France holds some 350 millions of specie against less than 500 millions of notes. Yet the greatest obstacle to positive resumption seems to lie in the difficulties of the double standard. It is better to have a paper money alone which is practically on a par with gold, than to make that paper redeemable equally in gold or silver, with the result that the former would infallibly be drained off, leaving silver alone as the actual basis, at least for the time, and thus creating a considerable depreciation in the paper resting upon it. The German Empire seems to have successfully encountered a corresponding difficulty by its establishment of the single gold standard, and that, too, in time to escape the consequences of the heaviest fall in silver; so far, its finances are in better condition than those of France. But in other respects the reverse of this is true. The world has seen with surprise that, notwithstanding the payment of the war indemnity, Germany has seemed to become steadily poorer and more depressed, while France has exhibited unusual prosperity, and the Bank of France, by having the courage to accumulate an enormous mass of specie, has brought its inconvertible paper to par, and left indeed no obvious reason, except that above mentioned, why actual redemption should not take place.

This state of things has nettled the Germans not a little, and the book under review was written to show that it cannot be charged to the operations of the coinage law. Two accusations are especially deprecated by Dr. Bamberger: first, that a valuable opportunity was lost for promoting an international money, by adopting a coinage readily interchangeable with francs, already in such extensive use; and second, that after the accumulation of a large quantity of gold by the mint, the new coin was paid out at such a time and in such a manner as to lead to its export in large quantities, causing some mirth among foreigners and a good deal of internal dissatisfaction. While, however, we appreciate the general soundness of the analysis of the operation and effects of money and the exchanges, we are obliged to confess that upon the two particular points in question the answers do not appear to be conclusive. As we understand it, the true idea of international money is that each nation should make its coins—that is, the portion of them which is represented by the universal standard gold—of such size, weight, and fineness as to be simple multiples of each other, and readily interchangeable in large or small sums with the least trouble of calculation, and without any international legal-tender quality. Dr. Bamberger says that people would be liable to loss by foreign depreciated or worn coin intruding into their domestic circulation. But, first, any state allowing its own coin to be depreciated would be simply thrown out of gear and find that its coin would only circulate at home, where it was legal tender; secondly, worn coin would seek its own home for the same reason; and lastly, if any nation suspended specie payment, and resorted to paper, its demonetized gold, flowing to other countries, would simply make money more abundant there, without any disturbance of the standard. In fact, it would be the highest compliment to the legal-tender coinage of one country that its company was sought for by all the best coins of other nations. Dr. Bamberger says that monetary conventions inconsistent with national freedom are necessary for a common money, and urges the bad effects of the convention of 1857 between Prussia and Austria, in consequence of which, through the increase of paper money in Austria, the silver of the latter flowed in to depreciate the double currency of Prussia; and, again, of the convention of 1865 between the Latin countries, in consequence of which, through the depreciated paper of Italy, the silver of the latter flowed in to disturb the currency of France; after the suspension in France, too, her silver caused similar inconveniences in Belgium and Switzerland. But these, as remarked, are objections against the double standard. As regards gold coin, no convention seems to be required. On the other hand, nations which have the single standard provide themselves with silver-token coins for change, by making them legal tender for small amounts only, and limiting the amount of the total production. Through the medium of the gold coins these tokens would be brought into simple arithmetical relations with those of other countries; but if those countries, through misconduct or misfortune, are compelled to export their coin, the silver would take the form of simple bullion, and could not depreciate the tokens whose artificial value it could not share. We quote one sentence from Dr. Bamberger which, though it does not appear to furnish any sound argument against international circulation, does set forth with amusing *naïveté* the reason of the German distaste for it: "What irony, for example, would lie in a common coinage which at Paris should be stamped with the motto, 'God protect

* 'Reichs Gold' (Studies upon the Standard and the Exchanges). By Ludwig Bamberger. Leipzig: F. A. Brockhaus; New York: Westermann. 1876.

France'—that is, God will give us back by-and-by Metz and Strassburg; and at Berlin, with the motto, 'God with us'—that is, God will help us to defeat your purposes." We consider as unrefuted the charge that Germany, by preserving a fractional difference in her gold coin, did adhere to the traditional policy of isolation, in preference to promoting the comfort, the convenience, and the friendly intercourse of mankind.

As to the second point, Dr. Bamberger maintains that the export of coin depends upon the state of the exchanges; that these were adverse to Germany from causes antecedent to the war, which even the indemnity did not overcome; and that the new coinage furnished merely the natural and proper means of meeting indebtedness. He sets forth very clearly both the general principles governing the exchanges and the peculiar circumstances acting between Germany and France; but we think he does not sufficiently appreciate the fact that the power which has control of the currency can, by contraction or expansion, powerfully and almost immediately affect the exchanges, and that the German Government, by paying out its new gold coin while the exchanges with the existing currency were nearly at the exporting point, merely caused the former to glide over the old money and leave the country. Had they, with a sharp eye on the exchanges, withdrawn the old coin and notes in just sufficient proportion as they paid out the gold, they might at least have escaped the disadvantage and discredit of its loss.

We take leave of this interesting treatise with the remark that a translation of it would surpass in value most of our original literature on kindred subjects.

RECENT NOVELS.*

THOSE who remember that pleasant novel, 'My Little Lady,' will gladly take up another story by the same author, but 'Ersilia' will hardly be found as attractive as its predecessor. The heroine, Princess Zaraikine, is represented as an attractive, generous enthusiast, more like a woman of thirty than one of twenty-three, who has been deserted by her husband, and, thinking him dead, falls in love with and is about to marry an Englishman, when the detested Prince returns to the surface of society and brings about a great deal of confusion. The narrative is awkward, with long parentheses, and digressions and perplexing interchanges between the first and third persons, so that the pathos is diluted by a feeling of weariness, but, on the other hand, the people are for the most part vividly drawn, and there are here and there pretty bits of description of scenery. The story, as a whole, is made up for a direct attack on the reader's emotions—which is fair enough, for one does not take up a novel for scientific instruction—but at times the author of 'Ersilia' seems to have overdone the depressing scenes, as where the Prince who has just shot in a duel the man whom the Princess expected to marry, tries to keep his wife from seeing him when he is dying.

In 'An Odd Couple' Mrs. Oliphant portrays a milder and more frequent form of marital unhappiness, which, however, by a little stretch of the art of the novelist in search of an interesting plot, leads to the separation of the husband and wife, Mr. and Mrs. Tremenheere. The father retains the daughter and the mother takes the son, and both suffer from Mrs. Oliphant's gentle satire, who always writes as if she had observed countless households and was never weary of describing the amusing scenes that took place before her. Her field is a very narrow one; she seldom goes outside of the parlor in her simple but charming stories, unless it be to give a little rap at some clergyman or other who is affected in church; but on her own ground she is without a rival. She is a worthy successor to Jane Austen. 'An Odd Couple' appeared as the Christmas story of the London *Graphic*, and hence when issued in book-form it gives us an impression of rather light weight, but it is admirably adapted for what was originally intended. Her 'Curate in Charge' is more complicated than 'An Odd Couple,' in spite of its sudden end, which seems more like a freak of the printer and binder than the result of the writer's determination, unless, indeed, as she has done before, she is going to give us more of the story of these people in another novel. The curate in charge, Mr. St. John, is a simple-minded, unworldly parish priest, who, after retaining a position for twenty years, is turned out by a very highly cultivated young man from Oxford, who knows more about old china and rare engravings than he does about human nature. Mr. St. John finds himself about to be cast out helpless into the world, without means or hope of support for his four children. Two of these are daughters, Cecil and Mabel, and they are both admirably described as few besides Mrs. Oliphant can describe young girls. Cecil's generous practical nature is especially well drawn. As we have said, the book ends suddenly, but it clearly points to her happy marriage.

'Miss Hitchcock's Wedding-Dress' is like a farce told in the form of a novel, with about as much literary merit as goes to the making of the poetry on very filagreed valentines. A slighter, more trivial story it would be hard to find. If 'Mrs. Jerningham's Journal' had not happened to hit the fancy of the public, it is probable that 'Miss Hitchcock's Wedding-Dress' would not have appeared. Its proper place would have been in the newspaper of some fair, where there is always a demand for what bears the same relation to real literature that the buying and selling at such places do to the ordinary routine of commerce.

Those who like the novels of Miss Rhoda Broughton will be glad to hear of 'Comin' thro' the Rye,' which, if it is not written by that author, yet reads like the work of a favorite disciple and a warm admirer of her books. All the rowdiness of Miss Broughton's stories is to be found here—if anything rather exaggerated—with a love-story different from hers in its strict preaching of exalted morality. The best part of the book is that which describes the heroine's childhood; the accounts of her "governor's" domestic tyranny, his bad temper, and her pranks with her brothers and sisters, are very amusing and indeed they narrowly escape being pathetic. When the love-story appears, the book falls off, and it ends in as shocking bad taste as can be imagined. The last words of her lover sent to the heroine speak of going through "God's rye." But good taste is not this writer's strong point. Indeed, her vulgarity is amazing in quantity and quality, but yet she is bright, and her book is in its way entertaining. There is a great deal that is natural in the telling of the story, and a great deal of *life* in it which is often lacking in French novels that are artistically more perfect, and in German novels that bear witness of infinitely more pains on the part of the writer. Slapping on the back, pillow-fights, and romps of every sort crowd the book from cover to cover; but the heroine, who never opens her lips except to talk the loudest slang or to make irreverent remarks about her elders, is a well-drawn creature, and her two lovers, the good one whom she does not like, and the bad one whom she prefers, are by no means sticks. The plot is not a very new one, but it is told so as to leave a lump in the throat of the unfastidious reader.

'Diana Carew' portrays the pursuit of a young woman by two or more lovers, of whom she chooses the one least worthy of her, rejecting for him a young earl of enormous wealth and a very eligible elder brother. If 'Guy Livingston' had never been written, Lord Rexborough's thin flanks would be less prominent, and Lady Gwyneth's fastness less aggressive, and Charles Montague would not have seemed so like a friend of our infancy, and the languor of his blue eyes and the elegance of his manners would be possibly more imposing than they are likely to be to novel-readers accustomed to tiger-like heroes and their cloying success. But out of this somewhat threadbare material the author has made a story which has some slight claims to novelty, in that the heroine does not marry one of her good lovers and become happy, but marries instead the less noble one and is really happy, so that after all she knew better than her readers what was best for her. While 'Diana Carew' is not exactly a rowdyish novel, it gives descriptions of very unpleasantly fast society, in which ladies take pleasure in making boys drink too much, in flirting madly with every man they meet, in playing at cards for money—in a word, in coming dangerously near some of those older amusements of English society immortalized in plays that are, for satisfactory reasons, never put upon the stage.

'Pausanias, the Spartan' will serve better as a memorial of the filial affection and respect of the present Lord Lytton than of his father's skill in the writing of delightful romances. The historical novel is always a difficult problem for an author, because in his anxiety to get his history right he is apt to let the romantic part go by the board, and a critic who has a reputation to make will be likely to regard an anachronism as a much more serious fault than a wholly unnatural character or an impossible combination of incidents. If the novelist succeeds, however, the history sinks into comparative insignificance. Lord Lytton, in urging the claims of this book, asserts that his father was peculiarly able to treat of this subject, not only by "the intuitive penetration of character and motive which is common to every great romance-

* 'Ersilia. By the author of 'My Little Lady.'' Leisure Hour Series. New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1876.
'An Odd Couple. By Mrs. Oliphant.' International Series. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates. 1876.
'The Curate in Charge. By Mrs. Oliphant.' New York: Harper & Bros. 1876.
'Miss Hitchcock's Wedding-Dress. By the author of 'John Jerningham's Journal,' 'A Very Young Couple,' etc., etc.' New York: Scribner, Armstrong & Co. 1875.
'Comin' thro' the Rye. A Novel.' New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1876.
'Diana Carew; or, For a Woman's Sake. By Mrs. Forrester, author of 'Dolores,' etc., etc.' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1876.
'Pausanias, the Spartan. An Unfinished Historical Romance. By the late Lord Lytton (edited by his Son).' Globe Edition. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.; Toronto: Belford Bros. 1876.

writer," but also by his "habit of dealing *practically* with political questions, and [his] experience in the active management of men." But what sort of a novel is it probable that General Washington would have written? Yet, surely, if *à priori* arguments of this sort can be admitted, he could have made his fortune by writing romances; and, with regard to Lord Lytton's intuitive interpretation of characters and motives, perhaps the less said the better. Nothing could be vaguer than the figures representing abstract qualities or literary formulas which fill his books. German and French critics always set him much higher than do those who speak his own language. Karl Hillebrand, in his last volume, acknowledges all his faults, but asserts for him that, although his philosophy and his poetry are equally empty, he yet has a feeling for them both, and, moreover, that he has an air of refinement which atones for all his deficiencies. These critics may perhaps be able to praise 'Pausanias.' To most of us it will seem to be a vain attempt to make human beings out of musty remains, and to picture before us a state of society of which our means of knowledge are almost nothing. One thing is tolerably sure, however, and that is that no man or woman, outside of some few theatres, ever walked about and talked as do the characters in this novel, which, especially in view of its unfinished condition, might well have been left unprinted.

Mr. James Payn is a busy writer, but there are some other qualities which he lacks. In his latest novel, 'Halves,' the hero falls in love with the ward of a disreputable attorney, and in order to be near the object of his affections he begins the study of the law in her guardian's office. This guardian at dinner one day makes mention of a compact he had made with his brother, when they were both much younger, that if either should ever make any money he would share it with the other if he were in need. Soon afterwards the other brother appears, sun-burned, white-bearded, with a menagerie of tropical animals and birds, and at first, being considered rich, is petted; afterwards, he gives himself out for poor, and receives all manner of contumely and ill-treatment from his sister-in-law and brother, who had been thinking a good deal about the compact. In short, this sister-in-law does not seem to have read many novels, or her conduct would have been discreeter; she would not have turned the wanderer out of her house when he really had more money than he knew what to do with. In other respects the conduct of this lady was reprehensible, and especially in endeavoring to poison her husband's ward with a horse-hair sofa, not at one meal but homœopathically, the horse-hair being cut into infinitesmal pieces and sprinkled like salt or pepper on her food. Quite as startling is the dummy who draws an annuity, and who is really as lifelike as any one in the book. It would be unnecessary to give all the ingenious intricacies of the plot: of course the young hero marries the girl who survived the attempt at poisoning her, and they inherit all the rich brother's money, while the others come to bad ends, one, indeed, becoming a member of the "Ring" of this city, according to Mr. Payn.

'Davault's Mills' is well-written, and displays here and there pleasant touches of humor and intelligent observation, but it lacks the compactness which is needed for the successful treatment of a story. The development of the plot runs on too calmly, and the conversations of the characters, although natural enough in themselves, sometimes give too little aid in bringing matters to the necessary crisis, so that the eager reader of novels, accustomed to more fiery draughts, will perhaps find this tale pall upon his taste.

Any one meditating a trip to Brooklyn or to Jersey City and exceedingly anxious to wile away the monotony of the journey, will perhaps be satisfied with two brief novelettes, 'The Summerfield Imbroglio,' by Mr. Mortimer Collins, and 'A Lucky Disappointment,' by Florence Marryat. At the end of the voyage the books may well be left in the ferry-boat, for it would be hypercritical to say that they are not better reading than the framed advertisements or the "Warnings to Passengers."

History of the United States. By J. A. Doyle. With Maps illustrative of the acquisition of Territory and the increase of Population, by Francis A. Walker, Professor of History and Political Economy in the Sheffield Scientific School of Yale College. (New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1876. 16mo, pp. 404.)—Mr. Doyle's 'History of the United States' will be found, we believe, one of the very best of Mr. Freeman's series, and, as an "outside view" of our country, deserves to be welcomed and widely known among us. In such an outside view the idea of proportion is one of the most important points, and in the present case it is an interesting and significant one. The book is in the main a history of the colonial period, which occupies considerably more than half of its pages, the events which led immediately to the Revolution being introduced on page 224. Comparing this with leading American historians, we find that Eliot gives to this period only 179 pages out of 466, and Hildreth two volumes out of six—neither of these historians, by the way, coming down to so late a period as Mr. Doyle. As might be expected from this proportion, the history of the American Republic is meagre and unsatisfactory, while that of the colonial period is admirably full and clear. Even for this period we do not approve of the arrangement, although we admit that no possible arrangement is free from objections. Still, it appears to us clear that the colonial period as a whole is properly divided into two parts, the first embracing the planting of the colonies, ending with that of Pennsylvania in 1682; for the settlement of Georgia in 1733 was a mere incident. Again, we are inclined to think that the most perspicuous arrangement in this period of colonization is, after narrating the settlement of Jamestown, to take them up in three groups—New England, the Middle States, and the South—treating each of them by itself until the revolution of 1688, which forms nearly as important an epoch in American as in English history. But Mr. Doyle, after a chapter bringing the history of Virginia down to the Revolution, does the same by New England in six chapters, following these with Maryland, New York, the Carolinas, the Quaker colonies, and Georgia, with a chapter for each in the order here given. Two chapters then bring the military and the internal history down to the commencement of the Revolution. We think that this arrangement deprives our colonial history of the unity which really belongs to it.

Besides Prof. Walker's excellent maps, he has corrected a number of errors in detail, as we are told in the Note. He very properly, however, did not venture to alter Mr. Doyle's judgments, otherwise he would unquestionably have challenged the surprising statement, p. 335, that the Abolitionists "ventured to put forward the doctrine that Congress ought to suppress slavery." Other statements, correct in themselves, carry a false impression, because the compression of the post-Revolutionary period made it impossible to enter sufficiently into detail. For example, p. 299, after speaking of certain excusable removals from office by Jefferson, it is said, "Later Presidents, however, have, without any such excuse, followed his example," nowhere intimating that this gigantic abuse began with Jackson, twenty-eight years later. So, on p. 336, John Brown at Harper's Ferry is represented as the attacked party.

King and Commonwealth: A History of Charles I. and the Great Rebellion. By B. Meriton Cordery and J. Surtees Phillpotts. (Philadelphia: J. H. Coates & Co. 12mo, pp. 399.)—This is a very excellent little book, containing probably the best brief history of the Great Rebellion—or rather, as it is now often called, the English Revolution—that is to be found. It has two conspicuous merits that are not always found together: it is very good in its treatment of constitutional points, and it is full of well-selected and interesting incidents. A very instructive table at the beginning gives an analysis of the English Government in the seventeenth century, in which the arbitrary features are distinguished from those that rest upon law, by being printed in italics. This depicts very forcibly to the eye the nature and the details of that great contest against Prerogative which forms the most important single series of events in English history. The first chapter is in great part a commentary upon this table, and is sufficiently full and explicit upon everything except the arbitrary side of Civil Judicature. In regard to this, no reason is given for mentioning the *Council Board* by the side of the *Star Chamber;* moreover, there were other arbitrary courts of the same character as the *Council of North* which are not mentioned—for example, those of the Welsh Marches and of the Duchy of Lancaster. The battles are well described, and illustrated with a number of plans—a peculiarly valuable feature, as we do not remember any generally accessible book that contains them. The judgments of men and events seem to us generally just, but the authors do not appear to have made use of Mr. Gardiner's studies with regard to the early career of Strafford; even Strafford and Laud have a right to more credit than they receive here, and it would noways lessen their deserved infamy. The book is always interesting, by reason of its matter, but the style is neither easy nor correct.

Life-Histories of the Birds of Eastern Pennsylvania. By Thomas G. Gentry. (Philadelphia: Published by the Author. 1876. In two vols. Vol. I., 12mo, pp. xvi.–399.)—In spite of what might be inferred from its

'Halves: A Novel. By James Payn, author of 'The Best of Husbands,' etc., etc.' New York: Harper & Bros. 1876.

'Davault's Mills: A Novel. By Charles Henry Jones.' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1876.

'The Summerfield Imbroglio. A Tale. By Mortimer Collins.' Boston: Loring. 1876.

'A Lucky Disappointment. By Florence Marryat.' Boston: Loring. 1876.

typography, this treatise gives a great deal of information not to be found in any one of the works on American ornithology which have multiplied so rapidly of late. Mr. Gentry's previous minor writings showed him to be a close and careful observer, and on his first appearance in book-form he brings together a large amount of novel and interesting information relating to the habits of our familiar birds, noting many minutiæ which escape most persons, and which form little part of the conventional practice of ornithology. He pays special attention to the matter of food, taking many inventories of the actual contents of stomachs examined, identifying the insects and fruits by their technical names; and is likewise strong on the subject of nidification and its accessories. We repeat, that we have in this treatise a decided acquisition; and after our surfeit of compilation and repetition, we like the flavor of anything fresh. Mr. Gentry's book is nothing if not original; and we are quite sure that this contribution will at once put him in the category of authors to be quoted from for an indefinite period. There is no technicality about the book; the classification and nomenclature are after Dr. Coues; the literary execution is open to much criticism, especially when the writer essays poetry. We trust the author may find a publisher for his second volume, if for no other reason than that the mechanical execution may be more worthy of so excellent a treatise. The present volume looks as though it might have been printed at a village job-office.

Die Klage, mit vollständigem kritischen Apparat, etc. Herausgegeben von Dr. Anton Edzardi. (Hannover: Rümpler. 1875.)—Like Bernhardt's edition of 'Vulfila,' the present work is a striking evidence of the rapid strides made by German philology. As a specimen of typography and minute research into manuscript readings it stands even higher, perhaps, than Bernhardt's work. The 'Klage,' or dirge, is an appendix to the 'Nibelungenlied.' It is composed in a different metre, and by another and inferior hand. It consists in part of a résumé, so to speak, of the 'Lied,' in part of other matter, and has always been regarded as a valuable commentary to the greater poem. By an ingenious arrangement of the page the editor has made evident to the eye the variants contained in eleven manuscripts, as well as his conjectural restorations of certain passages of the lost original from which all the present versions are assumed to have sprung. He has thus done more for the 'Klage' than Bartsch has done for the 'Lied' in his would-be variorum edition of 1870. In fact, the present work makes us regret more keenly than ever the want of a similar edition of the 'Lied,' which is so much more important in every respect. An Introduction of eighty-five pages gives the editor's views of the various manuscripts, of the style, vocabulary, and origin of the poem. These views coincide in the main with the Pfeiffer-Bartsch theory (see *Nation*, No. 561). It becomes thus more and more evident that scholarly ingenuity, after years of angry and fruitless controversy, is at last working out a tolerable solution of the mystery that once attached to the great German mediæval epic.

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Fine Arts.

THE PENNSYLVANIA ACADEMY.

THE new Academy of Fine Arts was opened on Saturday week, and, as an enterprise perfected without Governmental aid, a machine for æsthetic culture set up by a few private persons, it must be accepted as unique. New Yorkers have had sufficiently dinned into their ears, perhaps, in orations at the Metropolitan Museum and other suitable appeals to liberality, the unprecedented gifts which made its erection possible—how twenty-three persons paid $10,000 each almost at once, and the rest of the cost was raised as fast as needed, entirely from the exertions and liberal example of the President. While enjoying the happiness of a city so rich in Mæcenases, and giving all credit to Mr. Claghorn for his energy, we must set down the historical fact that the Philadelphians have pretty much starved out their artists in building them a house. During the years that the enthusiasm available for art-patronage has been directed to this scheme, the emigration of painters from the city has been noteworthy. New York has profited by the circumstance; and it will take years of conciliation and a total change of bent for the patrons of Philadelphia to revive the once flourishing breed of painters whom they have sacrificed for certain stones and mortar.

The building is at Broad and Cherry Streets, protected all round by open thoroughfares or land owned by the Academy, so that the problem of lighting is solved for all time. The construction is tasteful, in what we believe is called the Lombard-Gothic style, an order which is able to combine realism and nature-study in the ornament with general suavity of line and proportion. An art-museum, as it demands light from the ceilings, cannot well be a lofty structure; and the side-aspect of this Academy, with its great depth, approaching three hundred feet, is a little shed-like. But the façade on Broad Street is handsome and decorative, with an air of great honesty in construction. The material is everywhere arranged in masses; the interior stairway contains stones comprising three steps each of fifteen feet width; the stair balustrades are massive bronze; the well in which the stairs are placed, decorated to a great height with a carved diaper-pattern in gold and colors, is broadly rich in effect. The best counsels were invited as the work progressed. For the draining of the floor of the modelling-room, and its arrangements for hoarding masses of moist clay, and abundant water facilities, advice was asked of Mr. Roberts the sculptor; similarly, for the largest life-class room, the lighting was not projected until after taking advice from the professor of the Sketch-Club life-class, Mr. Eakins. The arrangements are, therefore, practicable as well as enormous in scale. A good thought was the providing of a private door for the

admission of the life-models near the porter's office, so that these personages are not seen by those inside the building until they emerge in what may be called a plastic condition from the dressing-room. The Academy contains a fine collection of plaster-casts amassed during the past seventy years, and varying in date from the old Louvre casts presented by Napoleon, to the latest moulds obtainable in Europe. Its picture-museum is well-known. Everybody refers to it for the study of West—a study not so entirely without reward as it is the fashion to pretend. The "Christ Rejected," "Death on the Pale Horse," "Paul at Athens," though too gigantic to be fully distended by the artist's afflatus, are a perpetual appeal to the great classic principles without which no good historical picture can be constructed. The examples of Allston, Leslie, and Gilbert Stuart are admirable. A pair of large views by Joseph Vernet, from the Joseph Bonaparte Collection, are unsurpassed in their way in Europe, and there are interesting examples by Le Brun, David, Gaspard Poussin, Salvator, Van Goyen, and Van der Helst. The directors' enterprise in buying up certain unwieldy but instructive *rejetons* from the Paris Exposition, such as Faruffini's "Macchiavelli and Borgia" and Gastaldi's "Parisina"—works medalled in France—has endowed the Academy with large furniture-pictures, which its enlarged wall-space now greatly needs; a similar spirit has made it the repository of certain Teutonic melodramas, more remarkable for ponderosity than fineness, and slightly boring the ordinary visitor with the unheard-of names of Wittkamp, Guffens, and Schweminger. The works in marble begin with a fine colossal antique from Greece, temporarily mounted on the front of the building; it is in a decapitated state, though the proper head has been identified in the British Museum, and a cast can doubtless be procured; in modern sculpture, there are Steinhauser's "Hero and Leander," Lombardi's "Deborah," and various other works, by such men as Ceracchi (one of the founders of the first Academy), Rush the woodcarver, Rinaldi, Powers, and Mosier. Story's "Jerusalem," a favorable example of his overrated literary style, was unveiled at the opening. Of the antique casts, largely increased in number lately by the intelligent selections of Mr. Sartain, it is unnecessary to speak further, except to emphasize the fact that they are the completest collection in this country. The largest work of Mr. John Lough, a British sculptor who, though immortalized by Mrs. Browning in 'Lady Geraldine,' has been forgotten by the world for thirty years—a "Battle of the Centaurs," with twenty life-sized figures in a pyramid—was installed in the principal corridor, and exhibited to the public just as the English papers were announcing the artist's death.

The opening of the building also marked the resumption of the usual spring exhibitions, held since 1811, we believe. There were several reasons why the annual exposition could not be expected this year to be a success. Every effort having been strained to fill the American department at the Centennial, the present display is confessedly inadequate. It comprises, however, among a sad infirmary of invalides, a good bust by Howard Roberts, illustrating the nursery myth that children are produced "Out of the Cabbage"; Mr. Humphrey Moore's "Almeh," a life sized group of two figures, not heretofore exceeded in technic in this country, and doing justice to the painter's successive instructors, Gérôme, Fortuny, and the two Madrazos; a couple of Mr. W. T. Richards's best works, with examples of Rothermel, Hamilton, and E. Moran; a head of an Italian boy, by Mr. W. Sartain, perhaps a little finer than even his "Contadina" at the New York Academy; efforts by the Sketch Club and by the Philadelphia group of etchers, among which P. Moran's "Dying Lioness" is remarkably good; and, in fact, the exhilaration of a cupful of sack to an intolerable deal of bread.

The Pennsylvania Academy is an example of an art-conservatoire conducted mainly by the patronage of the rich. It is to be watched as a typical instance of the behavior of such an institution lifted completely out of the keeping of the artists. Our New York Academy, an ambitious affair retained within the hands of the artists themselves, has had a rather piteous history of debt and jealousy. Whether there is more life in an Academy saved from such vicissitudes, under the rule of a kindly despotism, it is for the Philadelphia institution, the oldest and richest in America, to prove.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 11, 1876.

The Week.

THE refusal to surrender Winslow does not seem at this moment to be final. It appears from Mr. Fish's letter to Mr. Hoffman that the British have at least in one case recently, but before the passage of the Act of 1870, done what they are now seeking to preclude us from doing, by trying for larceny a man named Heilbronn, who was surrendered by the United States for forgery, while there are other precedents less directly in point, but all tending to show that the practice between the two countries has been heretofore in accord with our present claim. The point was also raised in 1873 in the Queen's Bench in the Bouvier case, under the English extradition treaty with France, but was disposed of by showing that the French Government did not need to give any pledge not to try a man for any other offence than the one for which he was surrendered, inasmuch as its practice in this matter was settled by a circular of the Minister of Justice in 1841, addressed to the French magistrates, forbidding the trial of any extradited prisoner for any offence but the one for which he had been surrendered, and directing that whenever in any case evidence of a new crime should come to light in the course of the proceedings, a fresh demand, with the usual formalities, should be made on the country from which the criminal had come for his surrender on this new charge. As this circular was based, we believe, on general principles of international law, and not on any municipal enactment, and as the French have bestowed more attention on the subject of extradition than probably any other nation, it seems to confirm the position we ventured to assume a month ago, that the British would have been justified in asking us for the pledge in Winslow's case and all other cases, without regard to the Act of 1870; and that it was a mistake on their part to plead that Act in defence of their course. Their Government had the right to do what it is doing before the Act was passed. The effect of the Act on them is to compel them to exercise this right in all cases. On our duties it has, of course, absolutely no effect whatever. The English press, too, seems to be under the impression that this Government cannot give the required pledge as regards its own courts, and that when a prisoner gets into the hands of the United States courts they may try him for any offence they please. This also is a mistake. The District-Attorney has full control of all prosecutions, and is an officer of the Executive. The difficulty arises only with cases like Winslow's, which are cognizable only by the State courts. Here the Federal Government cannot give any pledge, but the difficulty might be got over by Congressional legislation, making a pledge from the State government one of the papers necessary to put the extradition machinery of the Federal Government in motion against persons guilty of offences within the jurisdiction of the State courts only.

The Senate has been occupied during the week chiefly with hearing the arguments on the question of jurisdiction after resignation. General Belknap's counsel seem to rely chiefly on the inconvenience of an officer of the Government becoming liable to impeachment for an indefinite time after he has ceased to be an officer and maintain that the framers of the Constitution could not have intended such an absurdity. That it is inconvenient for the culprit is no doubt true, but for the Government and the public it is just the reverse. The statutes of limitation with regard to criminal offences will always make it possible for people in Belknap's position to escape the meshes of the law; and the value of the process of impeachment is, that notwithstanding this possible evasion of punishment, there is one way in which they can always, as long as they live, be brought up and disqualified from all further official malfeasance. The unlimited character of the jurisdiction as to time is, therefore, instead of being an inconvenience, its highest recommendation. The counsel for the defence have endeavored to draw an appalling picture of the abuse of the process likely to follow from a decision in favor of jurisdiction over resigned officers, through wholesale impeachments of obnoxious politicians by a Senate and House in accord with each other. That this peril is wholly imaginary is proved by the fact that impeachment is a process which is hardly ever used, simply because it is cumbrous and takes up a great deal of time. The arguments by both sides have been strong, that of Mr. George F. Hoar attracting a great deal of attention because of its outspoken denunciation of corruption "in all its forms." The House has discussed and passed by a majority of fifteen votes the bill to carry out the Hawaiian treaty. Speeches were made against it, and the job was pretty well exposed; but the argument that the House could not, by refusing its support, nullify the action of the treaty-making power, seems to have been the conclusive one.

The Democratic investigators could hardly have done Senator Morton a more valuable service than by accusing him of fraud in the levying and equipment of the Indiana troops during the rebellion, and thus drawing attention to his "war record," which is all the "record" he has that will bear examination. Of course, there was nothing to be found out. Mr. Morton is not a peculator; he is much too 'cute and far-seeing for that; and he, like ever so many others, did render valuable service as "a war governor." Like Butler, his tastes and character made him a prominent and valuable man in times of tumult and disorder; and in those times he acquired a reputation and popularity which enabled him to play successfully the part of an unscrupulous and unprincipled demagogue afterwards; and, as with Butler, one of the test-signs of the triumph of reform will be his disappearance from public life. The war was hardly over when he appeared (in 1867) with Butler as the advocate of a plan for defrauding the public creditor and disgracing the country by paying off the bonds in greenbacks. When the President produced his plan of civil-service reform three years later, Morton was one of its bitterest opponents, and the most ardent supporter of the present corrupt and degrading system of appointments to office, which he pronounced the best civil service on this planet. When the currency question came up in 1874, he characteristically appeared as the advocate of inflation, and delivered speeches by the yard in its defence containing folly and falsehood in about equal proportions. Through the whole of General Grant's Administration, too, he was the principal friend and counsel in the Senate of all the disreputable carpet-bag interest at the South, and the supporter of every adventurer whom it sent up for admission to Congress. In fact, he has, during the last eight years, associated himself with only one piece of useful and honest work—the proposed change in the mode of electing the President. The rest of his activity has been purely mischievous and corrupt. It ought to be said for him, also, that with characteristic audacity he changes his opinions within twenty-four hours if he concludes they are not popular. The war has probably made no worse contribution to American politics than he except Butler, and it has made many bad ones.

They have made another serious mistake in assailing the President with interrogatories as to his absence during the summer from the seat of government, and enabled him to deliver them a crushing reply. He shows that it is none of their business where he spends his summer unless they mean to impeach him—and in that case they ought not to seek their information from him, because he is not bound to criminate himself—or unless they mean to legislate about the matter, which they do not propose. He therefore declines to state in

detail what executive acts or duties he has performed at a distance from the seat of government and how long he has been absent from it, but simply says that he has discharged all the duties attached to his office, and that the present facilities for communication are such that he has been able to discharge them as well when absent from Washington as when present in it; he denies that the Constitution imposes on the President any limitation as to the place in which he shall discharge them, or that there is any act of Congress which imposes, or seeks to impose, such limitation, and adds that, if there were, he should disregard it. He sends with the message a memorandum showing that every President, from Washington down to Lincoln, was absent a great deal from the seat of government, and performed during such absence numerous executive acts. There can be no doubt that the choice of the place where the President shall do his work is one of the many things which are necessarily left to his discretion, and which must be left to his discretion. If he persistently resides in a place in which he cannot properly attend to the public business, and the public business suffers thereby, of course he may be impeached, as for any other malfeasance in office; but neglect of duty is not to be inferred from his place of residence. The fuss which some of the Opposition have been disposed to make of late years about General Grant's passing his summers at Long Branch, has been thoroughly characteristic of the disposition to sham reform shown by many of our politicians. They are greatly agitated about the salaries, for instance, but not about the quality, of employés; and think it a great scandal that the President should not pass the hot weather in Washington, but are not troubled about his passing his time when there in dividing the public service among Congressmen as "spoils."

Mr. Chittenden, Park's attorney in the Emma Mine investigation, has been trying a little sharp practice with Mr. Clarence King's report on the property. Mr. King first saw the mine on June 8, 1873, and on June 11 made a report showing that the mine was worth little or nothing, and substantially proving that this fact must have been known when Park and Stewart effected the sale. He has been having some correspondence with the House Committee, from which it appears that Mr. Chittenden wrote a letter to the chairman, in which he says that he "consented" that a private letter of Mr. King's should go upon the record, because, as he thought, it would not add weight to Mr. King's opinion, and incidentally managed to allude to Mr. King's visit to the mine as having taken place on June 18, so as to make it appear that he wrote his report first and looked at the mine afterward. Mr. King, who is a mining expert of experience, ability, and unquestioned character, became naturally indignant at this misstatement, and wrote to Mr. Hewitt on the subject. Mr. Hewitt writes in reply that Mr. Chittenden's letter is "a most disingenuous production," and his "consenting" to Mr. King's letter going upon the record is imaginary, inasmuch as he, Mr. Hewitt, was the person who gave his consent, after Chittenden had accused him of suppressing the letter, which he, Chittenden, thought might contain something more favorable to the mine than Mr. King's official report.

The report of the Committee appointed last January to investigate the Texas frontier troubles recommends the passage of a joint resolution requiring the President to keep on the Rio Grande border two regiments of cavalry in addition to the garrison troops, and, whenever it is necessary, to send the troops, if in close pursuit of robbers with their booty, across the river, where they are to have power to "use such means as they may find necessary for recovering the stolen property and checking the raids, guarding, however, in all cases against any unnecessary injury to peaceable inhabitants of Mexico." This may at first sight seem a violent remedy, and open to the objection that we have no right to throw troops into the territory of a friendly state; but the Committee show that the right to do so for the purpose of putting down brigandage and recovering property undoubtedly exists, when the friendly power is unwilling or unable to afford redress through its own internal machinery. This is the case with Mexico. Through incompetence or connivance, she has allowed the occasional cattle-lifting raids natural to such a border as that on the Rio Grande to develop into a well-organized system of plunder, until a regular robber community has grown up on the Mexican side, provided with a kind of government, a police, and a very effective militia, well armed with the best weapons, and supporting itself entirely by raids upon American property. The Mexican Government professes the warmest desire to rid the country of this pest, but has not shown any ability to carry its promises into execution; and, from the career of Cortina, one of the leaders of the robbers, who began as a common cattle-thief, has been indicted over and over again for murder and other crimes, and finally by patient industry worked his way up to a brigadier-generalship and a position of great honor and dignity as a Mexican patriot, it may be inferred that there are permanent causes at work in Mexican society which interfere with the execution of justice. The stories got up by the Mexicans, to the effect that the raids from the Mexican side are counterbalanced by raids from our bank of the river, are treated by the Committee as without foundation; they declare that the tale is on its face false, because while the American side of the river is a tempting field for cattle-raiding operations, there is nothing on the other side to steal. Our side of the river is rich and defenceless, theirs is poor and armed to the teeth, with a population ready for plundering descents. The history of the border during the war, when the active cotton trade which sprang up with the Southern Confederacy, and the consequent influx of population, brought the raiding to an end, shows how the future growth of Texas will probably drive the robbers away; but meanwhile something ought to be done.

The scarcity of small change continued until Saturday, when it was relieved by an order from Mr. Bristow directing the Sub-Treasuries to pay out silver on checks and drafts calling for currency. The extent to which payments will thus be made is not officially announced, but it is understood to be to $2,500,000 to $3,000,000, enough to break up the hoarding of fractional notes and silver. The order did not come a moment too soon, and it would have been better had it been issued earlier. The price of silver has fallen to 53d. in London, under sales by the German Government. In Congress, two new bills relating to silver change have been introduced—one by Mr. Randall, which proposes that the Government shall continue in the silver business and shall buy $25,000,000 more silver bullion than it now has authority to do. The other was introduced by Mr. Wells, and it proposes that the mints shall be opened to all who have silver bullion, that the Government shall coin this at a fair rate, and that the limit of new subsidiary silver shall be $25,000,000. The difference between the two bills is, that Mr. Randall's would have the Government take the risk of the fluctuations in the market price of silver, and that Mr. Wells's would, while securing all the profits to the Government, have it avoid the chances of loss. Wall Street continues in a state of ferment over the railroad war, in which the New York Central maintains the position of independence recently taken, while the other lines have combined against it. Rates have been reduced, but the war thus far has been less demonstrative than in previous conflicts, and it is surmised that each party to it would welcome a settlement on honorable terms. This surmise rests on the certainty that every line must lose by a continuance of the war, and that no one of them is in a condition in which, whatever its local advantages, it can afford to make sacrifices. Money continues extremely abundant here and in London. Gold shipments have been renewed on a large scale, not because gold is wanted in London, but because there is a dearth of other kinds of remittances. The value in gold of $100 greenbacks has ranged during the week between $88 59 and $88 89.

The annual Woman's Suffrage Bill has come up in the English House of Commons, and has been defeated by an increased majori-

ty, the debate having been made remarkable beyond that of former years by a strong speech in opposition from Mr. John Bright, whose brother, Mr. Jacob Bright, is now the principal male champion of the measure. Mr. Bright admitted that he voted for the bill in 1867 under the influence of Mr. Mill, and Mr. Mill, in his 'Autobiography,' says that he (Mr. Bright) had on that occasion changed his mind under the influence of the arguments used in the discussion. Mr. Bright now says this was a mistake; that he voted for the bill under the influence of sympathy with Mr. Mill and admiration for him. He now opposes it because, he says, it is based on an assumption which he pronounces totally false, namely, that men and women form two separate and hostile classes in the community; because he thinks the extension of the suffrage to women would increase the disorder and corruption of elections, introduce strife into families, and increase the political influence of "priests, parsons, and ministers." Mr. Bright's desertion of the cause strongly confirms the view we have all along taken in these columns of the extent to which the Woman-Suffrage movement was indebted to Mr. Mill's influence for the attention it attracted a few years ago.

Its sudden growth was part of the great outburst of radical and Positivist enthusiasm which showed itself about 1855, and lasted down to 1870, and led so many people to look for a new Heaven and a new Earth, and to conclude that the best thing to do with all human institutions was to change them. In this Mr. Mill was the leader, and his influence and authority gave a large number of very high-minded persons a confidence in their own schemes and ideas which was at times comic. Since his death, his weight as a social philosopher has been steadily declining, and some of the reforms which he sustained have dropped very much out of sight, and both the French wars and the sequel to our own have caused a great sober-mindedness to descend on the world which is unfavorable to social and political experimentation. It must be said, too, that among the men the Woman-Suffrage movement has been helped more by female influence, or, in other words, the influence of sex in its more refined form, than by logic. The male champions shrink, like all true knights, from the frowns of the drawing-room, and love the gentle glow which comes from the applause of the lunch and the tea party. In fact, when one sees what can be done in even the viewless fields of speculation by the force of female flattery, one wishes it could be used for industrial purposes. If the means of applying it in this way could be discovered, it would make steam and water power seem feeble instruments of material progress.

There is talk of a conference between the representatives of the three Great Powers at Berlin or Vienna over the Eastern Question, which has had a reassuring effect, as indicating that Russia does not mean to pursue an isolated policy at least just yet. In the meantime, the German press has been discussing the rumor of the Czar's projected retirement and the accession of the Czarewitch with so much freedom and so many signs of uneasiness that the North German *Allgemeine Zeitung* administers to it a grave and carefully worded rebuke. This is apparently supposed to have emanated from high quarters, and to have been called forth by an article in the semi-official *Journal de St. Pétersbourg*, disapproving in a patronizing way, which recalled unpleasantly the relations of Germany to Russia in the old days of the Emperor Nicholas, of the proposed acquisition of the Prussian railways by the state. The *Allgemeine Zeitung* article warns the German press against "overestimating Russian friendship" and against "treating Russian friendship as an absolute political necessity to the German Government," and reminds it that the Russian alliance can only be valuable as long as it is based on mutual respect. It adds that even if the Czar does retire, which it thinks improbable, the Russian press might easily be led to mistake the true nature of the relations existing between the two countries if the German press were to show any uneasiness at seeing the throne occupied by the great-grandson of Queen Louisa of Prussia, the grandson of Princess Charlotte of Prussia, and the son of a Princess of Hesse, who is hardly likely, it says, "to abandon the traditions of his ancestors and tear asunder the ties cemented by three predecessors."

The news from Bosnia and Herzegovina is, that it is acknowledged now on all hands that the Andrássy plan of pacification is a failure, the insurgents having absolutely refused to accept it, even after a threatening remonstrance from General Rodich, the Austrian governor of Dalmatia, and that, even if they had accepted it, the Turkish Government would have been unable to carry it out, owing to want of money; that a large body of Grenzers, or Borderers—about 6,000 strong—formerly composing the Austrian military colonies on the Turkish frontier, only abolished six years ago, and even now soldiers by descent and by instinct, crossed the frontier into Bosnia, well armed and well led, easily overthrew the Turkish irregulars sent against them, dispersed several small garrisons, and effected a considerable rising of the Christian population, so that the area of the conflict has spread, and its gravity has greatly increased. There are also reports of a rising in Bulgaria, and a bloody riot has occurred at Salonica, owing to the alleged attempt of the American consul to prevent a Greek girl from turning Mohammedan. The facts are not yet clearly given, but the result was serious—the French and German consuls having been massacred. The time has evidently come for an Austrian occupation of the disturbed districts, if it is to be made at all; but the objections to this are numerous and weighty, both in the eyes of Austria herself and of Russia and Germany. What is to be done next will probably be decided on in the Conference at Berlin. Russia is said to be in favor of drawing a close cordon around the disturbed districts, and then allowing the combatants to fight it out.

In Spain, the Government has been having a valiant conflict with the Pope over the grant of liberty of worship by the new constitution, which the Pope declares is not only in conflict with the Concordat, but will, if carried out, bring down unnumbered evils on the country. In fact, nothing is more curious than the facility with which the Church adapts its views about toleration to the latitude in which it speaks. In England and America, it favors the largest liberty; in Spain, and everywhere else where there is the least chance of getting the aid of the police in suppressing freedom of worship, it protests lustily against having Protestants allowed to open their mouths in prayer or praise outside their own houses. An attempt in the Cortes to amend the constitutional provision, so as to confine dissenters to private worship, was voted down by an overwhelming majority, which is a good sign. A new difficulty, hardly less formidable than the Carlist war, has arisen with the Basque Provinces, from which the rest of Spain—*i.e.*, the conquerors in the late struggle—demand that the *fueros*, or local privileges, shall now be taken away, while the Basques as firmly declare that they will defend them at any cost. The *fueros* amount in the aggregate to practical independence, and make the connection of these provinces with the Government at Madrid hardly greater than that between our States under the old Confederation. The Basques and Navarrese elect their own municipal councils, which elect provincial assemblies, which levy the taxes and administer the government and appoint their own provincial governor, who is on a footing of equality with the corregidor—a royal commissioner sent down by the king, and who resides in the province, but has no authority, and resembles a diplomatic representative more than anything else. The share of the provinces in the national taxes is paid in a round sum by the local authorities, as if it were tribute, and it is very small in amount, and they are not subject to the conscription. They pay, in fact, no direct taxes at all, except for the support of the clergy, and, while they are cut off from the rest of Spain by the custom-house and have no right to trade with the Spanish colonies, they have absolute freedom of trade with the rest of the world. It can be easily seen that privileges of this kind, which have been held time out of memory, are not likely to be surrendered lightly in a country as badly governed as Spain.

THE REFORM OF THE PLATFORM.

THERE is, of course, nothing to be said against the strong desire and determination of the reformers in the Republican party that the person nominated for the Presidency at Cincinnati shall be himself a reformer, and not one of the men who, as has been well said, "are part of the thing to be reformed." To be a reformer, too, the candidate must be, as we endeavored to point out a fortnight ago, not simply a man who is in favor of reform in the abstract, or who is willing to do as much for reform in the Presidential chair as the existing party usages will permit, but a man who is willing to sacrifice himself for reform, willing to fight for it with the Senate and House and all the Managers, and suffer for it the endless vexations which they can inflict on him, and to trust to the people to support him in disregarding party usages. He must be a man, in short, like General Jackson, of sufficient force of character to make a revolution in the Government. Jackson made a revolution by converting the offices into party "spoils," or, in other words, by disregarding the existing usage for the gratification of his own malignity and ambition. We must now have a man who will again make a revolution and destroy the existing usage, and this time in the interest of the public; but to do this he must be, as Jackson was, a fighting man, not afraid to "embitter sentiments," or to "destroy harmony," or to "antagonize" prominent public men, or "hurt the party."

There cannot, then, be too much care taken in the choice of the candidate, for much if not all will depend on him. But, on the other hand, we trust reformers will not overlook the platform, and treat it as of no consequence, because of late years it has become, in the hands of the managers, a mere form of words signifying nothing. On the contrary, the present appears to be an excellent opportunity for reforming it as well as for reforming the candidates. It ought to be borne in mind that the platform of the party in power should differ materially from that of the party in opposition. The latter may be, and indeed can hardly help being, a mere piece of criticism, or a general declaration of principles. The former, on the other hand, should be a genuine programme of the policy to be pursued both in administration and legislation, by which the party may be afterwards judged. The Republican party has never, during its whole existence, had the kind of platform which we now need. Its object being first the restriction of slavery and then the preservation of the Union, and these being ends which admitted of large and picturesque description, while the means to them had in the nature of things to be left in the main to Providence and time, the practice of making sober and minute plans and specifications has died out among politicians. The platform of both parties has become a piece of turgid rhetoric, abounding in glittering generalities, and carefully avoiding any distinct and definite promises, and consequently supplying no means of holding the party to any strict and proper responsibility. It would have been impossible, at any time since 1865, to fasten on the Republican party any ordinary sin of commission or omission by the aid of its platforms, so carefully vague have their utterances been on all prominent topics of the day. In fact, so long as it does not actually organize a rebellion for the overthrow of the Government, it is at present useless to try to convict it out of its own mouth of any wrong-doing. It says a thing ought to be done, but does not say *when* it ought to be done; or it recommends a thing so shadowy that no critic or fault-finder can himself point out *how* it could be done; or it solemnly affirms something which no sane person ever thinks of denying, or proposes to defend something to which there is nowhere the least sign of hostility; or proclaims its desire for something to which nobody but a brute or a savage would refuse his consent. Even when it makes a specific recommendation, as, for example, of a return to specie payments or of a reform in the civil-service, it is almost sure to be so general in its terms that the party cannot be held bound to the passage of any "particular measure" which the wit of man could devise.

The general result is that the platform has become simply a display of fireworks, with which the professional politicians amuse the public during the few weeks which intervene between the nominations and the election, well knowing that after the election it will be forgotten, or that, at all events, there is nothing in it which can be made a handle of against the party management. Take as an illustration the declaration of the Philadelphia Convention in 1872 with regard to civil-service reform. It was very sweeping, and seemed to be an emphatic endorsement of the plan of reform the President was then pursuing and a condemnation of the old system. Nevertheless, when Congress met, all, or nearly all, the leading Republicans treated any attempt to change the old system with ridicule and contempt, and did so openly and without any regard to the platform.

Now, we do not mean to say that the platform should contain drafts of bills, or should even specify with minuteness what Congressional enactments should provide, or what course the Administration ought to pursue; nor do we undertake to fix the degree of particularity with which it should speak on any subject. This is a matter which must necessarily be left to the judgment of the framers of the resolutions. We simply wish to call attention to the fact that the platform must, in order to restore a proper sense of party responsibility and furnish the public with a test of party sincerity and efficiency, describe with reasonable accuracy not only what the party proposes to do, but *how* it proposes to do it. With regard to civil-service reform, it ought to give us, not general approval of reform only, or even a general proposition that reform consists in appointing good men and keeping them (for we have had this already, and it has done no good), but some account of the process by which the reform ought to be effected, sufficiently minute to enable us to ground a positive charge of treachery and deceit on any leader or manager who shirks or opposes it. And this and all else ought to be expressed in plain, homely, unambiguous English, free from cant and from bombast.

We will take leave to add that if it contained not one word about anything but civil-service reform, it would be all that the times demand; for the condition of the civil service includes almost every evil of which the American people have at this moment to complain. The seat of all the fraud and corruption and infidelity and inefficiency and negligence is to be found in it. Everything which is now most denounced in the pulpit, in the press, on the platform, and by the fireside can be surely, and for the most part directly, traced to it. Suppose the laws were faithfully executed, the taxes honestly collected, the public accounts correctly kept, all branches of the administration performed with vigor, skill, and efficiency; suppose nominations were really made by the people; suppose the best men in the State found it easy to get them; suppose the public service were attractive to that large body of the upright, sober, efficient who, unfit for strife, are willing to give faithful labor for small pay, if accompanied with security; suppose legislation were carefully considered, and framed in the light of the most recent experience of the civilized world; suppose men who had given special attention to particular subjects were listened to by Congressmen, and found little difficulty in becoming Congressmen themselves; suppose there was among all classes, and especially among the rising generation, a revival of that splendid and ennobling interest in the problems of the art of government, as applied to complicated commercial societies like ours, which distinguished the American people at the close of the last century and the beginning of this; suppose the game of trickery, chicane, and humbug which Morton, Conkling, and their kind call "politics" were to fall into disuse, and the persons who play it consigned to obscurity or forced into some honest pursuit, what should we, as citizens of a free state, have now to lament? Why, nothing—absolutely nothing. There might still be fraud, and corruption, and bad legislation; but the way to cure them, as far as may be in a world inhabited by mortal men, would be clear. The philanthropist or statesman or reformer would still have work to do in abundance, but they would work with hopefulness, and be able every day to count their gains. And what is it that hinders this most desirable consummation?

Simply, the usurpation by the legislative branch of the Government of the Executive power of making appointments to office, and the use of the power thus usurped to further the selfish aims of individuals in the almost total disregard of the public interest. The usurpation is, in fact, so great and far-reaching in its consequences that it has effected a change in the structure of the Government. The President, as he now exists, is no longer the President provided for by the Constitution; the legislature is no longer the legislature provided for by the Constitution. It has a host of new duties, to which most of its time is given, and is armed with new rights, for the protection of which almost all its votes are directly or indirectly cast. The public service is no longer the machine contemplated by the Constitution. It has no one responsible head; it works under no system of discipline or accountability. It resembles no corps of which the framers of the Government had any knowledge or foresight, and none which now exists in any civilized country. Nor is it organized either on American or foreign experience of human nature, or with reference to any peculiar needs of American business or society. It is in all respects peculiar, barbarous, unprecedented, and unparalleled. In short, the Government we live under is essentially different from that which was founded for us eighty-nine years ago, and is essentially worse, and essentially unfitted to the needs of a modern state; and the change has been effected not by legislation, but the insidious growth of an abuse begun by an unscrupulous President, and perpetuated and converted into a system by two generations of adventurers and intriguers. If the Republican party, then, wishes to bring the Republic back to the simplicity and purity of the earlier days, it must restore the old distribution of powers and duties, and reorganize the civil service on ordinary business principles. The task does not seem a great one, if we think only of the amount of labor it would require; but if we think of the effect it would produce, it seems worthy to rank with any of the greatest political changes of modern times.

SOME REASONS WHY SILVER DOES NOT CIRCULATE FREELY.

THERE is at this writing a very unpleasant hitch in the process of substituting silver for fractional currency. The fractional currency somehow disappears, and the subsidiary coins fail to appear, and the scarcity of small change is so great that it brings a premium of three or four per cent. It is now proposed to meet the difficulty by a new device, not thought of previously, namely, the redemption of greenbacks in silver, the cause of the present scarcity being supposed to be the failure of the public to bring in the fractional currency in sufficient quantities or with sufficient rapidity. Indeed, the Secretary of the Treasury is understood to be of opinion that $10,000,000 of the $40,000,000 of fractional currency supposed to be afloat have been destroyed, and will, therefore, never have to be redeemed at all. But there is also no doubt that the silver already issued is being hoarded in considerable quantities, by some from the novelty of the thing, and by others doubtless in expectation of a rise. At all events, the work of placing silver small change in the hands of the people is not going on by any means as easily and pleasantly as its promoters anticipated, and there is a good deal of doubt and difference of opinion as to the cause. This is very unfortunate, because "resumption," to be thoroughly successful, ought to succeed rapidly. There ought to be no question about it or want of belief in it on the part of the public, and no need for supplemental resumption, or for any patching up of the original process; and it was the fear that just such difficulties as these might arise that caused much of the opposition to the whole scheme.

The following little table, which recently appeared in the Boston *Herald*, and which is correct, helps in some degree to explain the difficulty that silver coin has in getting into circulation, and we commend it to the careful study of those who think silver small-change the first financial need of the day:

	Silver per oz., British Standard.	Silver per oz., American Standard.	Dollar in Subsidiary Coin.	Gold value of Greenbacks.
1871.....	61⅛d.	$1 20.6	96.9c.	89.5c.
1872.....	60 d.	1 18.9	95.5c.	89.0c.
1873	59¼d.	1 17.9	93.9c.	87.9c.
1874.....	58½d.	1 15.4	92.7c.	90.0c.
1875.....	57 d.	1 12.4	90.4c.	87.0c.
1876 (first quarter)	54½d.	1 07.5	86.4c.	88.1c.

Two things are worthy of note in this table. One is the suddenness and recentness of the fall in the value of silver, which has made it possible for it to circulate side by side with greenbacks at all; the other is the narrowness of the margin which separates it from the greenbacks now, and the smallness of the rise in its gold value, or of the fall in the gold value of the greenbacks, which is needed to make it impossible for it to circulate at all, under the well-known rule, which is now called "Gresham's law," which forbids the currency of two kinds of money of unequal value. It must be borne in mind, too, that the possibility of keeping silver afloat among us does not depend, as is usually the case, on its preserving a certain relation to a fixed and stable commodity like gold. On the contrary, it depends on its preserving a certain relation to another kind of money even more unfixed and unstable than itself, namely, irredeemable paper; so that, in making our calculations about it, we have to take into account, not one set of fluctuations, but two. We have not only to watch the ups and downs of silver, but the ups and downs of greenbacks, which are even more inscrutable than those of silver, because the quantity of silver on the market is regulated by the returns made by the mines to human labor and capital, while the value of greenbacks depends largely on the votes of a body of men mostly ill-informed with regard to the nature and functions of currency, and strongly disposed to treat the standard of value as an affair of sentiment or party interest. When we hear Senator Jones, for instance, recommending us to use silver as our standard of value, because America is the great producer of silver and odious England the great producer of gold, or Henry C. Carey urging us to have a non-exportable standard of value, because we shall then have a truly American money all to ourselves, we feel prepared to have some other statesman recommend the use of an India-rubber yard measure, because caoutchouc is a truly American product and is best worked under American patents.

Now, when the public sees the suddenness and recentness of the fall in silver, it naturally asks itself whether what has come down so suddenly may not as suddenly go up again. In fact, silver has fluctuated in the most alarming way within the last two months. It has been as low as 52¼d. in London since March 30, and now stands at 53½d.; it may be 55½d. by the 1st of June; and one of these slight oscillations might any day suddenly carry it out of the country, even supposing greenbacks to remain where they are to-day as valued in gold. But then on this point there is no certainty either. We are on the eve of a Presidential election, in which the currency question will be a leading issue; and although we believe the Republican party is on the whole sound on this question, and that the Republican candidate will in all probability be elected, we believe also that the greenback heresy has made considerable gains since Congress met; that a large proportion of the Democrats, in and out of Congress, are more or less affected by it; and that there is a feeling of uncertainty about the whole matter prevalent through the country which has much to do with the prevailing business depression. With this fog hanging over the future value of the greenback, and this very small interval between the value of the greenback and that of the new subsidiary coin, it is not surprising that the coin is found to stick fast in people's pockets and drawers when it leaves the Treasury.

It is difficult to avoid the belief, too, that both the discussions of the silver question and the legislation about it have helped to deepen the prevailing uncertainty and anxiety about the financial future, and thus to prevent the success of the silver experiment, apart altogether from the mathematical aspect of the matter. So far from being a stimulus to resumptionist opinion, we think it has weakened it, because it has revealed in a somewhat striking way the depth of

that passion for dishonesty and love of crooked ways by which some of our public men seem to be affected, as by scrofulous humor in the blood. Among the eager supporters of this scheme of silver resumption are a good many who a year ago were preaching fervently against all metallic money as barbarous and "monarchical," and lauding paper or leather money as the true democratic money of the future, but have been seized of late with an eagerness for silver money, as soon as they found that silver was fluctuating greatly in value; and they are now as anxious that the Government should resume in silver as they were a year or two ago that it should not resume at all. That is to say, their hostility to metallic currency vanished as soon as they found a metal which had lost or was losing the qualities which have, since the dawn of civilization, caused metals to be used as money. As long as silver was tolerably stable in value, and therefore fitted to be a standard, they would none of it; as soon as it began to resemble paper in its capacity of increase, and in the fluctuations of its purchasing power, they took it up, thus giving strong reason to believe that what they seek in a circulating medium is not a standard of value so much as an instrument for fraud. They have taken to silver as "the poor man's money" and the money of "the debtor class," because in its present condition it would, as a legal tender, afford abundant opportunities for cheating and give trade an aleatory character. The best money to them is what the rest of the world would call rogues' money, and as long as it is rogues' money they care nothing whether it is dug out of the ground or made of pulp and printed.

Twenty years ago, England and Portugal were the only countries in the civilized world using the gold standard exclusively. The others used silver, or both metals. Since then Germany has given up silver; so has Holland; so have Sweden and Norway and Denmark. If Russia and Austria could resume specie payments, they would undoubtedly resume in gold. Austria is at this moment endeavoring to accumulate gold for the purpose, and so in a smaller way is Russia. In the Imperial Bank at St. Petersburg the stock of gold is steadily increasing, that of silver steadily decreasing. We here in 1873 abandoned the double standard, and fell back on gold exclusively. The only countries which hold on to silver now are France, Italy, Belgium, and Switzerland, forming what is called the Latin Union, but these have had to enter into a convention restricting their coinage of silver to a certain fixed amount for each state, and, unless all signs fail, when France resumes specie payments she will resume in gold. The reason of this general abandonment of silver is simply that the late enormous increase in its quantity, and great fluctuations in its value, were depriving it of the qualities necessary to a standard of value, and converting it into rogues' money. Is it not marvellous and humiliating that it is this very circumstance which makes it attractive to many of our own statesmen, and causes them to clamor for having it made a legal tender, if not for any amount, for as great an amount as possible? They are so republican, they say, that the mere sight of a monarchy or aristocracy seeking honestly to pay its debts and keep its contracts, gives in their eyes a certain dignity and elevation to cheating and counterfeiting.

Of course, all this is no argument against the use of silver coin as token money, and legal tender for small amounts, if you have a gold standard in actual use. But it is an argument against it if you are living on irredeemable and depreciated paper. The problem of keeping it afloat then offers too much uncertainty, and too strong a temptation to gamble in both the metal and the paper. Attempting to use it, too, as we are now doing, before we have made any adequate arrangements for the restoration of gold payments, is producing new and unnecessary complication in the whole financial problem, causing the purchase of silver for more than it is worth by the sacrifice of gold which we need for other purposes, arresting the export of silver in place of gold, and rousing in the breasts of politicians, by the use of a depreciated coinage in the discharge of lawful debts, that rage for tortuous modes of dealing with the public obligations to which the prolongation of our financial imbroglio is largely due.

SCEAUX.

PARIS, April 21, 1876.

IT is no great distance from Paris to Sceaux, where once lived the celebrated Duc and Duchesse du Maine. I lately had the curiosity to see what remained of their famous estate. You reach it by the most singular little railway, constructed on a plan now quite abandoned. The carriages are made to run over the most complicated curves. You pass by the great reservoir where the waters of the Vanne were brought by the celebrated M. Haussmann—a work quite worthy of the Romans, which will soon supply Paris with abundant and pure water. The small line of railway stops at Sceaux, after passing under the new aqueduct, which reminded me of the aqueducts of the Roman Campagna, though it lacks their noble proportions and looks more like a common railway viaduct. Sceaux is on the top of a lovely hill, covered with orchards and small villas. The old estate is completely surrounded, as were all royal parks, by a wall. It belongs now to a grandson of the famous Marshal Mortier, one of the great Napoleon's iron marshals; and I was conducted all over it by him. The Marquis de Trévise—for such is the name he bears, as his grandfather was made Duc de Trévise, and he is only a younger son—devotes his energies and all his surplus revenue to the complete restoration of the old palace. The grounds, fortunately, have not been altered; they are a magnificent specimen of the noble art of Le Nôtre, the great gardener, who deserves to hold his place in the Pleiad of men who surrounded the "grand siècle" with its glorious halo; he disposed the alleys, the terraces, the water-works, the canals, the ponds, in that admirable style which can be seen at Versailles. Through one great alley you see on the horizon the old tower of Montlhéry, so famous in the Middle Ages. The numerous springs have been well collected, and form a most beautiful system of water-works, which adds much beauty to the trees. I may be suspected of partiality, but in my opinion the Le-Nôtre system of gardening, which formed a sort of transition between architecture and wild nature, is most admirable. It is quite different from the English gardening, with its winding alleys and conscious disorders. It has a beauty of its own, made of order, of symmetry, of simple forms.

At the time of the Revolution, Sceaux was the property of the Duc de Penthièvre, often called the "bon Duc." The people of Sceaux were very much attached to him, and even the Convention never troubled him in his solitude; but after the execution of Louis XVI. and Marie Antoinette he retired to a small house in Normandy, where he was allowed to die in peace. Sceaux was confiscated, and given over to the Commissioners of the Convention; all the works of art and the furniture were transported to Paris and placed in the museums. The place was left without any protection, and every piece of brass, of iron, of lead, soon disappeared; the great railings, the balustrades, and even the marble slabs of the mantels, were robbed. When Marshal Mortier took possession of it, the old palace was an empty shell. It was too large for modern life, and the son of Marshal Mortier built a new house, which is still palatial, but only of moderate proportions. This house was occupied for several months during the siege of Paris by the German troops, and there is now absolutely nothing left in it. The mirrors and mantels are broken, the floors in front of the chimney-places are burnéd, and will have to be changed.

Of the old buildings of the time of the Duchesse du Maine only two remain—one was the picture-gallery, and was used for a long time, indeed until now, as a barn. The walls are still beautiful; the ceiling has been destroyed, and, instead of pictures, you see only the roof. The present owner intends to restore this gallery, which fully deserves it. It is rather odd that in this great work of destruction one small pavilion has always been respected: it is called the "Pavillon de l'Aurore." The middle room is covered by a cupola, in which there is a magnificent ceiling of Lebrun's, which has been engraved. There are two side rooms, of very small size, which had also ceilings by the same artist; but these have been carried off by the Marquis de Trévise to his new hôtel in the Champs Elysées, and will be replaced by copies. Lebrun is not my favorite painter, but he had much "noblesse," and, if you once admit his mythological style, it must be confessed that his drawing was good and his color sometimes very happy. This "Pavillon de l'Aurore" was the favorite haunt of the Duchesse du Maine; in it were spent the famous *grandes nuits de Sceaux*, which are not yet forgotten.

The Duc du Maine was a son of Louis XIV. and of Madame de Montespan. He married the second daughter of the Prince de Condé. He was a great favorite of Louis XIV., who allowed him in the Parliament, to the great disgust of the old nobility, a place between the princes of the blood and the peers. He bought the house of Sceaux, where Colbert, and after him M. de Seignelay, had spent large sums of money, for a million of livres. There were, besides, statues in the gardens to the value of 100,000 livres.

None of them remain now except a very few, among the number two groups over the gates by the famous Coysevox, who has left such remarkable works at Versailles and in the Tuileries. Saint-Simon has related in the minutest details every incident of the life of the Duc du Maine. Louis XIV. gave him all sorts of prerogatives, loaded him with money and with favors. He could never make him a legitimate child. The Duchesse du Maine espoused, of course, the cause of her husband ; but she could not help despising him, and her conjugal life was full of storms. She consoled herself for the inconveniences of her position with the pleasures of Sceaux. She spent there much of her time, and maintained quite a court of her own. As many as five hundred followers and servants were established on the estate and in the palace. She had her poets, her prelates, her abbés, her musicians, her painters. She spent untold sums of money on fireworks, balls, comedies. She had a fondness for the stage, and kept playing comedies with her ladies and gentlemen, and with some old comedians, who gave her lessons. The whole Court used to go to Sceaux, and had to applaud the little Duchess, who entered into her rôles with the greatest confidence.

This is the way in which Saint-Simon describes the Duc du Maine : "With the *esprit*, I will not say of an angel, but of the Devil, whom he resembled so much in malignity, in blackness, in perversity of soul, in bad services to all, in good offices to nobody, in profound combinations, in haughty pride, in exquisite falsehood, in numberless artifices, in measureless simulation, and, moreover, in charm, in the art of pleasing, amusing, those whom he wished to please ; he was a coward in heart and spirit, and so much so that he was extremely dangerous, and most capable, if only it was underhand, of going to the most terrible extremities to oppose what he feared." This sentence, which stops your breath, is truly Saint-Simonian, as well as this picture of the Duchess : "He was moreover tossed about by a woman of the same sort, whose *esprit*—and she had an infinite amount of it—had been spoiled and corrupted completely by the constant reading of novels and plays, into the passions of which she threw herself so completely that she spent years in learning them by heart and in playing them publicly herself. She had an excessive courage ; she was enterprising, audacious, furious, only knowing the passing passion, and postponing everything to it ; indignant at the prudence and the measures of her husband, which she treated as miseries of weakness, whom she reproached with the honor she had done him in marrying him, whom she belittled and humbled before her, treating him as a negro, ruining him fundamentally, without his daring to say a word." Such was the happy couple who lived at Sceaux. The ambition of the little Duchess knew no bounds. She had the pride of a Condé, and when death began to play havoc with the direct line of Louis XIV.'s children; when Monseigneur first, called the Grand Dauphin, and afterwards the Duc de Bourgogne died, the Duc du Maine seriously thought he might become king of France. Louis XIV. by degrees had obtained from Parliament resolutions more and more favorable to the children of Madame de Montespan. In the end, the Duc du Maine and his brother, the handsome and silly Comte de Toulouse, were declared true princes of the blood and capable of succeeding to the crown. The Duc du Maine became the personal and bitter enemy of the Duc d'Orléans, who stood between him and the throne. He made himself the intimate ally of Madame de Maintenon, in the hope of governing Louis XIV. entirely through her. Through her influence, Louis XIV. made a will which practically gave all the power to the Duc du Maine. When this will was read in a solemn session of the Parliament, there was a sort of stupefaction. The will was full of instructions as to the *bastards*, the education of the future king, Madame de Maintenon, and Saint-Cyr. It established a Council of Regency, and gave to the Duc du Maine the care of the children of the young king.

Parliament did not respect the will of Louis XIV. ; it gave to the Regent the whole of the regal power, and the Duc du Maine fell from the height of his ambitions and hopes. The Duke and Duchess became the open enemies of the Regent. Lagrange-Chancel, who wrote the infamous "Philippiques" in which the Regent was accused of having got rid by poison of the children of Louis XIV., was an inmate of Sceaux, and one of the favorite poets of the Muse of the *Pavillon de l'Aurore*. The Regent kept him a little while in prison, and then pardoned him. He showed himself equally merciful in the affair of the Cellamare conspiracy, in which the Duc and Duchesse du Maine took a part. Cellamare was the Spanish ambassador, but was disavowed by his Government. The Duc du Maine was arrested and kept in confinement at Doullens. His arrest took place at Sceaux, when he was coming out of his own chapel, which has now become the church of the place. At the same moment, Madame du Maine was arrested in Paris by the Duc d'Ancenis, who was captain of the guards. She was conducted to Dijon, where she was kept in the Château under the guard of her own uncle, M. le Duc. Afterwards she obtained permission to go to Châlon-sur-Saône, and to stay in a neighboring château. She regretted Sceaux, and began to make revelations. In her interrogatories, she brought strong accusations against Cellamare and others, and tried to save her husband's credit as much as she could. She was finally allowed to go back to Sceaux, where the Duke also returned.

The time of the "grandes nuits" was past ; the court of Sceaux became deserted ; only a few followers remained faithful to the fiery little Duchess. It may be that the quiet beauty of the scenery consoled her for all she had lost. Even now, after all the ravages of revolution and of war, it is impossible not to feel it. The work of Le Nôtre survives the work of painters and sculptors ; and there is a strange poetry in the old deserted estate, in the dormant waters, in the long avenues now covered with grass. The Duchesse du Maine was, so to speak, the caricature of a great woman. Sceaux, though it is not very large, is not a miniature of Versailles ; it is as beautiful in its natural lines and dispositions.

THE QUESTION OF THE GERMAN RAILWAYS.

GERMANY, April 21, 1876.

IF our railroads had already found their historian, some of the chapters of the book would be counted among the most drastic illustrations of the political misery of Germany up to 1866. The pettiest Prince could, and very often did, throw obstacles in the way of enterprises upon which, at no very remote day, the very existence of the nation was to depend. The proverbial German patience had to be exercised to its utmost extent to overcome these difficulties, created not by any interest of these pocket-states in conflict with the interests of the great whole, but merely by the pride of sovereignty of their rulers—mostly ciphers in every respect but the mischief they could and did do. If common report may be relied upon, the heartburnings caused by the railroad question in its early stages are even at this day not wholly extinct. It is said that one of the Princes in 12mo yet in existence is still made to undergo punishment for his former bad behavior toward one of the main lines, by having to wait a considerable time for all the fast trains at the station where it is joined by the branch-line traversing his "state." This may be, and probably is, a fable. An undeniable and universally-acknowledged fact, however, is that it is principally due to the checkered aspect of the old German map, for which the schoolboy's paint-box was far from containing colors enough, that our railroad system is at present in a most unsatisfactory condition. The former inability of our governments to procure in any way whatever large funds, and their mistaken policy with regard to railroad-building, have contributed their share to bring about this result. There are to-day not less than sixty-three different and, in the main, independent railroad administrations. In going from Karlsruhe to Berlin—*i.e.* traversing about half of the whole extent of Germany from south to north—one travels on seven different roads. The passenger has, at least on the main lines, comparatively little to suffer from this state of things, but the merchant, and anybody else who has to send goods a great distance, is made to feel the evil consequences of it in a high degree. It is absolutely impossible to calculate beforehand, with any exactness, the cost of freight. Last fall, a member of the Prussian Landtag, before removing from the Rhine to Berlin, enquired at the proper place how much the transporting of his furniture would cost. At Berlin, a bill was sent in considerably exceeding the amount stated. He paid it under protest, and brought his complaints before the proper authorities. Then sixty thalers, more than one-sixth of the whole amount charged, were returned with the statement that the calculations of both officials, the one at his former place of residence and the one in Berlin, had been wrong ; but it was added, as an excuse, that they could not be blamed very severely for it, because the goods had to come over four different roads, each of which had different charges.

Now, if four different tariffs are an excuse for such a miscalculation, inasmuch as the whole number of railroad tariffs in Germany is 1,357, the chance for just complaint seems very remote. It is therefore not astonishing that even one of the most important cities in South Germany, where political prejudices would tend to favor a leaning in the opposite direction, should call this chaos "simply insupportable." The necessity of a comprehensive reform is indeed admitted almost without an opposing voice. The question was brought before the authorities of the Empire at an early date, and several attempts have been made to remedy at least the worst features of the present system, or rather lack of system. So far as my knowledge goes, it is also not denied by anybody that some good has been effected by the "Reichs-Eisenbahnamt" (Imperial Railroad Bureau), while, on the other hand, a large

majority contend that the little it has been able to do only serves as an additional proof that it is constitutionally incapable of accomplishing what the national welfare requires as the very least that should be done. The Prussian Government has based this opinion upon the broad principle that such a gigantic task never can be solved unless there is, instead of the right of a hardly more than advisory superintendence, full authority given, which, of course, also implies full responsibility; in other words, it wants all the railroads to become, in the course of time, the property of the Empire, and is now asking the consent of the Landtag to enter at once upon the realization of this plan by tendering to the Empire the Prussian railroads owned by the state. Your readers will have known long ago that in Saxony, Bavaria, and Würtemberg the Government and the Chambers are heartily agreed in the most decided opposition to the whole project, while Baden and Hesse-Darmstadt seem to have resolved upon a prudently reserved attitude, so that they may be sure of getting the best terms in case it should be necessary to yield. What the chances of the project are in the Prussian Landtag appears to be as yet a little doubtful, though the prevailing opinion evidently is that the Government will secure a majority. That the Ultramontanes will be in the opposition is a foregone conclusion, as they are, in their present mood, opposed to everything tending to increase the strength of the Empire. Among the *Fortschrittspartei* the disposition of the majority also seems to be pretty decidedly unfavorable. The National Liberals, with perhaps a few exceptions, are agreed with the Government in principle, so that with them the only question will be whether they can come to an agreement about the details; these, however, also involve questions, nay, principles, of the greatest importance and a change of the constitution.

From the first moment the most prominent members of the party have declared that their assent would depend upon the willingness of the Government to give sufficient guaranties against an easy abuse of the enormous power to be entrusted to the Empire. I say purposely to the *Empire*, and not to the *Government*, for one of the principal guaranties asked will be that the Reichstag shall also in this respect be a co-ordinate power, exercising in some respects, as for instance the determining of the tariff, a direct and controlling influence. The absolute necessity of this will be readily admitted even by the staunchest partisans of the project, because the uncontrolled power over the railroad tariffs would also actually give the Government full power to weigh exclusively in the scales of its own wisdom the respective claims of free trade and a protective tariff—a question which, in consequence of the general prostration of business, has of late been agitated with great and constantly-increasing vehemence. But that is not all. The friends of the project are further agreed that the immediate consequence of its adoption would have to be the creation of two Cabinet Ministers of the Empire—one for the finances and the other for everything relating to the means of communication (*Verkehrs-Ministerium*). This would involve a change of the constitution, and the opposition in the Bundesrath would gladly avail itself of the opportunity to use the constitutional cloak as a domino which might, to some unusually dim eyes, effectually cover their aversion to yielding anything more of their sovereignty to the wants of the Empire. A private understanding with the Chancellor on this question will, therefore, be deemed sufficient until after the main question has been carried. That this will be soon the case is hardly likely, for the minor powers are thus far to be considered as unanimous, and they will have the majority in the Bundesrath. That was, however, foreseen, and therefore it does not deter the Chancellor from pursuing his plan as if its ultimate success were certain. And in this he most likely is right, provided our whole political structure be not shaken once more to its very foundations by a general European catastrophe. The corner-stone of the present Empire was the Zollverein, which was laid by Prussia at a time when she had almost renounced her rank as one of the five great powers of Europe, when Germany was hardly more than a geographical name, and when the opposition to her plans was quite as unanimous and much more passionate than it is at present. Her present task is easy in comparison with what she then undertook and accomplished; and certainly it is not to be supposed that a Bismarck will strike his flag where an Eichhorn knew how to keep his flying. He has already announced in a formal and official way what he will do next in case he is left in the minority in the Bundesrath. Prussia will then at once set herself to buying up as fast as possible all the railroads within her own boundaries. The importance of this the Opposition understand full well. The Würtemberg Minister, Von Mittnacht, who indulged in a rather unexpectedly vehement philippic against the Chancellor's project, had to confess: "I do not contest that Prussia, if she concentrates all the railroads in her territory, will acquire an enormous power, but we cannot suppose that she will abuse it." Well, the thing is only that what Mr. Von Mittnacht would consider an abuse, Bismarck is likely to deem the best use he can make of it. As the acquisition of this "enormous power" is with him avowedly a means to attain his ultimate end, it is rather strange to suppose that he will not use it to further his purposes.

I have, in this letter, purposely refrained from commenting at all upon the economical and political bearings of the project. Even French writers admit that, leaving aside whatever is quite peculiar to Germany in it or would have a strong bearing upon the decision of the great question how far state-sovereignty will be absorbed by the Empire, it is an experiment, the success or failure of which would be in the highest degree instructive and valuable to all the rest of the European powers; and, furthermore, that Germany is in a better condition than any of them to make the experiment in such a manner that the experience gained will render possible the deduction of general principles. If this be so, it must be very indifferent to your readers what your correspondent happens to think on a question of such paramount importance. They will be better served if, in due course of time, he furnishes them with an abstract of the opinions of the different political parties, as they will be expressed in the debates of the Prussian Landtag.

Correspondence.

GENERAL ART INSTRUCTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The late sharp criticisms in the *Nation* upon the present method of art-instruction in the public schools of Massachusetts create a desire to know what scheme the writers would wish to substitute for that which is now in vogue. Every one must agree with the article of April 13, that it is extremely important that this subject should be thoroughly discussed, and, I would add, always in a liberal, just, and courteous spirit.

As the writers of these criticisms have been striving to destroy the present building, will they not kindly state in what manner they would wish to rebuild the edifice? Many persons would be very glad to have them draw up an exact scheme, *without vagueness*, which might be practically carried out, so that the ideas of the critics may be clearly understood. What methods would they employ in the public schools by which the children should be led up to the power of making the most beautiful and artistic designs, when they become artisans? What would be the best teaching in advanced art-schools for those few who should develop so much talent that, upon leaving the public schools, they should wish to devote their lives to the pursuit of pure art-training?

Trusting soon to see an answer to these questions in your columns, believe me, Very truly yours, C. A. L.

Cambridge, Mass., April 24, 1876.

[In reply to our correspondent, "C. A. L.," we must preface a direct answer to his questions by saying that we do not believe that any useful scheme of art-instruction can be organized and put into operation on a large scale. Instruction in *art* cannot be carried out in public schools, because it can be imparted only to pupils of advanced development and with special gifts. And instruction in *drawing*, which perhaps is what is now often meant by "art-instruction," is equally removed from the category of common-school studies by the fact that under present conditions a sufficient number of competent instructors do not exist, either here or in Europe, and cannot be quickly called into being. We consider the recent movement in Massachusetts a mistake, even if it were judged only on this ground, since by ignoring the necessity of trained teachers it shows a wholly inadequate estimate of what is rightly involved in art-instruction, and of the proper means of artistic training for industrial or other ends. Were we to suggest anything as a substitute for the "scheme now in vogue," it would be one which should modestly undertake, in the lower schools, the simple training of eye and hand to see and represent visual objects of common observation with a sufficient degree of correctness, without immediate consideration of any kind of artistic effect or elaborate finish of execution. By this discipline would be disclosed such artistic capacities in individuals as might be afterwards developed.

As to the details of such a scheme, it is not possible under present conditions to settle them so as to frame an entirely complete,

comprehensive, and final system; indeed, we would offer especial warning against any so-called "well-digested" popular systems of recent growth. These systems all take their character from the general tone of modern thought, which is commercial and not artistic, and, when carefully examined, they prove to be lacking in the consistent development of the great principles which underlie all serious, intelligent work, whether of imaginative or decorative art. These principles may be derived from the study of the best schools of art, and they are applicable to our needs as to those of all art-students; they may be "clearly stated" and "practically carried out," though many details of method and procedure in instruction must require experience to perfect.

A scheme of instruction in drawing for the lower schools, based on these principles, might be somewhat as follows:

1. Elementary training of the eye in accuracy of measurement of formal line, and of the hand in precision in drawing it—not formal *patterns*, which are ugly things of necessity, and destructive of delicacy of perception.

2. Elementary training of eye and hand in precision of vital lines —*i.e.*, lines which describe the contours of natural and mostly living objects.

3. Exercise in color without chiaroscuro.

4. Training of the eye in perception of the gradation of shade in natural objects, and of the eye and hand in rendering it.

5. Training of the eye in discernment of linear perspective.

6. Exercise in color with simple chiaroscuro.

This we consider about as much as can with any security be undertaken. The effort to teach children any sort of "original design" is utterly short-sighted and futile.

In advanced schools for pupils who had received this elementary training, and still more in special art-schools, wherever truly competent instructors could be found, something more like proper art-instruction might have place. Such general principles of design as are capable of definition and illustration might be taught, with the aid of collections of carefully-chosen examples. And we should say that the directors of such instruction would do well to seek guidance from the older schools of art—as Florence and Venice—rather than from the recent ones of England, Germany, and France.

But all this should be done, in our judgment, with a view simply to the culture of individual perception, thought, and feeling.—Ed. Nation.]

Notes.

D. APPLETON & CO. have published in two volumes the second, thoroughly revised edition of Darwin's 'Variation of Animals and Plants under Domestication.' It is, perhaps, worth remarking, as showing the concatenation of all works of genius, that Darwin acknowledges in his preface (p. 10) his indebtedness to Malthus ('On Population') for help towards the doctrine of Natural Selection; while, as we lately pointed out in our review of Godwin, the latter's 'Political Justice' was the occasion of the publication of Malthus's work. The 'Variation of Animals' was reviewed on its first appearance in the *Nation* of March 19, 1868 (Vol. VI., No. 142).——Roberts Brothers have bound together Mr. Hamerton's 'Sylvan Year' and 'Unknown River' in a convenient 12mo volume with large print. The connection between these two very dissimilar works is to be found in the fact that the scene of each is laid in France, and that Mr. Hamerton gives us his delightful companionship *al fresco*. The etchings of the quarto edition of the 'Unknown River' are not reproduced, and, in fact, they could better be spared than the text, in our opinion, agreeable as many of them are. In their place, a portrait of the author himself is very acceptable. Roberts Brothers have also bound together the earlier and later poems of Christina Rossetti—the 'Goblin Market, and Other Poems,' and the 'Prince's Progress, and Other Poems'—retaining the separate paging and title-pages. This, too, will be welcome to all who love genuine poetry.——The foreigner and the native excursionist alike are beset already with numerous guide-books—none quite so admirable as some foreign models we could mention. The Riverside Press issues 'Boston to Washington,' which readily splits up into 'Centennial Guide-books to the Leading Cities of the United States'—to wit, New York, Washington, Philadelphia, etc. It is a not very juicy or inviting compendium, and while it may compete in accuracy (as far as it goes) with Appleton's 'Handbook of American Cities,' the latter is more evidently the product of skill and industry, and of an ambition to bring everything down to the very latest date. The illustrations of the 'Handbook' are also good and fresh. The 'Official Guide-book to Philadelphia,' by Thompson Westcott (Porter & Coates), appears to be an excellent performance in every respect. It exceeds 400 pages, and is profusely illustrated.——A weekly paper devoted to the industrial interests of women, and called the *New Century*, is to be published at the Woman's Department, Centennial Grounds, Philadelphia, whither communications and subscriptions ($2 for six months) may be directed. It will take cognizance of women's work as represented at the Exposition, and will seek especially to obtain information and statistics concerning the newest openings for women in trades, handicrafts, art, the professions, etc.——Geo. P. Rowell & Co. send out an eleventh-hour notice that their newspaper pavilion at the Exposition will have a corner for specimens of old newspapers and other curiosities of journalism—for example, such as abounded at the South in the straits of the civil war. They should be sent to the pavilion. By consent of the owners they will, at the close of the Exposition, be "transferred to some historical society or museum."—— A. Williams & Co., Boston, have just published in large 8vo, illustrated, the 'Celebration of the Centennial Anniversary of the Evacuation of the British Army, March 17, 1776, etc.,' with Dr. Ellis's oration; and in square folio a 'Heliotype of Washington's Autograph Address to the Officers of the American Army at Newburgh, March 15, 1783.' They have also for free distribution a pamphlet of twenty-nine pages issued by the Massachusetts Society for Promoting Agriculture, which contains a list of prizes offered by them (to all Massachusetts landowners), ranging from $400 to $1,000, together with explicit directions for procuring and setting-out certain trees, and Mr. C. S. Sargent's essay on tree-planting noticed in No. 561 of the *Nation*.

—A new method of advertising has been devised which, now that attention is called to it, we have no doubt will meet with much favor. It consists in getting a charter from Congress for an institution to promote the particular thing for which notoriety is desired, said institution to be located in the unfortunate District of Columbia and to be called "National." For instance, House Bill No. 2680 is "a bill to incorporate the National Surgical Institute of the District of Columbia." From a large and illustrated handbill of this institution, which, it seems, flourishes in Indiana and one or two other places, we learn that it consists mainly of a Dr. Allen, who advertises himself as specially skilled in the cure of deformities and private diseases. Following this, we shall no doubt have a National Institute chartered by Congress for Smith's Expectorant, Brown's Magnetic Baths, and Jones's Pain-Killer. We foresee difficulties in store for those legislators who attempt to nationalize their own doctors in this way; but from the advertisers' point of view the idea is magnificent.

—In *Lippincott's* for May we have a translation of Turgenef's "Watch: an Old Man's Story." The story is not long, and as usual it contains one female character of great loveliness; but a more sordid and despairing background to set it off has scarcely been invented even by this writer. Mr. Hart's "Berlin and Vienna" takes for its starting-point the question, "The downfall of European Turkey being conceded as a foregone conclusion, which of the two races, the Slavic or the Germanic, is to oversee and carry out the reconstruction of the region of the lower Danube?" Berlin and Vienna are then considered not as rivals but as co-workers in effecting a "Pangermanic reflux"; and the conclusion is reached that if Prussia could be got to favor a North-German colonization of the Danube, Austria could probably build up there in time a really German nation. Doubtless, when the time comes Prussia will prefer to send emigrants that way rather than to America; but doubtless, too, she has some calculations in regard to Austria which concern the upper sooner than the lower Danube. Mr. Hart gives a good deal of interesting information about the two capitals. "An Old House and its Story" tells of Benedict Arnold's country-seat, Mount Pleasant, near Philadelphia. Of Arnold and of André we hear again at greater length in *Harper's*, André in particular furnishing material for a number of illustrations in Mr. Lossing's "Romance of the Hudson," as well as in Mrs. Rebecca Harding Davis's "Old Philadelphia." This is all pleasant reading, for, one must confess, we are nearly a hundred years off from the treason and the hanging, and can read of both with nearly the same equanimity as of the Mischianza. Mr. Hudson Holly writes sensibly in *Harper's* of "Modern Dwellings"; of his designs we need hardly speak, as he does not withhold his own appreciation of them. In "Daniel Deronda" we reach a crisis at last, and leave Gwendolen engaged to Grand-

court ; and, as we may say, borrowing a Celtic locution, "there's a pair of 'em."

—The May number of the *Galaxy* contains an article by Mr. Marcus A. Casey, called "A Plea for a Patriot," in which the once-familiar and now rather neglected services of Thomas Paine to the cause of liberty in the last century are recalled. The article contains, in the extracts it reproduces from Paine's writings, the best possible apology for the decadence of his fame, and makes it evident that his writing, such as it was, in the cause of Independence derived its chief value from local and temporary causes. Its popularity is now certainly difficult to understand. The following passage from No. 3 of the *Crisis* would hardly be considered in these days a conclusive argument :

"The natural right of the continent to independence is a point which was never yet called in question. It will not even admit of a debate. To deny such a right would be a kind of atheism against nature ; and the best answer to such an objection would be : '*The fool hath said in his heart, there is no God.*'"

Nor is the satire of the following, from No. 5, addressed to Sir William Howe, quite equal to Junius :

"But how, sir, shall we dispose of you ? The invention of a statuary is exhausted, and Sir William is yet unprovided with a monument. America is anxious to bestow her funeral favors upon you, and wishes to do it in a manner that shall distinguish you from all the deceased heroes of the last war. The Egyptian method of embalming is not known to the present age, and hieroglyphical pageantry hath outlived the science of deciphering it. Some other method, therefore, must be thought of to immortalize the new knight of the windmill and post. Sir William, thanks to his stars, is not oppressed with very delicate ideas. He has no ambition of being wrapped up and handed about in myrrh, aloes, and cassia. It fortunately happens that the simple genius of America hath discovered the art of preserving bodies, and embellishing them too, with much greater frugality than the ancients. In balmage, sir, of humble tar, you will be as secure as Pharaoh, and in a decoration of feathers rival in finery all the mummies of Egypt."

Paine was a useful man, as his active employment by the leaders of the time sufficiently shows ; but the total explosion of the "natural-rights" philosophy on which he, like so many other pamphleteers of the day, based his appeals to the public, has left his writings without point or applicability.

—The daily life of the journalist has always been wrapped in a good deal of mystery, and there is no part of it less open to the light of day than that which relates to his means of sustaining life. The banker's, the merchant's, and the lawyer's meals beget very little curiosity or interest, but doubt always surrounds the food and drink of the journalist. Where he eats or what he eats is alike unknown, and the attempts now and then made to furnish a key to the enigma have not generally been crowned with success. The *World*, which with one or two other papers has been recently devoting a good deal of its time to what may be called controversial gastronomy, has been investigating the subject of dining in New York, apropos of the closing of the New York Hotel, a house formerly well-known as the headquarters of a certain class of Southern society (which, however, had more enlightened and advanced views on the subject of cooling drinks than on that of cooking), and gloomily declares that "prohibitory prices still rule in nearly every house"—a state of affairs which ought to give a valuable hint as to the financial prospects of hotel property to the writer of the depressing money article in the *Tribune*. The *World* then proceeds, in the interests of economy, to investigate the question of what a really simple dinner can be had for—what the *World* calls "a good but not extravagant dinner of several courses"—and, proceeding experimentally, makes out a *menu* from the bill of a restaurant showing that the cost of such a dinner would be between five and six dollars, or about $2,000 a year. "No wonder," the *World* adds, "those who can live abroad do so." This dinner includes soup, fish, two courses of meat, two kinds of vegetables, two kinds of dessert, coffee, Cognac, and a pint of La Rose claret, costing no less than two dollars, and the sum-total does seem to amount to a "prohibitory" price. We are sorry to see that though the *World's* article is entirely impersonal, there is a tendency among its contemporaries to sneer at this *menu* as the product of the excited brain of a hungry and ill-fed man, rather than as representing the actual dinner of any person or class of persons of whose habits the *World* is likely to be cognizant. One paper has pointed out that the *World* does not give this as an actual dinner, which it has had means of trying, but as one which it has "made out" from a bill of fare, and intimates that it is really a dinner for two persons, not one, and that therefore the cost should be reduced to $3 70 ; but to this the *World* replies that the portions are not big enough for two, speaking on the point with a warmth that indicates a settled conviction ; while another paper publishes a communication from a correspondent who, assuming the character of a restaurant-keeper (though evidently himself a journalist), declares that no member of the profession whom he knows anything about makes more than one meal a day, which he obtains under false pretences, first calling for a glass of beer for the sum of five cents, and then devouring whatever he finds spread before him on the counter, without further payment. Such is the present state of the controversy, which cannot yet be said to have made either the cost of living or the habits of the journalistic class very clear, though it shows clearly how interesting controversy is when absolutely divorced from all utilitarian ends.

—Our Southern brethren make a use of the despised mule which enables them to gratify several very human instincts at once. On the 29th of last month there was a great mule race at the Fair Grounds, New Orleans, with twelve entries. The designations of the animals were extraordinary. There was the "mule Débutante, sixteen years old, out of School by Accident, dam Precocious" ; the "mule Cotton Exchange, three years old, by Perseverance out of Misfortune, dam Creditable" ; and the like. But others of the contestants could boast a distinctly political pedigree. Thus, we read of the "mule Post-trader, five years old, by Belknap out of War Department, dam Corrupt" ; of "mule Bandit, two years old, by Phil. Sheridan out of White League, dam Lyre" ; with "mule White League" itself, "two years old, by Desperation out of Stern Necessity, dam Successful." "Mule Bandit" came near turning the laugh by winning the first race, but was, however, distanced by "mule Centennial" ; and when, as we are told, "the long body of the Anniversary of the Declaration of Independence crossed the line a length in advance of the descendant of Sheridan, a wild tumult raged among the spectators." The "descendant of Sheridan," nevertheless, had one more chance in the "consolation dash of two miles" which followed, and improved it by coming in first. "The occasion," concludes the *Picayune's* reporter, "was in every respect a delightful one, and certainly no one regretted their contribution to the benefit of the Protestant Episcopal Home."

—The decision of the Centennial Commission to close the Exhibition on Sundays has called out a marked and almost unanimous expression of disapproval from the secular press, and it is greatly to be hoped that the action of the Commission will be reversed or modified. We do not complain of the question having been discussed on religious grounds only, because these are the grounds which naturally present themselves first and most directly ; but it ought to be remembered, even by religious men, that even the Protestant world is divided as to the proper mode of keeping the Sabbath, and that the views of the Evangelical Christians of this country and of England on the subject are not only not accepted by, but excite the surprise of, those of France, Germany, Sweden, Denmark, to say nothing of the Catholics. Considering, therefore, that our Exhibition is an international one, to which we have invited all the world, the duty of imposing our views of Sabbath-keeping on all our foreign guests, and on our own foreign-born population, and confining them on one day in the week to the hotels and boarding-houses of a hot city, is not fairly deducible from our own appreciation of the advantages of our American Sunday. We know all that may be said as to the possible or even probable effect of keeping the Exhibition open in diminishing the popular reverence for the day as it is now kept by American usage ; but this can hardly be as great as the effect of travel in Continental countries, to which tens of thousands of Americans resort every year, and we have never heard of an American pastor advising one of his flock not to go to Europe on this account. On the contrary, he advises him to go ; tells him that the way foreigners pass Sunday is none of his business, though it is his business to pass his own Sunday in the way his conscience approves of, wherever he may be. We think a similar rule ought to be adopted in Philadelphia. The differences of opinion and practice current in the religious world touching the proper observance of Sunday, and the international character of the show, ought to be recognized by opening it for those who think it no wrong to go there on Sunday, and those who think differently would thus be left free to stay away. We do not think either the Centennial Board or the Board of Finance exactly competent to treat any portion of the visitors, whether home or foreign, as children, or uninstructed or immoral persons, or to settle for them disputed points of Christian doctrine or practice. The fight for the Puritan Sabbath has been a long and losing one. Much of it has disappeared, but all that was really good in it remains among us. There is danger, however, that this too may be put in peril by forcing it intolerably on persons as conscientious and religious as ourselves, who do not see in it either a means of edification or enjoyment.

—Sir Robert Walpole and his time have furnished so much comfort to the corruptionists and apologists of corruption during the last few years that Bolingbroke's 'Freeholder's Catechism,' which made its appearance during the debased period of English politics that gives us so much consolation (1700–60), would just now be edifying reading. It is a parody on the Church-of-England Catechism, and a large part of it is, of course, only applicable to the peculiar kind of corruption wrought by the influence of a court. But there are some passages in it which are good reading, here and now, for Favorite Sons, Practical Men, Special Agents, Brothers-in-law, Workers, Private Secretaries, Bosses, and the rest of them :

"Q. How comes there to be a Decay of Publick Spirit when there is more than usual a Desire to serve the Publick ?

"A. If a Desire to live upon the Publick be a Publick Spirit, there is Enough of it at this Time ; when Extravagance makes people crave more, and the Administration of a Publick Revenue (perhaps treble what it was before the Revolution) enables the Crown to give more than formerly.

"Q. What dost thou fear from this ?

"A. That such as serve the Crown for Reward may in Time sacrifice the Interests of their Country to their Wants ; that Greediness of Publick Money may produce a slavish Complaisance as long as the Crown can pay, and Mutiny when it cannot ; and, in general, that Motives of Self-Interest will prove an improper and weak Foundation for our Duty to our King and Country.

"Q. What wouldst thou do for thy Country ?

"A. I would die to procure its Prosperity ; and I would rather that my Posterity should be cut off than that they should be Slaves ; but as Providence at present requires none of these Sacrifices, I content myself to discharge the ordinary Duties of my Station, and to exhort my Neighbors to do the same.

"Q. What are Duties of your Station ?

"A. To endeavor, as far as I am able, to preserve the publick Tranquillity ; and, as I am a Freeholder, to give my Vote for the Candidate whom I judge most worthy to serve his Country ; for if from any partial Motive I should give my Vote for One unworthy, I should think myself justly chargeable with his Guilt. . . .

"Q. What are the Marks of a Person worthy to serve his Country in Parliament ?

"A. The Marks of a good Ruler given in Scripture will serve for a Parliament-man : 'Such as rule over you shall be Men of Truth, hating Covetousness ; they shall not take a Gift ; they shall not be afraid of the Face of a Man' (Deut. xvi.) Therefore I conclude that the Marks of a good Parliament-man are Riches with Frugality, Integrity, Courage ; being well affected to the Constitution ; Knowledge of the State of the Country ; being prudently frugal of the Money ; careful of the Trade ; zealous for the Liberties of the People ; having stuck to the Interest of his Country in perilous Times ; and being Assiduous in Attendance.

"Q. Who is most likely to take a Bribe ?

"A. He who offereth one.

"Q. Who is likely to be frugal of the People's Money ?

"A. He who puts none of it in his own Pocket.

. . . . . .

"Q. Why is Frugality of the People's Money so necessary at this Time ?

"A. Because they have run out much, and are still much in Debt. My Father and I have paid our Share of one Hundred Millions, and I have heard there are near Fifty more to pay. I grudge not this prodigious Expense, as far as it has been the necessary Price of Liberty ; but as it would grieve me much to see this Blessing ravished from me which has cost me so dear, so, on the other hand, I think it expedient to save now the Affair is over and the Government settled.

"Q. Who are those who are so careful of the Trade of the Nation ?

"A. Such as are willing to keep it from all vexatious Interruptions by Inspections, entering into Houses, Seizures, Suits, and the Oppression of Tax-gatherers, as much as possible ; such as are willing to take off the burthensome Duties which increase the Expense of the Workman and, consequently, the Price of Manufacture."

PILGRIM MEMORIES.*

THE pilgrimage of an "infidel" to Mount Sinai and the tomb of Christ affords a suggestive theme for meditation. It is with no disparaging intent that we use the vague epithet, for Mr. Stuart-Glennie is himself most explicit in assuring us that neither with Christianity nor with what he calls "Christianism" does he acknowledge any fellowship or alliance. By Christianity he means "that great historical system which culminated in the philosophy of Scholasticism, the religion of Catholicism, and the polity of Feudalism" ; and by Christianism he means "that historical theory which represents Jesus of Nazareth as a supernatural being who came on earth for the good of mankind, was put to death, and rose again to sit on the right hand of God." The historical system Mr. Stuart-Glennie perceives to have come to an end, and the historical theory he has learned to regard as antiquated and unsound, and he therefore frankly declares himself an opponent of Christianity, and stigmatizes as dishonest all description of the Christian religion as a morality, or sentiment, or ethical impulse. With the same frankness he expresses himself about beliefs which "Christianism" has always held dear, in language, and still more in a tone, calculated to exasperate the Christian world to the last degree, so that a leading orthodox Review has been led to recognize in him the "fool" described by the Psalmist who has "said in his heart that there is no God." This is, however, inaccurate, for Mr. Stuart-Glennie is certainly no atheist. It is the very purity and sensitiveness of his theistic instinct that leads him, like Theodore Parker, to condemn as degrading much that still finds a place in popular theology. One might, indeed, even plausibly question the propriety of Mr. Stuart-Glennie classifying himself as an anti-Christian, were it not that he is so explicit in defining what he rejects as Christianity. But, in truth, such questions of nomenclature are idle, for "Christian" is a word of such wide and vague connotations that, however well adapted it may be for various religious uses, it possesses hardly more defining value than such a word as "philosophical" ; and whether a given set of opinions can be grouped under such a rubric or not has become a point hardly worth arguing.

While mainly a personal narrative, this book of 'Pilgrim Memories' keeps certain ulterior ends in view. The author has projected, and in part executed, an extensive series of works, to be entitled 'The Modern Revolution,' in which nothing less is aimed at than the establishment of a new law of history, a new speculative basis for religion, and a new point of departure for dramatic art. The new law of history, and the new speculative basis for religion, we are to seek in the conception of historic development as "a certain Change, and Process of Change, in men's notions of the Causes of Change." One object of the present volume is to show how this conception took shape in the author's mind in the course of his journeyings and discussions with Mr. Buckle. By the Gulf of Ezion-Gebir, "walking or riding along a shell- and coral-covered strand,—on our right the sea, red with the coralline forests of its depths, and with a margin so bright and clear that, as we rode, we saw all its gem-like pavement ; on our left, sandstone precipices, of the most magnificently-varied hues,"—amid this strangely beautiful scene, we enter upon quite a Platonic dialogue, in which the author seeks to expound his new conception of causation, while Mr. Buckle occasionally interposes with "I do not follow you, I confess," or "That seems philosophical enough," quite after the manner of the *φαίνεται* or *οὐκ ἔμοιγε δοκεῖ* of Socrates and his interlocutors. This long conversation, or series of conversations, is perhaps the most interesting portion of the book. Yet Mr. Buckle evidently does not get a thorough hold of what Mr. Stuart-Glennie means by defining causation as involving "not merely the conception of Uniformity of Sequence," but also that of "Mutuality of Coexistence, or Mutual Determination" ; and we must confess that to us also his meaning seems by no means distinctly set forth or adequately elucidated. It is to be hoped that in future volumes this point will be thoroughly cleared up, for we are here told that the "Change in our conceptions of the Causes of Change" which the author has discovered to be the "Ultimate Law of History" is neither more nor less than "an advance from the conception of One-sided Determination to that of Mutual Determination." That this statement is fraught with meaning for Mr. Stuart-Glennie, there can be no doubt ; he recurs to it again and again as if it were a sort of talismanic formula for the solution of all manner of problems, psychological and historical. But it is just one of those formulas, like Mr. Spencer's famous law of the change from incoherent homogeneity to coherent heterogeneity, that needs to be charged with significance by means of copious preliminary explanation in order to convey any sense at all to the mind of the reader.

To the many readers who, some twenty years since, were interested in what then bid fair to be the "biggest of big books," the most attractive pages in Mr. Stuart-Glennie's volume will be those which give us glimpses of the personal peculiarities of Mr. Buckle. The sad story of Mr. Buckle's fruitless journey in quest of health, the rapid decay of his strength, and his untimely death at Damascus, has long been generally known, but it acquires fresh interest from the fuller account now given by his fellow-pilgrim. Few would now rate the value of Mr. Buckle's work, or the loss to science from his premature end, so highly as they were commonly rated at the time. Yet, as a fresh instance of how life is short while art is long, of how the world passes away from us while yet we are stammering over the alphabet of its mysteries, there is something infinitely pathetic in the cry which went up from the exhausted and fever-stricken traveller—"My book, my book! I shall never finish my book!" The pathos is not diminished, but perhaps rather deepened, by the reflection that the book possessed no such transcendent value as its author ascribed to it, and that in all probability the strange irony of fate, had it granted to Mr. Buckle

* 'Pilgrim Memories ; or, Travel and Discussion in the Birth-Countries of Christianity with the late Henry Thomas Buckle. By John S. Stuart-Glennie, M.A.' New York : D. Appleton & Co. 1875. 8vo, pp. xviii.–514.

the long life of a Carlyle or a Humboldt, would only have permitted him to survive his own reputation as a leader in the world of thought. It is seldom that so brilliant a success as Mr. Buckle's has been even temporarily achieved by such superficial thinking and such slender scholarship. The immense array of authors cited in his book bears witness to the extent of his reading, but the loose, indiscriminate way in which they are cited shows equally how uncritical and desultory his reading was. One may ascribe this looseness to the native impatience of temperament illustrated in his disposing of Gibbon and Hallam in ten days; but certainly his solitary education and solitary habits of study could do little towards curing the fault. One reason why the scholarship of university-bred men is in the main so far superior to that of men who have been taught at home is that the former are regularly forced, by continual contact and rivalry with fellow-students, into habits of self-restraint and self-criticism in reaching conclusions which only the rarest innate virtues of intellect can enable the latter now and then, in spite of their solitude, to acquire. It is but once or twice in an age that the home-taught student can receive the stimulus to patient sagacity that was afforded in the cases of Grote and Mill. The kind of unceasing criticism which university-life affords the best means of securing, is in most cases indispensable. Less effective, because less direct and constant, but still very valuable, is the discipline that is gained by early and frequent authorship, where a writer is so constituted as to be able to profit alike by fair and unfair public criticism. That there may be men of genius with such marked native qualities of caution and vigilance as to enable them partially to dispense with such educational aids, we do not deny; but Mr. Buckle was not one of these. He began life with his full share of the "original sin" of hasty generalization; and nothing in his circumstances tended to check or control this disposition until, at an age when one's mental habits are usually pretty well engrained, he appeared before the world with the first instalment of his able and stimulating but crude and hastily-wrought book.

Not only did Mr. Buckle's impatient and uncritical habit prevent his vast reading from resulting in sound scholarship, but his lack of subtlety and precision was so marked as to stamp all his thinking with the character of shallowness. He seized readily upon the broader and vaguer distinctions among things, the force of which the ordinary reader feels most strongly and with least mental effort, and of such raw material, without further analysis, and without suspecting the need for further analysis, he constructed his historical theories. To this mode of proceeding, aided by his warmth of temperament and the lavish profusion of his illustrations, he undoubtedly owed the great though ephemeral success which his book attained. The average reader is much sooner stimulated by generalizations that are broad and indistinct than by such as are subtle and precise; and if we stop to consider why Mr. Buckle's name has been sometimes associated with those of men so far beyond his calibre as Mill and Darwin, we may see the reason in the fact that Mr. Buckle could be entirely grasped by many of those very admirers of the latter writers who least appreciate or fathom their finest and deepest mental qualities. But this essentially superficial character of Mr. Buckle's thought is shown not only in his obtuseness to subtle distinctions, but even more conspicuously in his utter failure to seize upon any deeply-significant but previously-hidden relations among facts, in the work which he put forth as the 'Novum Organum' of historical science. If we contrast his book with some of the really great books which were contemporary with it, such as Mr. Darwin's 'Origin of Species,' Mr. Spencer's 'Principles of Psychology,' or Sir Henry Maine's 'Ancient Law,' the difference is striking enough. Each of these works set forth old facts in new and hitherto unsuspected connections, and in so doing enunciated thoughts which have quite changed the aspect of the questions with which they dealt. There is not a naturalist in either continent to-day whose most specific enquiries do not bear some more or less conscious reference to what is known as "the Darwinian theory." The time-honored contest represented by Locke and Leibnitz, or by Hume and Kant, is beginning to take a new point of departure, owing to Mr. Spencer's suggestion of the acquirement of mental faculties through inheritance and slow variation; and Sir Henry Maine's lucid exposition of early ideas regarding contract, property, and family-relationship, obliges us to look at all the phenomena of society from an altered stand-point. But, in marked contrast with works of this kind, we find in Mr. Buckle's book sundry commonplace reflections of quite limited value or applicability, such as the statements that scepticism is favorable to progress, or that over-legislation is detrimental to society. No doubt such commonplaces might be so treated as to acquire the practical value of new contributions to history. But to treat them so requires subtle analysis of the facts generalized, and all that Mr. Buckle did was to collect miscellaneous evidences for the statements in their rough, ready-made form. Of generalizations that go below the surface of things, such as Comte's suggestive though indefensible "Law of the Three Stages," we find none in Mr. Buckle. The only attempt at such an analytic theory is the generalization concerning the moral and intellectual factors in social progress, wherein Mr. Buckle's looseness and futile vagueness of thought is shown perhaps more forcibly than anywhere else in his writings. It is not of such stuff as this that a science of historic phenomena can be wrought.

In Mr. Stuart-Glennie's reminiscences, which seem to be most carefully and honestly reported, these characteristics of Mr. Buckle—his warm, impatient temperament and his lack of mental subtlety or deep penetration—are continually brought to our notice; and all the more forcibly, because of the absence of any such intent on the part of the fellow-pilgrim to whom we owe these interesting notes of discussion. To examine the details of these conversations would carry us beyond our limits, and would hardly be justified by their intrinsic importance. One little point we must note as characteristic, with regard to Mr. Buckle's temperament as a historian. While Mr. Stuart-Glennie seems to have his whole soul stirred within him by the historic associations clustering about the places visited, and is moved to reflections always interesting and often suggestive, Mr. Buckle, on the other hand, though sufficiently alive to the beauties of nature, seems quite oblivious to historic memories. At the sepulchre of Christ his thoughts were mainly on political economy, "the state of society and the habits of the people." In such trivial details some light is thrown, perhaps, on that lack of intellectual sympathy with the past which was one of Mr. Buckle's most notable defects as a historian.

But with all this intellectual narrowness and looseness of texture, the narrative gives one a very pleasant impression of Mr. Buckle personally, and, furthermore, enables one to comprehend how, with such slight qualifications, he should have become so interesting to the world. One leaves Mr. Stuart-Glennie's book with the regret experienced on parting with intelligent and kindly companions. As we close it and lay it aside, we feel that yet another charming moment of our reading-life has gone to be numbered with the things of the past.

The Life of William, Earl of Shelburne. By Lord Edmond Fitzmaurice. Vol. II. (New York: Macmillan & Co.)—Lord Shelburne's character is a matter rather of psychological interest than of historical importance. It is, however, a subject which deserves some examination, since a misapprehension of his lordship's idiosyncrasies may lead others, as it has led his biographer, to misunderstand the position and underrate the services of the leading English statesmen of the last century. Shelburne cannot fairly be judged either from the virulent invective of Walpole or from the awkward apologies of Lord Fitzmaurice. He has, however, drawn in his letters, speeches, and private memoranda a picture of himself which probably gives a true portrait of the painter, since its traits account at once for the gratitude with which he was regarded by Bentham, and for the distrust which he excited in the mind of every colleague, from Bute to Burke, whom he flattered and betrayed. The *differentia* (to use a logical term) which distinguished Shelburne from his contemporaries was a singular freedom from the prejudices of his age. The best result of this independence of mind, which gives a slight flavor of originality to his otherwise unpleasing character, was seen in his genuine admiration for men such as Bentham and Price, whom he regarded as the apostles of enlightenment. To this source must also be attributed the spirit of toleration which he exhibited in private life, and attempted, in so far as was consistent with his schemes of political advancement, to foster in public life. The same independence of mind appears in minor traits of character. He speculated, though without attaining any definite result, about problems which belong rather to the present than to the last century. Thus, he was curious to ascertain what were the causes to which should be attributed the growth of feudalism. He perceived the evils which might result to the country from the principles of the poor-law, and in private, at least, he handled questions of theology with the off-hand ease of an aristocratic sceptic.

But though such virtues as Shelburne possessed resulted from the free exercise of a mind untrammelled by inherited prejudices or principles, his intellectual powers were clearly not of the highest order. Bentham's verdict is on this point decisive. "Lord Shelburne," he says, "used to catch hold of the most imperfect scrap of an idea, and filled it up in his own mind, sometimes correctly, sometimes erroneously. His manner was very imposing, very dignified, and he talked his vague generalities in the House of Lords as if something good were at the bottom, when, in fact, there was nothing at all." The justice of this criticism is amply confirmed by a

perusal of the pompous platitudes from which his lordship deduces such obvious maxims as that it is well to be "bound for no man," or that economy depends on "half-yearly receipts and weekly payments." Shelburne, in fact, was one of those men who can snatch at a principle, but cannot grasp it or follow out its consequences. This intellectual weakness marred his success. He says, for instance, vaguely that the policy adopted towards America was full of peril. But he continued a member of the Ministry which pursued the course condemned by his intellect, and sought to evade responsibility by studied absence from Cabinet councils. In such manœuvres opponents saw nothing but duplicity, but the charity of history suggests that intellectual haziness may have in part been the source of ambiguous conduct. An anecdote narrated by Bentham confirms this supposition. His lordship was accustomed to complain of a special act of treachery on the part of Pitt. But Bentham, after twice hearing the story, could never see wherein the treachery consisted. A statesman whose ill opinion of mankind constantly suggested to his mind vague suspicions of treachery, which he could not define for lack of mental lucidity, was certain to wear the appearance of dishonesty, and, unless influenced by high moral principle, to use fraud as a weapon against suspected traitors.

Of high principle Shelburne knew nothing. He considered mankind a pack of rogues governed by a gang of knaves. His whole art of managing men consisted in the use of indiscriminate flattery. If his contemporaries scarcely understood his character, he certainly thoroughly misunderstood the temper of his associates. He constantly promised more than he could perform, and attempted to avoid the risks of direct mendacity by the use of delusive ambiguities. The old lord who said boldly that the only way out of a great scrape was to tell a great lie, understood his age. He knew that men would pardon the falsehoods of a downright liar, whilst they would never forgive the equivocation of a sophist who, if he never lied, always deceived. The want of moral feeling, combined with the want of intellectual clearness, accounts for the cynical acts by which Lord Shelburne hopelessly alienated his associates. He denounced, for example, in language which now sounds impressive, the measures adopted by a set of men who enlisted under the banners of the Earl of Bute. His audience knew that Shelburne himself had been active in beating up recruits for Bute's disreputable army of worthless politicians. This speech was enough to make all statesmen shun association with Shelburne. They suspected even deeper want of principle than appeared on the surface, and modern readers know that their suspicions were not unfounded. Shelburne was the adulator of Chatham while Chatham was a power in the state. Loyalty to Chatham is his only possible excuse for serving under the Duke of Grafton long after he condemned the policy of the Duke's Cabinet. But Shelburne we now know neither trusted nor venerated Chatham. His private journal is filled with attacks on the character of the patron whom he had flattered. Nor should Shelburne's friendship for Price and Bentham count for much in the judgment of impartial posterity. Shelburne held Bentham to be the "Newton of legislation." This, no doubt, speaks well for his intellect; but Shelburne declined to devote even one of four pocket boroughs to giving the great jurist an opportunity of using his extraordinary talents in the service of his country. This fact gives the full measure of the public spirit which may be attributed to him.

Robinson Crusoe's Money. By David A. Wells. (New York: Harper & Bros. 1876.)—Mr. Wells says in his preface that the brochure before us is due to the suggestion of "certain prominent friends of hard money that he should prepare for popular reading—and possibly for political-campaign purposes—a little tract or essay in which the elementary principles underlying the important subjects of money and currency should be presented and illustrated from the simplest A B C standpoint." He accordingly resorted to the now familiar device for making plain the principles of political economy, of tracing the growth of trade among the shipwrecked inhabitants of a small island, which our readers may remember as last used by Mrs. Fawcett. Mr. Wells takes Robinson Crusoe's island, and makes Robinson himself, and his man Friday, and Friday's father, and Will Atkyns, the founders of the new state in which his various economical problems are to be worked out, and opens his tale most happily with Crusoe's examination of the contents of the ship's chest, and his philosophical address to the bags of money which he found therein. He then goes on to show how, in the gradual growth of this little community, the need of an instrument of exchange and common measure of value began to be felt, and traces the history of the various experiments and discoveries by which the people were led to the conviction that gold and silver would answer the purpose better than any other commodity. The Robinson-Crusoe feature in the story is not preserved longer than is necessary to engage thoroughly the reader's attention; in the latter half, the people of the island break through their disguise and become a large and populous state, resembling the American Union almost as closely as Mark Twain's Irish Republic, in which St. Patrick slaughtered the Congress and all the high officers of government as corrupt reptiles.

Most of the fallacies current among American "soft-money" philosophers are exposed, and many of the philosophers themselves ridiculed unsparingly under a very thin veil. But, as we have said, in the latter part of the book the parable is well-nigh forgotten, and the reader is treated to a simple explanation of the knottier problems of the currency question in Mr. Wells's best style, which in this field has hardly any equal. Some of the extracts he makes from the "soft-money" speeches actually delivered in this country, when produced in naked isolation in a foot-note, read like the emanations of a lunatic asylum. Indeed, we doubt if such contributions as have been made to the currency discussion by Messrs. Kelley, Butler, and Phillips could be matched anywhere in the civilized world since 1825, except in the parlors of the insane under the present enlightened system of treatment.

Any rational man who has a friend wallowing in the "soft-money" muddle can hardly do better than put Mr. Wells's little work into his hands. It has the immense advantage for the unlearned and unstable of treating political economy psychologically, as a series of states of mind, rather than as a series of physical phenomena, which is the only way of bringing its truths home to those unused to reflection or long trains of reasoning. The more elaborate treatises tell us what commercial facts will follow other commercial facts; Mr. Wells's story tells us how men feel when they see certain things, which is the essence of political economy. Kelley or Stephen Pearl Andrews or Phillips can manufacture a system of finance without a flaw on its surface; but Mr. Wells tells us how the minds of plain people will work when they are asked to handle the money of these "thinkers."

Orchids: A Complete Manual of Orchid Culture. By Edward Sprague Rand, jr. (New York: Hurd & Houghton. 1876. pp. 476, 12mo.)—A beautiful book, of great practical value, indispensable to all orchid-growers in this country—the number of which is not small—and not less so to the many amateur flower-cultivators who are longing to take a few orchids in hand, if only they knew or could learn how to manage them. We have cited the beginning and the end of the title; we add the rest as the shortest way of giving an idea of the scope of the volume: 'A description of the species and varieties grown at Glen Ridge, near Boston; with lists and descriptions of other desirable kinds, prefaced by chapters on the culture, propagation, collection, and hybridization of orchids; the construction and management of orchid houses; a glossary of botanical terms, and significance of their names; the whole forming a complete manual of orchid-culture,' as aforesaid. Glen Ridge is the name of Mr. Rand's residence in the vicinity of Boston. The book is beautifully planned and printed, as becomes the Riverside Press. Charming wood-cut illustrations come in at the close of most of the chapters. The earlier of these chapters, nineteen in number, forming nearly a quarter of the book, treat of the nature and habits of orchids; the rise and progress of their culture, first in Europe, then in the United States—the history of the latter beginning, of course in Boston, about the year 1838 (but the great collections are now at and between New York and Albany); the classification (which does not come down later than that of Lindley, and hardly need); collection and transportation; treatment of newly-imported orchids; construction of the orchid-house; and, in short, everything about the growth and management of these plants which the amateur could wish to know, including a chapter on the cool treatment of orchids, in which the grapery may be utilized and adorned. On all but this the author writes from the fulness of his own knowledge; here he condenses "from the latest English publications the experience of those who have put the new theory into practice." So practical is the author's vein that, in the chapter, of only four pages, on the propagation and impregnation of orchids, he resists all temptation—if any he had—to expatiate upon the now popular subject of their wonderful arrangements for fertilization by the aid of insects, merely saying that "this has within the last few years attracted much attention in Europe, and much of interest has been written on the subject, in view of which we may conclude that our knowledge of orchids and their peculiar adaptations is yet most imperfect." In view of which we should conclude rather the contrary, and that of no great order do we really know so much in this regard, though none is on the whole so wonderful.

The "descriptive list" makes up the larger part of the volume, and

includes nearly all the orchids in cultivation anywhere, with references to published figures, some words of description of many, and more detailed accounts of those most worthy of attention. Special lists follow of those grown at Glen Ridge; of thirty cheap orchids for general cultivation; of those with curious flowers or resembling insects; of the choicest species for beauty or fragrance, etc.; and finally, a list of the genera of the order arranged under the authors who named them. The glossary is mainly one of names of orchids, of species as well as genera, so far as mentioned in this volume—*i.e.*, the cultivated and mainly epiphytical species of the orchid-house. It comes at the end of the book, where we may well suppose the busy author to be sated with his task. It might have been left out, and indeed it were better so if there was not time to revise it thoroughly. For there are slips and oversights in it which will mortify the author when he comes to notice them, and which he will hasten to correct in a new edition.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

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FOR JUNE

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 18, 1876.

The Week.

THE opening of the Centennial on Wednesday of last week reflected credit upon the management. The speech-making was brief and to the point, and there was less buncombe and more simplicity and modesty about the proceedings than would, a few years ago, have been possible. The fair was, at the opening, according to all the accounts, further advanced than almost all, if not all, the world's fairs which have hitherto been held, and there is a good prospect that it will prove, if not a profitable enterprise, at least less a pecuniary failure than any of its predecessors. The system of paid juries, selected without regard to localities, too, and made up of foreigners and Americans, in equal parts, selected for special ability, will no doubt make the awards of more value than they have been on such occasions before. Foreign countries are better represented than could have been expected, though, as is always the case, the relative splendor of the exhibits of different countries is determined not altogether by their relative standing in the scale of civilization, but to a great extent by accident. The crowds thus far have been large, the average daily attendance being between twenty-five and forty thousand. Altogether, although it is as yet too early to form an opinion as to the fair as a whole, it is so far a success.

The Centennial Commission, as our readers may remember, though it may be a very respectable body, was not selected for its knowledge of either finance or coinage, or, indeed, of any subject. The public has therefore heard with a sense of ludicrous surprise of its proposing to sit permanently in Philadelphia to discuss the propriety of the adoption of a common monetary unit by the various nations of the civilized world. We trust nothing of the kind will be attempted, as it would throw around the Exposition an atmosphere of farce which, particularly as all has gone so well thus far, it is desirable to avoid. The adoption of a common monetary unit by the civilized world would be a very desirable thing, but a commission to discuss its feasibility would have to be a body of men selected for their familiarity with the subject.

The Conference called by Messrs. Schurz, Bryant, Woolsey, and others met in this city on Monday, and was well attended—that is to say, most of those invited from the East were present, the Westerners being kept away by distance, but writing many warm letters of adhesion. The "moral element" in the meeting—or the number of ministers, professors, and respectable persons who do not believe politics should be pursued as a trade, and who now begin to be looked on by "statesmen" very much as a judge is looked upon by a burglar; that is, as amiable, visionary persons, who set up impossible standards of conduct—was large. The speeches, which were mostly short, dwelt strongly on the condition of the civil service as the root of most of the prevailing abuses. In so far as allusions were made to possible candidates, the favorite seemed to be Mr. Bristow. The general conclusion of the Republican press about it seems to be that it was somehow wrong or foolish for so many men of good character to meet together to talk politics, and that there was not one of them who could hold a candle to Conkling or Morton, or even Mr. Cornell or Tom Murphy, as a practical manager; and that it is hard to see what good can come to anybody from their deliberations. The Democrats, on the other hand, appear to be annoyed that they should have made no nomination, but were disposed to wait and see what is done at Cincinnati. We presume the importance of the meeting will depend on what is done there. In certain contingencies, it may have a good deal of importance.

The address issued by the Conference reminds the public that "a national election is approaching under circumstances of peculiar significance"; that notwithstanding the great advances made by the country in material prosperity and the arts of life during the last hundred years, never in our history has the public mind been "so profoundly agitated by an apprehension of the dangers arising from the prevalence of corrupt tendencies and practices in our political life"; that the Centennial anniversary of the Declaration of Independence is, on account of this corruption, felt to be "not without self-reproach and humiliation"; and that the progress of the disease can only be arrested by the people. In the coming election, the address points out, great questions must be settled; "our solemn and oft-repeated pledge" to pay our national debts "must be fulfilled," not only by payment of principal and interest of the bonded debt, but by the removal, not later than the time provided by existing law, "of the curse of our redundant irredeemable paper currency"; that our most pressing duty is to "re-establish the moral character of the Government," and that this cannot be done except by putting an end to rotation in office and the spoils-system; that for this purpose what is wanted is "not mere platforms, but men," and that therefore we should resolve now to support no candidate for the Presidency who "in public position ever countenanced corrupt practices or combinations, or impeded their exposure and punishment, or opposed necessary measures of reform"; no candidate who, "while possessing official influence and power, has failed to use his opportunities in exposing and correcting abuses coming within the reach of his observation, but for personal reasons and party ends has permitted them to fester on"; no candidate, "however conspicuous his position or brilliant his ability, in whom the impulses of the party manager have shown themselves predominant over those of the reformer; for he will be inclined to continue that fundamental abuse, the employment of the Government service as a machinery for personal or party ends"; no candidate who, "however favorably judged by his nearest friends, is not publicly known to possess those qualities of mind and character which the stern task of genuine reform requires"; and, finally, no candidate who is "neither so bad as to repel good citizens nor so good as to discourage the bad ones." The address disclaims any intention of forming a new party, in the event of good nominations by those already in the field, but gives warning that independent action may be looked for if that is not the case.

Owing to the absence of Congress at the Centennial opening, little has been accomplished at Washington during the week. In the Senate, Mr. Sargent of California has offered a petition of some stockholders of the Central Pacific Railroad, alleging a great deal of mismanagement and waste, if not corruption, in the road, and praying for an investigation; and also a bill to restrict Chinese immigration. In the House, the vacancy in the Speakership caused by the absence of Mr. Kerr has been filled by the election of Mr. Cox as Speaker *pro tem.* The Committee on Printing has reported, on the charges against the Government Printer, that he has made the Executive Departments pay from 30 to 125 per cent. beyond the regular rates; that he has paid more than the market price for labor and supplies; that he has allowed middlemen profits on all purchases of supplies; that $14,000 worth of "gold-leaf" has been absorbed by the superintendent of the binding department; that the work had better be done by contract; and that the Printer had better be indicted and impeached. Great amusement has been caused in the House by the reading of a letter written by the door-keeper, Fitzhugh, to a friend in Texas, telling him that he is now a "biger man than old Grant," with plenty of patronage, which Senators and Congressmen grovel before him to get, and that he gets horses and carriages and free rides out of the Government; and advising his friend

to come on and have a "glorious time" with him. Fitzhugh, it seems, was a vagabond from Texas, who got the best possible recommendations for the place, and now turns out to have been under indictment for arson and charged with perjury. He shows no inclination to resign, and will apparently have to be turned out; his case has been referred to a committee. Mr. Payne's bill to redeem $10,000,000 legal-tenders in silver change, reissuing the legal-tenders for fractional currency only, was lost by a vote of 135 to 73, two-thirds being necessary.

The simple-minded Democrats are greatly puzzled to know what to do about their Congressional patronage. What with Hambleton and Fitzhugh, both appointed to responsible positions and both turning out to be scamps, though both were appointed in the regular way—that is, without any enquiry into their character, and on the certificate of leading Democrats that they were efficient "workers" and had "claims"—it looks as if something were wrong. There is a gleam of consolation, to be sure, in the fact, to which the Washington correspondent of one Democratic paper earnestly calls attention, that there was a Republican doorkeeper who took $15,000 of the Pacific Mail corruption fund; but there are so many exposures and counter-exposures now that it requires an experienced "arithmetic man" to keep the account properly footed up and balanced. The fact is really that the system of appointments which has prevailed for forty years in every branch of the public service has so debauched the mind of the political class that the politicians of either party have lost their sense of what character is. When a man is put forward for an office, and they ask what sort of a man he is, and are told that he is a "splendid" man, or a "fine worker," or "gallant soldier," or an "old-time Democrat," they forget all about asking whether he is honest, whether he pays his debts, whether he has ever been indicted, etc., etc.; and then, when he is exposed and they find that he is an old ticket-of-leave man, or bounty-jumper, or blackmailer, they are greatly surprised, and wonder how it could possibly have happened, and declare that it is not their fault, for the same things happen to the Republicans too. It seems now that Fitzhugh's character has been known to members of the House from the first; and Hambleton, it will be remembered, was dismissed because it was discovered that he named his child after Wilkes Booth, both parties considering this offence a good reason for removing him, though it apparently never occurred to either that his having made a living by blackmailing and perjury was a better reason for his not holding the office.

The investigation into the charges against Mr. Blaine has brought upon the stand all the persons concerned in any way in the story about the $64,000 bond transaction with the Union Pacific. Mr. Harrison retold his story, the point of which is that, when he discovered the facts in 1872, and was about to press for an investigation, Mr. Rollins begged him not to do it, as it would injure Mr. Blaine; and this testimony was substantially corroborated by Mr. Rollins himself, who admitted having said as much in 1872, though he is now totally unable to say why he thought that Mr. Blaine had anything to do with the transaction. Col. Thomas A. Scott, however, goes further than this, and swears that the bonds were taken by the road to make up to him a deficient salary. This salary was $8,000, and the Company, not liking to increase it openly, were willing to increase it in a roundabout way, by taking Fort Smith bonds at a figure far above their actual value. If this means that the Company made this queer arrangement because it thus secured the chance of a prospective rise in the value of the bonds, it was certainly an unusual display of faith in the future of the securities, while, if they really wanted to cover up an increase of salary pure and simple, there seems no reason why they should have taken any bonds at all; the usual way would have been to charge the amount to "construction" or to some other equally elastic branch of their accounts. Altogether, the transaction seems rather more mysterious now than it did before, and evidently needs some further elucidation. A good deal of evidence has been produced in the newspapers, also, with regard to the $15,000 Kansas-Pacific-bond story. Mr. Blaine seemed to have effectually disposed of this, last week, by showing that it was a transaction of his brother's, John E. Blaine. Unfortunately, in his explanation he made a slighting reference to one Knowlton (now dead, but formerly a law-student in the office of his father-in-law, A. G. Riddle), who had told of seeing Blaine "handling" some of these bonds. Mr. Riddle now comes forward to vindicate Knowlton's memory, and produces several witnesses who declare that Knowlton told them substantially the same story. It appears, however, that Knowlton, in telling the story, made the number of the bonds at one time fifteen and at another twenty-five. Now, there has been litigation in Kansas over these bonds in a suit brought by the lobbyist, J. B. Stewart, against the Kansas Pacific Company, and in the course of it it has come out that ten bonds were put down by Stewart to Thomas Ewing, jr., a cousin of Mr. Blaine's, while there is no question that fifteen of them went to somebody whose name is given by the Court records once as "James Blaine," and once as "—— Blaine."

The election of Mr. William H. Barnum as Senator from Connecticut is a rather remarkable event, considering that this is usually spoken of by the Democrats as an era of reform. Mr. Barnum is nothing more nor less than a rich and uneducated man, who has bought up the State with his money. We do not mean that he has bribed anybody, but he has, by unstinted contributions to the party expenses, "captured" the party organization; and, though the better Democrats in the Legislature would have preferred to have some other man, they were obliged to confess any attempt to elect anybody else hopeless. Barnum owns the State, and for the next three years the "people" may do what they please in the way of voting and holding meetings, so far as he is concerned. If his party comes into power at Washington, he will no doubt become a prominent figure in the Democratic Senatorial Group that will succeed Conkling, Morton, Logan, and Company.

Politics in Louisiana is a word which generally means assault and battery or murder, and it is not surprising, after hearing of an affray in which several negroes or whites, or both, have been killed, to learn that the Louisiana politicians are actively preparing for the fall campaign. The Democrats and Reformers have great hopes of carrying the election, and mean to act together in State politics without regard to the Presidential question. Whom they will put up as a candidate remains to be seen; but the best name talked of is that of General Williamson, a native Louisianian, an old rebel, but now a Republican, and United States Minister to the Central American States. He was the choice of the bar for the District-Judgeship, which was given to Billings, Durell's right-hand man. The Republicans—or, in other words, Packard, Durell, and Kellogg—are on their side working hard, and evidently do not mean to let the State go by default. They are playing, however, a losing game, and it is only a question of time how soon their reign will be over, and the Government again managed by the property-owners and respectable classes.

The anti-Chinese agitation in California has led to an investigation of the whole question by a Committee of the California Senate. The matters considered by the Committee were the influence of the Chinese upon labor, the influence of the Chinese quarter upon the health of San Francisco and upon its morals, and, finally, whether the city possesses sufficient powers to prevent their presence from doing injury. The testimony taken by the Committee confirms the prevailing impression with regard to the facts; shows that the low price of Chinese labor does seriously affect the price of labor in California; that the densely-built and dirty quarters of the Chinese are very unhealthy, and well adapted to spread contagious diseases; and that the immorality of the Chinese has a bad effect on the morality of the white population. The most remarkable part of the report, however, is that in which the Committee declares

that "all those evils which relate to the violation of sanitary laws, the suppression of vice and crime, and the terrible demoralization and destruction of our youth, can be suppressed by the proper action of the authorities" of the city. In fact, the corruption of the city government is, in the opinion of the Committee, the cause of most of the trouble. Police officers on duty in the Chinese quarter have, it seems, been in the habit of receiving bribes from the Chinese for permitting them to live in crowded tenements, to be dirty, vicious, and spread contagious diseases; and in this way the connivance of a corrupt city government has bred the burdens of which the city now complains.

The Brooklyn Scandal entered on a very amusing phase last week at the trial of the unfortunate Bowen by the Examining Committee. Bowen was on the point of being reported for expulsion for all sorts of unchristian behavior when, in his agony, he offered to tell the "bottom facts" to Mr. Beecher in the presence of the Rev. Dr. Taylor of New York—the latter to be pledged not to divulge them except in a court of justice. The Committee accepted this offer, but, on proposing to Dr. Taylor to play the part of a confidant, he not unnaturally refused. To be told the "bottom facts" would be bad enough, even if he might pass them on to everybody he met; to be told them as a final depositary, would be too much for ordinary human nature. What Mr. Bowen will now do with them it is hard to say. They have lain heavily on his soul for a long time. If he will not tell them to a newspaper reporter, we would recommend his writing them out in full and putting the paper in a hollow forest tree and trying to forget all about them. During the trial before the Committee a sharp retort of Dr. Ward, the editor of the *Independent*, who was acting as Mr. Bowen's counsel, led to his summary expulsion from the room, amid great uproar, Plymouth Church committees being excitable bodies.

The week was one of the dullest of the year in Wall Street. The decline in gold was arrested by the renewal, on a large scale, of specie shipments, the total amount of these having been $2,278,000, of which $1,800,000 was gold coin. This coin is not sent because the foreign markets require gold at present, but because there is not a sufficient supply of other articles to send. The trade imports are small, but securities continue to be returned to this country. During the month of April the foreign imports at New York were $6,233,000 less than in April, 1875, and $16,960,000 less than in April, 1874. The exports of domestic merchandise from New York, exclusive of specie, during April, were $1,344,000 less than last year. Taking the ten months of the fiscal year, from July 1 to April 30, the imports at New York were $41,223,000 less than in the corresponding time the year before, and $55,000,000 less than for the fiscal year beginning July 1, 1874. The exports, exclusive of specie, of domestic merchandise during the ten months ending April 30 last, were $2,840,000 less than in 1875, and $37,000,000 less than in 1874. These figures show that, except for the return to this country of securities, there would be much less need than in previous years to export gold. The work of getting silver change in circulation goes on slowly. Less than $5,000,000 have been issued in the past month in the whole country, and a good share of this was not exchanged for fractional notes. At the Sub-Treasury here the orders were changed several times during the week, and at last took a form which permits the issue of not more than $100,000 per day. Small change rules at a premium, and a comparative'y large amount of silver has been bought at a premium of 1 to 2 per cent. to be sent to California, where the discount on silver is much less than here. The price of silver in London is about 53½d. per ounce, making our silver tokens worth about 83¼ cents to the dollar. The value in gold of $100 greenbacks ranged during the week between $89 08 and $88 79.

It appears that the legal-tender notes which have been forwarded to Washington or deposited in Sub-Treasuries by banks relinquishing their note circulation, instead of being regarded by the Treasury as special deposits have been considered as "cash," and so used to the extent necessary or convenient to use them. We do not know that there is any law which forbids this, but the common understanding among bankers and writers on money was that these notes were absolutely held apart from the United States Treasurer's "cash," and were used only for the specific purpose for which they were given to the Treasury. There are, on one account and another, in the possession of the Treasury about $70,000,000 of legal-tender notes. Whether the Treasury regards them simply as a banker does that amount of general deposits—that is, as something he must be prepared to pay but which he is at liberty to use—or as a special deposit which cannot be used, makes a vast difference in respect of the money market, the effect of the supposed contraction which has been going on, and the value of the public-debt statements.

The Khedive has succeeded in getting his affairs arranged by the French bankers, who hold most of his floating debt. They have established a bank which funds his debt for him to the nominal amount of $450,000,000 in a seven-per-cent. bond, payable in sixty-three years, and the finances are to be superintended by a board of control composed wholly or in part of Europeans, on the plan recommended by Mr. Cave; but the British Government is not to receive, as was at first reported, any portion of the Khedive's founder's shares of the Suez Canal Company. In fact, the upshot of the whole matter is that he has got on his feet without English assistance, and without giving England any influence over Egyptian affairs which she did not possess before she bought the twenty million dollars' worth of Canal shares—which will certainly seem to the public a lame and impotent conclusion to English interference, although the holders of Egyptian bonds are probably only too glad to have the matter settled in any way. The political future of Egypt, however, can hardly be said to be assured as long as Turkey continues in her present precarious condition, and it becomes more precarious every week. The Turkish population has been thrown into great and increasing excitement by the state of affairs in Bosnia and Herzegovina, and when in this state there is, as we pointed out a fortnight ago, considerable danger of an attack on the Christians in localities in which the Mussulmans preponderate in numbers. So alarming a temper has been displayed by the Mussulmans in Constantinople that the European residents began last week to send their families away. Five hundred of the Softas, or students of theology attached to the mosques, went to the palace and, in the old-fashioned style, compelled the Sultan to dismiss the Vizier—something which has not happened since the destruction of the Janissaries—and restore Avni Pasha, who has the reputation of being a Turk of the old school.

This has had the effect of restoring quiet, but the iron-clads of all the Christian Powers are hurrying to the Turkish ports, and the redress for the Salonica outrage will necessarily have to be so severe and humiliating that it is hardly to be expected that the tranquillity will be permanent. The insurgents hold their own in Herzegovina; there has been an outbreak in Bulgaria (where the Christians are the least warlike of the rayahs), but it has by the last reports been suppressed; but Greece and Servia are both in a state of high irritation over the closeness with which their frontier has been cordoned by the Turkish forces. The three Powers have in the meantime agreed on another note to the Porte, to which France and Italy have adhered, and to which England will probably also adhere. They ask for an armistice of some weeks in Herzegovina, and for the consideration of the insurgents' demands, which go, on some points, beyond those of Count Andrássy's note, *e.g.*, the possession of the lands they cultivate at a fixed rent, and the actual supervision of the execution of the reforms by European commissioners. Indeed, it seems impossible for the Powers to avoid intervention in some form any longer, although they will doubtless try to make it as mild and as inoffensive to the Porte as possible.

THE CANDIDATES.

THERE is something very interesting and very characteristic of the times in the outside preparations for the nominating conventions which are making just now, and more particularly for the Republican Convention. The theory of the Convention, of course, is that it is a direct and fair representation of the party, and assembles to choose a candidate after due deliberation, and that the delegates do not make up their minds as to any candidate until they hear what the others say. If this theory accorded with the facts, the friends of the candidates would wait until the Convention met before urging their claims, and when it did meet would urge them publicly and in the form of open discussion. But it does not accord with the facts. The candidates do not wait for the Convention to meet before urging their claims—they begin to "work" nearly a year before the Convention meets, and two or three stages away from it, by getting "control" of the primaries, and through them of the District and State Conventions, so that if possible the State delegation, when it reaches the Convention, shall reach it pledged to choose a particular man and no other, all arguments to the contrary in any wise notwithstanding. Of course, this process is not completely successful. A certain number of delegates do enter the Convention with open minds, ready to do whatever seems fittest when the occasion comes, but it is safe to say the great majority go there intending either to vote for a particular man, or to vote in any way he may direct, as the result of a "trade" or compromise with some other candidate. The public knows this so well that it has not the least certainty or confidence as to what the Convention will do. It would be difficult, for instance, to find anybody to-day who supposes that the dominant sentiment of the voters of the Republican party will greatly influence the Cincinnati Convention. If you tell him that their choice is unmistakably A, he will shake his head and say forebodingly that this is true, but that "things have been fixed" to give it to B—meaning that the Convention, though representing the voters, will not mind what the voters think and will hardly enquire. The candidates, too, do not desist from "work" after the election of the delegates. On the contrary, they now "work" harder than ever. It is a great thing for them to know who the delegates are, because this maps out the field for them. They canvass them through their agents and henchmen, try to secure the doubtful, confirm the wavering, seduce the scrupulous, so that they may be able to count on the requisite number of votes on the first, second, or third ballot, as the case may be; and all this is done with great secresy, without, if possible, letting a word of it get into the newspapers. The virtuous, patriotic delegate who has been chosen to the Cincinnati Convention is probably just now sitting calmly in his chair, filled with high resolve, and determined to go out in a prayerful spirit and show the Favorite Sons that the era of jobbery is over and that the people are aroused. But the Favorite Sons are not sitting in their chairs. Their working parties are pushing their galleries under the Convention in every direction, or, as they call it, "developing strength," so that on the day of balloting they will be all able to combine against the Virtuous Delegate, and suddenly nominate the very candidate he most dreads; and then, when he looks indignant, they will laugh heartily and advise him to let politics alone.

It is the vague consciousness of this state of things which leads the outside world to make those attempts to influence the convention by means of meetings, "conferences," clubs, newspaper articles, and so forth, of which we are this year witnessing so many. In other words, no sooner was the Convention, which is supposed to be the product of the voters' will, elected, than the voters began to treat it as if it was a foreign or oligarchical body, which would probably disregard their opinions and feelings, and needed coercion to keep it out of mischief. Accordingly, we find the reformers all over the country addressing the party representatives in this wise: "Look here, you gentlemen whom we have just chosen to nominate a candidate for the Presidency, we beg you this year to play no more of your tricks. You must not oppress us or give us bad men to vote for. You know we are opposed to bad men, and you know you will nominate a bad man if you are not looked after. In fact, we fear you will nominate a bad man whatever we do—some jobber or Favorite Son who has already manipulated you and 'fixed' you. Don't you do it, however. Remember this is the Centennial year. Some of us think Smith, who has so successfully pursued the whiskey thieves, would be the best man for us under present circumstances, but none of us think Jones, who has been trying to conceal the thieves and going bail for them, would do. So don't nominate Jones under any circumstances."

At this point, however, Jones rises up, and all the newspapers in his pay throughout the country rise with him, and address the virtuous and patriotic citizens who distrust the Convention thus—he and all his followers having in the meantime been busy for six months doctoring the delegates, and "developing strength" among them privately: "The gentlemen who are addressing these remarks to the party Convention are doubtless worthy citizens in private, and many of them good scholars; but in view of the fact that they are little known in politics and have no experience in politics, we must say we think these attempts to dictate to the Convention very unbecoming. If they wanted to influence the Convention, why did they not go to the primary meetings? We looked for them there in vain, and were in fact waiting to turn off the gas the minute one of them showed his face in the room. That was the place for them to express their preferences, if they had any. Their talk about Smith now, and in fact all their talk about candidates, is most improper. It is neither more nor less than an attempt to get the Convention to nominate their man, without having performed any of the labor of preparation which we have gone through. All this discussion is very untimely and un-American. If these excellent gentlemen will go home to their libraries, we will provide them with a candidate in due time who will be good enough for them and for all of us. They seem to forget that we must have *a man* for President whatever we do. Angels will not accept a nomination, even in the Centennial year."

The comic side of all this is perhaps the most prominent one, but the serious side is the most important. The reformers who are attempting to intimidate the Convention are either openly favoring the nomination of Bristow, or are supposed to be doing so covertly, and it is objected that, apart from the indecency of all public discussion of the claims of candidates by respectable citizens, Mr. Bristow is not well enough known to make him eligible, and that we ought to take somebody who has had longer experience of public life and stronger claims on our confidence. We are not, however, either nominating Mr. Bristow or advocating him when we say that this is, in the mouths of those who utter it, a somewhat futile objection. To hear it, one would think long and conspicuous service had always been required by the Republican party, at least, of its Presidential candidates. It would be nearer the truth to say that it had always displayed a leaning to obscure and untried men. Its first, Frémont, was literally unknown; the only thing that could be said for him was that while in the army he had discovered a new pass over the Rocky Mountains, and time has shown that the enthusiasm expended on him was worse than wasted. Lincoln was but little known outside his own State, and there was little in his career to indicate the existence of the qualities he afterwards displayed. Indeed, the external facts of his career were all against his fitness. Of Johnson little or nothing was known in the convention which nominated him, except that he had been a successful Tennessee demagogue, who turned against the State aristocracy when the war broke out. The ignorance of the Republicans about Grant's political opinions was so notorious in 1868 as to constitute one of the standing jokes of the day, and there was nothing in his career to help one in inferring them. Bristow, in short, may not be a good man for the place—we do not say that he is; but do not let us have any cavil about his obscurity or any pretence of doubt about his antecedents. They are better antecedents for the purposes of the present hour than those of any candidate now formally in the field, and a great deal better than those of any candidate the party has ever nominated,

because they indicate force of character and strength and definiteness of conviction on leading political questions.

It is certainly deplorable, however, that in a country which has been prolific of great men the people should, at a serious crisis in their affairs, and in the hundredth year of the national existence, have even to think of, for the Presidency, a man whom hardly anybody had heard of five years ago, and that every conspicuous public man who has been long on the stage of affairs should be distasteful to reformers, either because he is accused of being a jobber himself or of being the friend and companion of jobbers. But it is the natural, obvious, and proper result of having converted the administrative machinery of the Government into "spoils," and then distributed the appointing power among the legislators. It is this which has extinguished statesmanship, by making office-jobbing the only road to political life; or, in other words, by converting politics into an art which an honorable and able man cannot pursue. It is this which has consigned nearly all the talent of the country to private life and private business, which forces us, whenever we want an honest man for a high place, to dig him out of total obscurity, and which makes a long public career a ground of suspicion or disrepute. It is this which produces the ridiculous spectacle, which we now witness so often, of a body of men with few arts or abilities but those of gamblers, racing betters, and detectives, warning away from politics, as something not in their line, the very class who, among other civilized peoples, form the national glory and defence, who are the moulders of their laws and manners, their leaders in war and their guides in peace—in other words, their men of education and high private character.

A WOMAN'S INFLUENCE ON POLITICS.

THOSE who are inclined to believe with Mr. T. W. Higginson that the present impure condition of politics is to a great extent due to the lack of the refining influence of woman, will do well to read the tale recently told to the Committee of the House on Civil-Service Reform by Miss Ada C. Sweet, United States Pension Agent at Chicago. Miss Sweet was the daughter of General Sweet, a gallant officer, a friend and companion of General Grant's, who some two years ago became an applicant for the position of pension agent. There were in her favor many considerations. Her father had been a soldier, and General Grant likes to reward the families of soldiers; he had left his family in narrow circumstances, and General Grant likes to help those in straitened circumstances; there was somebody already in the office, and General Grant dislikes that people should remain too long in office, particularly when, as the great reform Postmaster says, a change will help "some more needy family." There was against the change only the disqualification of sex, and General Grant, though he is not probably in favor of female suffrage nor familiar with the arguments which induced the late Mr. Mill to believe that women were only a smaller, weaker, and prettier kind of men, did not hesitate to determine that this obstacle should be disregarded, and that public opinion, if there was any, on the subject of women holding pension agencies, should be braved. Slow as General Grant sometimes is when making up his mind, he is always resolute when it is made up; and, having made up his mind that, regardless of what monarchists, or tories, or ex-rebels, or the Ku-klux might say as to the innovation, he would allow Miss Sweet to exert her refining influence on the Government, he appointed her without delay. The newspapers which interest themselves in the enlargement of woman's sphere applauded the act, and General Grant was congratulated as having risen superior to prejudice and caste. Miss Sweet has now been exerting her refining influence for two years, and has told the result with her own lips, and the tale is this:

Before her appointment, one Blakely was pension agent at Chicago, and through a series of accidents, the details of which are unimportant, ran behind in his accounts. With the feelings natural to any man under the circumstances, he desired to retire from the cares and responsibilities of office before he should be called upon to make good the deficiency. He was, to all intents and purposes, what is vulgarly known as a "dead-beat." He owed money which he could not pay, not merely to the Government but to one B. A. Campbell, U. S. Marshal, who held, we believe, the semi-political relation of father-in-law to the late secretary of the President, General Babcock. It therefore occurred to Blakely, as it has no doubt to many men in similar circumstances before, that if he could retire from office, and at the same time control the profits of the office, he would be able to pay his debts; and it occurred to Campbell, to whom Blakely communicated his idea, that it made little or no difference to him where the money came from provided it was paid. After careful survey of the field, it was determined by the two gentlemen that Campbell, from his close connection with the White House, could easily hold himself out as controlling the appointment of Blakely's successor, and it was agreed that whoever was appointed should pay Blakely's debts out of the profits of the agency. It will be noticed by male readers that this arrangement was what is called, in matters ecclesiastical, simony; in politics, a corrupt breach of trust; and in the simple language of everyday morals, a swindle.

It was at this stage in the proceedings that the influence of woman first began to show itself. In thinking over the plan, it struck the acute minds of Blakely and Campbell that they would have a good deal of difficulty in dealing with any man who might be an applicant for the place; that men are usually suspicious in temper, eager to take advantage of their rivals, fond of accumulating money, combative in disposition, and accustomed to deal summarily with any one who infringes upon their rights. It is obvious that what they wanted for their purpose was a person of a confiding nature, not given to suspicion, unaccustomed to business, not over-fond of money, not sensitive upon the point of honor as it is understood among men, slightly weak in understanding, but amiable, generous, and docile. No such man was to be found in Chicago. Under these circumstances, it naturally occurred to Messrs. Blakely and Campbell that it would be best to fill the place with a woman. And so Miss Sweet was approached. She was told that if she would give all the net profits, after reserving $1,500 a year as her salary, she could have the place. Miss Sweet did not express disgust, contempt, or incredulity on hearing this novel proposal, but merely a modest wish to "consult her friends," to which Blakely strongly objected, and told her that if she took the office the arrangement must be kept secret. She was also urged to accept the situation by Marshal Campbell, and was frankly told that it was for the latter's benefit the arrangement was made. Miss Sweet accepted the terms, and agreed to pay Campbell $2,100 between April, 1874, and May, 1875, and was made pension agent by General Grant, much to the delight of the soldiers and sailors, of the woman-suffragists, and of all true-hearted lovers of their country.

It is interesting to pause here and observe the composite nature of the motives which led to her appointment. General Grant appointed her, not because he knew she would perform the duties of the office well, but because he wanted to do the daughter of a deceased soldier a favor; Blakely wanted her appointed because he thought he could make her pay his debts; and Campbell wanted her appointed because he thought Blakely was right in supposing so.

It may be considered that this beginning of Miss Sweet's career was not very happy, but it was nothing to what took place when her refining influence began fairly to show itself. When two gentlemen like Campbell and Blakely get hold of a woman with money, they do not generally let her go till they have plucked her thoroughly. Miss Sweet, who faithfully paid the $2,100 in the course of her first year, was now told that she must continue to turn over the profits of the office to Campbell until the whole amount of Blakely's debt ($5,000) was paid. This alarmed her, and, as she refused to continue the payment of the tribute, Campbell declared he would have her removed. Now, it cannot be denied that the removal of Miss Sweet at any time since her appointment, provided some man could have been put in the place who would have ripped

up all these little transactions, would have been of benefit to the service, but here again the influence of Woman showed itself; and, though she put herself in communication with the President and General Logan (whose "sensitiveness," it may be recollected by those who have read the evidence in the trial of General Babcock, is a well-recognized fact in Washington), General Logan and General Grant, one of whom—it does not clearly appear which—is the final authority as to the Chicago Pension Agency, swore that she should never be removed as long as there were no charges against her; and Logan was "very indignant" and wanted to "bring it all out," but was persuaded by Miss Sweet not to say anything about it. She, in her turn, went back to Chicago, and told Marshal Campbell that he must expect no more money from her.

Campbell forthwith retreated from the field; not so, however, his brother-in-arms Blakely. It will be remembered that Blakely on retiring from office owed the Government money, to put it in the most gentle way—in ordinary language, was a defaulter. The sum for which he was in default was no less than $3,000. As he was abandoning the office, it occurred to him as a happy thought that, as Miss Sweet had assumed his debts to Campbell, she might as well assume his debts to the Government too. He therefore requested her to sign a receipt for the whole amount which by his books he ought to have been able to account for, including the $3,000 he could not account for at all. The reason why Miss Sweet did this, as given by her, is worth quoting. She says: "Blakely presented a very pitiable appearance, and at that time I supposed I was under some obligations to him. . . . I thought he had been the best friend I had; I was very sorry for him." She therefore signed the receipt making herself responsible to the Government for $3,000, taking as her security the word of a man, which she knew to be worthless, that the amount should be made good in a month, and Blakely went on his way rejoicing. Need it be said that the month passed without Blakely's return or the three thousand dollars? or that some months later, when he did appear, he brought with him Mr. J. H. Baker, the Commissioner of Pensions, and that, exhibiting the receipt, they demanded of her three thousand dollars, under pain of being reported as a defaulter? Those who will read the evidence taken before the House Committee will there find the sequel of the tale—how Miss Sweet, to make good the $3,000, borrowed $2,000 of her father's estate, endorsed Blakely's note for $1,000, and thus raised $3,000, which she paid over to the Pension Office; how the story began to leak out into the newspapers, and Blakely, out of terror, returned $2,000; how, last December, Miss Sweet went on to Washington and told the whole story to the Great Father, and he, as usual, was greatly surprised, and told her that if she paid any more money to any one he would remove her; and how he thereupon shut his eyes and turned his back upon the Chicago Pension Agency; and how the wicked Democrats got hold of the story, and investigated it, and had Miss Sweet before them; and how she revealed all. All these things may be read in the newspapers.

Now, we are far from saying that all this imposition practised on Miss Sweet might not have been practised on a man. Men might have been found weak enough to imagine that the arrangement proposed by Campbell and Blakely was a proper one, and timid enough to pay the blackmail they demanded; and so a man might be such a favorite with the President that, on the revelation of practices such as were revealed by Miss Sweet, the latter would merely give him a gentle warning against their continuance, and take no means whatever to break up the hotbed of corruption that the facts showed to exist. But what we wish to call attention to is that the chances of this kind of scandal are indefinitely increased by putting women into offices such as that held by Miss Sweet. In the present condition of politics—with offices continually put up for sale, and sold to the highest bidder; with Babcocks, Blakelys, and Campbells disposing of or "assuming to control" them, the exposure of a woman to be cajoled and swindled by them is merely an offer by the Government of a direct premium upon corruption; while the pity generally excited in men by the sight of a woman in distress is held in reserve as another premium on silence and suppression of the facts. A man might have made as bad a pension agent as Miss Sweet, but the probabilities were against it, because ninety-nine men out of a hundred would have been too selfish and clear-headed to become the victims of such an open swindle as that practised by Campbell and Blakely; and in discussing the fitness of either sex for political duties, we must remember that it is the average, not the exception, that we must look at. The women's-rights agitators have, it is true, in all their arguments on the subject of woman in politics, ignored this view of the subject. They have steadily refused to consider what the tendency of the change in general—in the mass of cases—is likely to be, and always talk as if the effect on politics was to be estimated by the achievements of the best representatives of the sex, under the most inspiring circumstances. But the Joan-of-Arc argument, if we may call it so, is a delusion. There are forty thousand Miss Sweets in the world to one Joan of Arc, and the question is, how the forty thousand are likely to be influenced, in a majority of cases, by their surroundings. If badly, then the experiment will only make politics worse than they are now. If any one really believes that women, as a class, are distinguished by courage, by a keen sense of honor, by a capacity to meet men on even terms in business transactions, by an absence of docility, trustfulness, and reliance upon the superior wisdom of man, and also that their sex, as sex, has no influence in screening them from the consequences of their mistakes, and so covering up corruption and mismanagement, he may fairly conclude that Miss Sweet's successor had better be taken from the same class from which Miss Sweet was appointed.

THE EXHIBITION.

PHILADELPHIA, May 15, 1876.

AFTER the din and turmoil of last week, things are rapidly settling down to regularity. The daily newspapers of New York, Philadelphia, and other cities have given such full accounts of all that took place immediately before and during the opening exercises of Wednesday, that it will not be worth while to recapitulate even the most prominent features. Suffer me, however, to communicate one or two facts which will enable the judicious reader to discriminate in his reading.

The opening exercises, although on a large scale, were not in strictness imposing. They were lacking in ease and precision. Outside of the grounds the order, it is true, was as good as could be expected in view of the immense throng of carriages, cars, and pedestrians that blocked up all the avenues of approach. But inside the grounds the guards seemed at times at a loss to know what to do. The platforms, being insufficient for the accommodation of the guests, were crowded, and furthermore were not constructed so as to give a really good amphitheatrical view. As to the press-platform in particular, nothing could have been more unfortunate. The reporters were huddled together in the lowest section of all, where they could see and hear literally nothing. Some of the glowing descriptions by these gentlemen were drawn, I fear, chiefly from imagination. The ground between Memorial Hall and the Main Building, where not occupied by the staging, was in anything but good condition. The contrast between Vienna and Philadelphia in this respect was greatly in favor of the former. Despite the agony, one might say, with which the preparations were urged in the twenty-four hours preceding the opening of the Vienna Exhibition, the tidiness of all the approaches to the Great Rotunda on the eventful morning was admirable. Of the speakers last Wednesday, only Bishop Simpson and Gen. Hawley were audible; but then that mattered little, since all the speeches were printed and distributed an hour before delivery. With regard to the music, a discrimination must be made. The instrumental parts rendered by string instruments were too weak for the open air. Many of the piano notes of Wagner's march in particular barely reached the speakers' platform opposite. But the vocal parts were very effective. The rendering of Lanier's cantata was exquisite, and Whitney's bass solo deserves to the full all the praise that has been heaped upon it. It was well-nigh incredible that a single human voice could make itself heard over the vast area with such distinctness. Removing myself purposely to a distance of several hundred feet during the *encore*, I lost none but a few of the very lowest notes. The general conclusion which one may draw from the exercises is this, that no open-air ceremonies can be made so impressive as those held indoors. The eye is too much distracted by distant and incongruous objects; there is a want of unity and symmetry. Certain it is that

the exercises at Vienna, although the number of guests did not exceed twenty-five thousand, left upon the mind of the observer a definite impression of well-ordered harmony, of artistic method and grouping, which one missed at Philadelphia. Much may be said about "the surging masses" under the "blue canopy of heaven," yet twenty thousand of the élite, dressed in full concert costume, and seated composedly under a vast rotunda which is itself a triumph of human ingenuity, present a far more effective tableau.

It is perhaps not too soon to attempt to give a sketch of the actual condition of the Exhibition. A good deal remains to be done, but nothing that will alter essential features. The Main Building is in very good order, although there are several ugly gaps that one might wish to see filled. Among the leading exhibitors, France and Germany seem to be the most backward. The American and English departments are quite complete. In strolling down the central aisle last Saturday morning, I was struck with the great beauty of many of the American show-cases. They are not only expensive in material and workmanship, but are in excellent taste. The most brilliant is perhaps that of the Meriden Company. For general beauty of arrangement, the stand occupied jointly by Starr & Marcus and by Tiffany is remarkable. The display by the Philadelphia manufacturers of gas-fixtures is also handsome. Comparing the present exhibition with that of Vienna, one must confess that in certain branches the English and French have not done themselves justice. For instance, the English display of porcelain, majolica, and faience is meagre. The objects are good, some few, perhaps, of the highest order, but there is nothing like the lavish profusion which took one by surprise at Vienna. There, Minton, the Royal Worcester Works, and the Wedgwood Works had each large independent exhibitions. Here, Minton and the Worcester Works are compressed—with the Coalbrookdale Works—into one comparatively small stand. Of the great French bronze manufacturers, the greatest—Barbédienne—is not even represented, and the others send only very small quantities and not their choicest and newest styles. Then, the great Christofle house is conspicuous by its absence. Elkington's display is good, but inferior in quality and quantity to that made by him three years ago. There is also a painful dearth of cloisonné, repoussé, jewelry, precious stones, and cameos. The best specimens of filigree are to be seen in the Norwegian gallery. The Italian collection is not yet in order, but it may be doubted if Italy has sent her best, or even her second-best, mosaics and carvings. Some of the English furniture is attractive, but neither it nor the French will compare with previous displays; and unless my rapid survey has been too rapid for accuracy, no one of the skilful French *décorateurs* of parlors and bedrooms is represented. The German collection is very backward, but is evidently going to be made up of articles useful rather than ornamental. Owing to the slackness of French and English competition, the Berlin porcelain, which was completely overshadowed at Vienna, assumes here a good deal of prominence. Switzerland makes a display that is well worth study. It is not striking, either for its magnitude or for its brilliancy, but is planned to give a fair idea of the industry of the country. Austria is better represented than I expected to find her, after the financial troubles of 1873. Count Harrach and Lobmeyer have very good and, under the circumstances, large displays of Bohemian glass. In uncolored glass, James Green of London takes the lead. The Austrian collection of amber, meerschaum, leather goods, etc., is fine, although, of course, not so overwhelming in quantity as it was three years ago. Turkey and Russia are still represented by vacant spaces. The Japanese have all their goods out; their collection is about as large as on any former occasion, but gives the average of their productions rather than the very choicest. One will find here very fine specimens of lacquered ware and carvings, but will look in vain for such rare bronzes and curious idols as were irretrievably lost on their way home from Vienna. China has a very large exhibition, and, in certain branches, a very fine one. The English colonies are still backward. India exhibits nothing comparable to the celebrated pavilion at Vienna. The Egyptian collection is large, but not so diversified and not so artistically arranged. Without stopping to write of our own immense collections, or of the Dutch, Danish, Swedish, and Brazilian, I may say that the general appearance of the Main Building is very pleasing. The colors of the decoration harmonize sufficiently with the motley contents, the light is strong but not excessive, and the temperature is grateful. I do not apprehend that any part of the building will be found uncomfortable even at midsummer. The solid flooring is immensely superior for locomotion to the open planks at Vienna.

In all that concerns England and America, the Machinery Hall is well in hand. Germany and France, especially the former, have still much to do. By reason of the height and breadth of the building, the clatter of the machinery is not so distracting as might be expected. The building is kept remarkably clean, and free from any unpleasant odor of oil. To give some idea of the perfection of the arrangements, I may state that the *Herald* has been printing every morning since the opening ten to fifteen thousand copies on its Bullock press. The plates are stereotyped in New York and sent to Philadelphia by the early mail-train. The great sight in the building is of course the Corliss engine. Nothing could surpass the grace with which the giant does his work. It is to me the highest embodiment of man's power, and I could stand by the hour watching it. Seldom if ever does one have the opportunity of seeing an engine of such magnitude from top to bottom. Every part of the machinery except the lower rim of the fly-wheel is exposed to view, and nothing is to be heard but the sharp click of the cut-offs and a slight concussion of air made by the beat of the spokes of the fly-wheel. By standing very close to the fly-wheel one can detect the faintest rumble, but this is not caused by the engine itself, but by the running-gear below, which is still a trifle stiff. The watch-making machinery from Waltham seems to divide popular attention with the sewing-machines, of which there seems to be no end. Some of the heavier machinery for cutting iron and for cotton and wool spinning is apparently not in running order, probably because the exhibitors have not seen fit to make their connections with the shafting. But to do justice to Machinery Hall would require a special letter written by an expert. I can only say in a general way that it contains every variety of labor-saving appliance, and is in itself an attractive building.

Horticultural Hall does not altogether meet expectations. Whether the plants have been forced too rapidly, or whether the heat has been too dry, I cannot ascertain. The plants do not look hardy, and many of them are decidedly drooping. It is evident that a great conservatory cannot be improvised in a few months. Probably, in a year from now the collection will be much finer than at present. As it is, the visitor will not find any very rare exotics, nothing beyond the better-known varieties of ferns, lemon-trees, cactuses, and palms.

In the case of every great exhibition it is instructive to observe how predictions are flatly contradicted by results. Any one who should have ventured to assert two months ago that Agricultural Hall would be an agreeable building would have been laughed at. But now that it is complete and much of its contents in order, all agree in pronouncing it one of the chief attractions of the Exhibition. To my mind, it is not to be surpassed by anything save the very choicest collections in the Main Building and by some of the picture galleries. In the first place, the site is highly picturesque and the architecture is imposing. Viewed from Horticultural Hall, the tall peaked arches are nestled very cosily among the trees. Inside, the visitor is impressed with the boldness of the design and its effectiveness, and has some difficulty in persuading himself that the arches are in truth of wood and the whole a mere shell erected in haste for a temporary purpose. The light is good, and there is the freest circulation of air. I doubt if any other building of like nature and magnitude was ever constructed at such a moderate expense and with such complete success. As for the contents themselves, they are as diversified as the building is unique. The display of wines and spirits is far below that of Vienna, but in cereals, tobacco, spices, and articles of domestic consumption it is very rich, and the quantity of agricultural machinery is lavish even to recklessness. There seems to be no limit to the ploughs, hoes, shovels, reapers and mowers, threshing-machines, and their kind. One cannot fail to be struck with the superiority of the American machines. During the hot summer months this building will be frequented, I venture to predict, by those who prefer coolness and quiet to the more showy displays in the Main Building or to the rattle of machinery.

The collections of pictures in Memorial Hall and the Art Annex I leave, with your permission, to some more competent hand. I have barely touched upon the principal buildings, and cannot enter the others. The Shoe and Leather Annex, the Government Building, and the Carriage Annex are ready, and offer a very inviting array. The same may be said of the Women's Pavilion and half-a-dozen other small buildings. The state of the grounds is at once satisfactory and unsatisfactory. The turf and the trees have profited by the recent rains and are in a thriving condition. The foliage is somewhat backward, in accordance with the general season, but promises to be most abundant next month. The view from the plateau of Horticultural Hall, both east and west, is already superb. But this cannot be said of the walks. The managers seem to have been strangely remiss in the matter. They have had a spring of unexampled mildness in which to work, yet they have done apparently little since March. In some few quarters, it is true, where the building is not yet over, the walks will have to wait. But there seems to be no excuse for the interminable trains of dirt-carts that cut up Belmont Avenue when there is

a railroad track by the side and gravel-cars to be had for the hiring. And then the state of the ground about Agricultural Hall is disgraceful. Here, at least, the work of building is over, yet there is not a single comfortable way of approach. So long as the sun shines and dry winds prevail, one can walk over the grass and earth without discomfort; but three hours' rain—and this happened on three days of last week—suffices to surround the building with a broad belt of hopeless and uncompromising mud. For this, I repeat, no excuse can be found. There are other places where the need of good walks is also felt, but not on so large a scale. By trebling the present force of workmen, it would be quite possible to put things in order in a week. There is one other serious want, namely, of covered walks. The large buildings to the north are widely apart, on the periphery of a large circle as it were. In case of a sudden shower, such as came up last Friday afternoon, one unprovided with umbrella or waterproof will scarcely be able to reach the exit gates from this quarter without a severe drenching. At Vienna, it will be remembered, there were broad lattice-ways, covered overhead, leading from the Main Building to the Southern Gate, and it was always possible to reach the Main Building in one way or another by passing through detached buildings that made an almost unbroken line.

THE EASTER EXODUS TO PARIS.

LONDON, April 28, 1876.

IT was, I think, Sir George Cornewall Lewis who is reported to have said that "life would be endurable but for its pleasures." England during the past fortnight has been undergoing the practical realization of this sentiment—she has been enduring her Easter holidays. Easter being late this year, people naturally expected that an Easter week towards the end of April would be a week of genial weather, interspersed perhaps with soft, refreshing showers, destined to bring the budding green things to perfection, but, on the whole, genial and suitable for pleasures other than those of the fireside and the arm-chair. Everybody made preparations for a rush from London during the Parliamentary recess. Some, nerved to a great effort, started for Venice and the Italian lakes; others, less adventurous, dreamed of the Lower Rhône, the cities of Avignon and Nismes, and the blossoming almond-trees that lend a rosy charm to the district of the Pont du Gard. A few spoke of the old towns of the Loire—Orléans, and Blois, and Chartres, and the rest of them, on the borders of the country of the Vaux-de-Vire—finishing with a run through Normandy and Brittany, and an angry passage across the Channel from Havre or Dieppe. Some, wise in their generation, determined not to trust themselves to the treacherous winds and waves that haunt the "silver streak," but to rest content with such change as their own country can give them among the early wild-flowers of Devonshire and Cornwall, or among the cathedral cities of the South of England. But the vast majority of Easter pleasure-seekers who had no country place to shelter them found their way this year, as they do most years, to Paris, and there, in a blighting north-east wind which cut you to the bone and dried up all the life-blood left you by the Channel, and in showers of snow and sleet, they had an opportunity, rarely allotted to man and womankind, of experiencing the grim reality of Sir George Lewis's epigram.

Paris has a strange fascination for many English people of the easy classes, and each recurring Easter an annual invasion of the well-to-do inhabitants of London takes place, with signal profit to the Parisian hotel-keepers and the shop-keepers of the Palais Royal. These are not the same people who swarm like locusts over Switzerland and the Engadine and Rhineland during the months of August and September. The latter comprise many of the shop-keeping classes in London and the provincial towns, small officials about the Houses of Parliament and the public offices, lawyer's clerks, university hangers-on, and others of the kind—excellent people in their way, but not the sort of English travellers who add lustre to the English name. The Easter tourists are different. The shop-keeper and the lawyer's clerk have their run down to Margate or to Brighton for Easter Monday, but they have to attend to their work during the remainder of the week, and cannot leave it to cross the Channel. Members of Parliament and their wives and daughters, wealthy mercantile men, barristers who want a change, officials from departments of state, and men of leisure compose the invading cohorts of the armies of the spring. These people leave London during Easter. It has become the fashion to do so, and no one likes to be out of it, and therefore many of them flock to Paris—the men to enjoy the sensation of breakfasting at noon on doubtful delicacies in the restaurants of the Boulevards, and the enticing impropriety of witnessing a steeplechase on Sunday; the women to feast their eyes upon Parisian toilettes, and furnish their wardrobes for the London season. I cannot speak as to the gratification afforded by the latter pastime, but I doubt very much if the male Briton regards with unmixed satisfaction the part in the holiday drama that he is called upon to play. Contrast the everyday existence of a middle-aged father-of-a-family at home in London with the fevered gallop after pleasure which he has been taught to undergo for ten Easter days in Paris, and it is easy to understand the feelings which actuated the home-sick Scotchman to proclaim that "Paaris is all verra well for *show*, but give me Peebles for *pleeshure*." In London the middle-aged Briton has his comfortable house, with all his British comforts supplied him after the accustomed manner. He breakfasts on tea and ham and eggs at nine o'clock, and reads the morning paper over the dining-room fire with his second cup of tea by his side, and criticises with some complacency to his wife the transactions in the House of Commons over night. He strolls down to his office through the Parks becoming green and spring-like, or takes a turn in Rotten Row upon an easy-going hack and discusses the questions of the day with Ministers of State in equestrian deshabille. He occupies himself on his official work, and transacts, it may be, much important business of an engrossing but not harassing kind. He leaves his office about six o'clock with the pleasant consciousness that he has done a good day's work, and strolls up to his club to read the evening paper and hear the latest news and the last good thing. He gets home to eight o'clock dinner at his own house or at the house of a friend, and, as Mr. Pepys says, "with his mind in pretty good quiett, to bed."

In Paris, this same comfortable, middle-aged gentleman, with his staid and perhaps formal habits, is kept in one unceasing whirl of small perplexities from early noon to midnight. He does not understand French ways, but he is assured that he must adopt the most obvious of them. He awakes in a short French bed, in a room strangely unlike his family bedroom at home. It seems made up of mirrors and mysterious doors, which are opened silently by slippered menials of either sex, and he is startled to find one of the silent menials gazing at him. It is only café-au-lait for Monsieur, and this café-au-lait has to be taken like a medical prescription before the Englishman has had his bath. He rises doubtfully, but he cannot find his clothes—they are not laid out for him as they are in England. If he rings the bell, it is answered by some one who speaks with bewildering rapidity in an unknown tongue. Dressed at last, he sallies out vaguely with his wife, and wanders without purpose up and down the Rue de la Paix or the Boulevard des Italiens, looking into shop-windows at imitation jewellery and chocolate-colored Easter eggs. About noon he feels faint, and remembers he has had no breakfast. He enters a restaurant, seats himself at the nearest table, and is presented by an accommodating waiter with a huge book, bound in calf and filled with unfamiliar names of foreign dishes and foreign wines, and asked what he will command. His head begins to whirl, he plunges wildly at his book and orders a variety of dishes in season and out of season, the names of which he recognizes through the medium of dim recollections of corporation dinners in the city he has left behind him. He munches nervously the radishes and prawns upon his table till his déjeuner arrives, and then he finds it totally unlike the thing he fancied. But he cannot expostulate, owing to an inefficiency in his French vocabulary; so he pays his heavy bill under a humiliating sense of being "done," and leaves the place. But the hours are passing slowly, and what is there to do till table-d'hôte at six? He has a carriage, and drives in the Bois de Boulogne. But it is the wrong hour. The drives are not yet watered to keep down the dust, there are no equestrians, nothing to see except another English couple and a shopkeeper and his bride taking their bridal promenade. The Bois he finds slow, and not to be compared with his familiar Park, and he orders his coachman to take him at once to Galignani's reading-room. There he will hear the language of his country and find the English papers. He dines at table-d'hôte, but it is noisy and bustling and indigestible, and he rushes from that to some theatre where he cannot breathe, where his legs are crumpled up into strange contortions, and where he cannot understand one word in ten that is spoken during the performance, and which, if he could understand, would cause him to blush for the modest matron who sits resignedly, though uncomfortably, by his side. He stolidly sits the entertainment out because he has paid for it, and drives home in a coupé for fear of catching cold after it is over. He has spent his first day in Paris, and the nine succeeding days present no great variety. There is but one half-hour in each which, if he would speak the candid truth, he has enjoyed, and that is the half-hour spent in Galignani's reading-room among the English and American newspapers.

I do not imply by the foregoing fancy picture that every Englishman who goes to Paris is beset by every one of these perplexities, but there is

no exaggeration in saying that nine Englishmen out of ten, some time in their lives, on first going abroad have experienced most of these bewildered sensations. Is it then worth a sensible man's while to go through what is practically ten days' considerable personal discomfort in a foreign capital and call it a holiday? Many Britons will not agree with me, but, on the whole, I think it is. It is good for him to be shaken up from time to time, and, even for ten days, to be emancipated from his own insular surroundings. It may be bad for his digestion to eat two dinners in the day and to drink white wine at breakfast, but it is good for his mind to know that British tea and toast are not essential to existence, and that many men and women in France, and elsewhere on the two hemispheres, come to very fair physical maturity without them. His ten days have not all been spent in unprofitable flâneur-ing (if I may coin the word) on the Boulevards and the Palais Royal. Though the typical Briton would not dream of visiting his own National Gallery, which he passes every day on the way to his office, nor the British Museum, he is certain to spend some hours in the Salon Carré of the Louvre, and some minutes before the Venus of Milo, and these hours and minutes will not be unprofitable. Nothing would induce him to inspect the state apartments at Windsor or Buckingham Palace, but he will give up a day to the weary waste of galleries at Versailles or Fontainebleau, and pick up a good deal of forgotten French history in the process. He could not imagine himself spending an hour in the gardens of Kew or Osborne, but he will be almost happy in the park at St. Germain-en-Laye or in the doll's-house grounds of the Petit Trianon. Neither will he be defrauded of the pleasures of his beloved politics. They will not present themselves in the familiar forms, and they will relate to unfamiliar incidents. But it may not be unprofitable to recognize the fact that foreign nations know and care but little for the details of English politics which are so engrossing at home, and to realize that, after all, the immediate future of France is of greater importance to humanity at large than all the domestic questions which have agitated England for many years. Even the most insular of English Easter travellers cannot fail to be struck with the practical facts which are now in course of being transacted in France, and which come before the eyes of even the most short-sighted of our countrymen, and these facts relate to the Republic. That institution is on its trial, but it is watched by lynx-eyed enemies. It has the Empire in front and the Commune in rear, and the supporters of either system are taking its measure from day to day, and it cannot disregard the one body or the other. The former are awaiting the good time, at the close of the Septennate, when their young emperor, as they say, will come to claim his own. The latter have to be bought off with bread and games. Nearly five million sterling has been voted, or is about to be voted, to carry on the elaborate schemes for the adornment of Paris which had their origin in the lavish prodigality of the Second Empire—the prodigality which was the studied method of debauching the working-classes in the country. These are facts which afford food for speculation to any politician, and to the English politician more particularly. Because, if the Republic stand the trial which is imminent, and maintain its stability for even a quarter of a century, the reflex of that political phenomenon will soon present itself on this side the Channel—with what results, if the fantastic ideas and dangerous imaginings which now direct the affairs of this country, and have to-day proclaimed an Empire, should unfortunately continue to prevail, the most clear-sighted statesman would not dare to prophesy.

Correspondence.

THE CHINESE PROBLEM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In admitting—as you do in your issue of the 13th inst.—a chance of reason in the popular California prejudice against the Chinese, you do no more than simple justice to a feeling which is almost universal here. The whole East smiles superior when California frets over the Burlingame Treaty or shows her teeth at the Mongol. The very coarseness and unreason of our popular clamor are accountable for much of this feeling with you, and indeed it is not easy to pick out from the mass of vituperation the substantial grievances against the Chinaman. Yet it is impossible to live long upon the Pacific Coast—no matter what your original sympathies—without sharing somewhat in the universal Chinaphobia. That the Chinaman works cheaply and willingly; that he is exceedingly economical; that he sends his money home; that he does not acquire territory or become a citizen, or seek to influence politics or municipal affairs; that, living or dead, he ultimately returns to China—these things, no doubt, seem to you, if not positive merits, at least so near it as to make our complaints seem puerile, since these things form the basis of our complaints against him.

Let us admit that Chinese labor has done no damage to the Pacific Coast. The unremitting, willing work of two hundred thousand of the most industrious hands on earth must have done something to develop our productions. In fact, one of the corner-stones of California's prosperity is Chinese labor. For every dollar he sends across the Pacific, the Chinaman leaves a full equivalent; it is no valid grievance against him that he carries away his own. What he is really guilty of is being a Chinaman. He is an integral part of that enormous empire whose semi-civilization crystallized some thousands of years ago—if, indeed, it did not rather then initiate a slow and resistless retrogression towards primitive barbarism. The people of all other nations readily amalgamate with and become a part of us. The European, of whatever origin, becomes an American very soon; his children lose some of the parental traits, and begin to show the race-characteristics of Americans. Even the African adopts our language and religion; the steps of his progress are easy and sure—a savage, a slave, an intelligent contraband, a freedman, a citizen. The Chinaman never adopts an iota of our civilization, or becomes in any sense an American. Universal brotherhood does not and cannot apply to him, because he will not be a brother. His civilization *displaces* exactly so much of our own; it substitutes Mongolianism.

One-eighth part of our population is Chinese. Imagine, if you please, a proportionate number—say half a million—of barbarians in the State of New York, living under rigid customs of their own, obeying laws of their own, holding slaves, inflicting even the death-penalty (and this according to a barbarous code), paying nothing to the State. Imagine such a people, drilled by a long course of the severest struggle for existence until they have reduced the problem of subsistence to the very finest point—a diet of rice and entrails; a lodging in the rudest of bunks, one of a dozen others, built in what was once a sub-sidewalk coal-hole; clothing of the simplest pattern and cheapest materials. Imagine such a people, with no ambition for progress, no taste for education or the arts and sciences, no possibility of expansion into anything but confirmed Mongolianism. Could you blame a New York laborer—with perhaps a wife to support and children to educate and aspirations of his own to gratify—if he became a little restive when underbid by such a proletariat?

Economy is doubtless a virtue to be strongly inculcated, but when reduced to so terrible a point it is retrogression into barbarism. Such a horde as we have imagined above would necessarily push out of place an equal or greater number of your own people. The Fourth of-July orator, extending his hand to welcome the oppressed and down-trodden of all mankind, would find his hand rejected and himself pushed aside to make room for this strange new-comer. Something like this is the condition of California, with the added possibility of an indefinite expansion of this element. A quarter of the population of the globe wears the pig-tail—and it is a terrible and portentous fact to us. China can as easily send us millions as Ireland has sent us thousands. And if we make it comfortable for them here, if we open our doors as wide to them as to other people, I cannot see why she should not do so. It is plain to see that our theories must break down at this point—we cannot invite the Chinese to come here and outnumber us, bringing their tails behind them, and just as inevitably their changeless laws and customs. Yet the fundamental theory of our attitude as a nation on this immigration matter is that we open our doors and invite "all mankind." Really, we do no such thing; we issue our invitation expecting but a limited acceptance, and only by those who will submit to our ways and laws and customs. We invite them to come and join us and become Americans, not to come in exhaustless swarms and remain Asiatics. A literal acceptance on the part of "all mankind" would speedily swamp our ship of state.

In the general indictment of the Chinese as immigrants there are many counts, but they are too numerous to be catalogued here. Meanwhile, our treatment of the Chinaman, municipally and individually, is as bad as it well could be. We generally attack his positive virtues with great rancor. With our "Basket Ordinance" we fine him heavily for walking on the sidewalk with his humble and most useful load of vegetables. If he directs his efforts to the washing and ironing of our clothes, we impose upon him a grievous fine for *not* keeping a horse and wagon. Similarly fatuous is the average municipal ruler in many other points, while he is basely tolerant of petty persecutions and cruelties by graceless scamps and "*hoo-lums*." More strangely yet, he permits the Chinese themselves the broadest liberty in matters of great moment to the whole city. His quarter is crowded as never before was any quarter in any city; it is full of a strange and frigh t-

ful uncleanness that no drainage can purge. And this unsavory quarter lies close to the heart of the city, between its money centre and retail splendor and the private dwellings at its west end. There is no effort made to scatter and disperse this hemmed-in source of possible epidemics—to drive Chinatown to safer and more savory distances—for the "basket" and "laundry" ordinances seem to be the culmination of civic wisdom. These streets and alleys, too, are full of opium dens and gambling-hells and houses of prostitution and the like—so our public and uniformed police are withdrawn, and the Chinese residents allowed a corps of "specials" in their own pay, who naturally are not over-anxious to arrest their patrons.

We have no right to pass special acts or State acts to check the flow of Chinese immigration, but we have a right to be heard by the nation at large, and to have our grievance attended to seriously. The country cannot forbid our meddling in the matter on the ground that we are interfering with its especial prerogative, and then treat our outcry with neglect or derision. Yours, etc., A.

San Francisco, April 22, 1876.

Notes.

An autobiographic work by the late Secretary Seward, edited and concluded by his son, Mr. F. W. Seward, will be published in the fall by the Appletons.——Mr. Albert Mason has nearly ready a new and improved edition of Kinglake's 'Eothen.'——Henry Holt & Co. announce for republication 'Fifty Years of My Life,' by the Earl of Albemarle.——'Haydon's Life, Letters, and Table-Talk' furnishes out the first of Mr. Stoddard's Sans-Souci Series.——A volume of selections called 'Poems of Places,' edited by H. W. Longfellow, is in the press of J. R. Osgood & Co.——Mr. Horace E. Scudder has written a novel, of which the scene is laid in Boston, called 'The Dwellers in Five-Sisters Court.' Hurd & Houghton will be the publishers.——Roberts Bros. will shortly issue 'Mountains,' a selection of poems intended as a companion-volume to the well-compiled 'Sea and Shore' published a few summers ago by the same house; together with new editions of S. A. Drake's 'Old Landmarks of Boston' and 'Old Landmarks of Middlesex.'——A. Williams & Co. have reprinted from the *New England Historic-Genealogical Register* Mr. Geo. B. Chase's interesting sketch of the Lowndes Family of South Carolina, lately noticed by us. It is a highly creditable piece of work in a very difficult field (the South) for the genealogist, and is printed and bound in excellent taste. They announce 'Morning Songs of American Independence,' by Caroline F. Orne, and the 'Poetical and Prose Writings of Charles Sprague.'——A 'History of the City of Troy, N. Y.,' by A. J. Weise, will be published by Wm. H. Young of that city.——Considerable interest has been already awakened in the subject of a work in preparation by Claxton, Remsen & Haffelfinger on 'The Influence of the Blue Ray of the Sunlight and of the Blue Color of the Sky' in developing animal and vegetable life, in arresting disease and restoring health, etc., etc. It is based on and illustrated by the experiments of Gen. A. J. Pleasonton and others during the past fifteen years.——'The Prairie Province,' sketches of travel from Lake Ontario to Lake Winnipeg, by J. C. Hamilton, is announced by Belford Bros., Toronto, Canada.——Rees Welsh & Co., Philadelphia, have reprinted Chap. X., Book III., of Mill's 'Principles of Political Economy,' which treats of a double standard and subsidiary coins.——As an incentive to the cultivation of a talent too often smothered in after-life, the Harvard *Lampoon*, with its autographic illustrations by students, seems to us to fill usefully a vacant niche. A few years ago such a publication would have been impracticable. The *Lampoon*'s sketches have steadily improved, and the Doyleyne series of cartoons, the "Manners and Customs of ye Harvard Students," exhibit a more than amateur's *chic*.——The American Social Science Association will open a three days' conference in Philadelphia at the College of Physicians on May 31. The general meeting of the Association will take place at Saratoga, Sept. 4–9.——We have been reminded that the *New Century* (for Women) appropriates a name already bestowed on the monthly journal of the International Free Trade Alliance (New York: A. D. F. Randolph & Co.)——A good many Americans might be glad to help sustain a society lately formed for photographing relics of old London. Copies of all views taken are issued to subscribers at cost price. The active official of this enterprise is, as we learn from the *Athenæum*, Mr. Alfred Marks, Long Ditton, London.——Mr. Trübner has published a valuable Catalogue of Sanskrit Literature, containing all works produced in Europe, and a very large number of those produced in India, with prices; and with a catalogue of Pali books added, all in eighty-four octavo pages. Valuable, too, is his catalogue of books, new and old, embracing early voyages, travels and narratives, and historical and archæological works relating to Great Britain and Ireland, to Asia, Africa, America, etc.——A 'Bibliotheca Orientalis' of nearly 180 pages comes to us from Bernard Quaritch, 15 Piccadilly. It catalogues works relating to the history and languages of the East, including Africa and Polynesia, supplementary to those advertised in Mr. Quaritch's 'General Catalogue' for 1874.

—A correspondent writes us from Topeka: "In the *Nation* of May 4 you speak of 'the misspelling of Mr. Browne's name.' The father of the writer known as 'Artemus Ward' was named Brown. His mother was a Brown when she died. A brother of his, who was an editor in New Bedford, lived and died a Brown. Charles F. Brown did not add the *e* to his name until he went to New York and wrote for *Vanity Fair*. The change was made, as he told me, because a colored man named Charles F. Brown had an office in a lower story of the same building on Nassau Street."

—As the sale-catalogue of Mr. E. G. Squier's library is likely to be preserved for the sake of its rarer titles and for other reasons, it may be well to call attention to a mistaken extract from Field's 'Essay towards an Indian Bibliography' appended to 'O-Kee-Pa' (No. 180, p. 24). Mr. Field represented that this work of Catlin's had been published by the author in self-vindication, owing to the unwarranted connection of his name by Trübner's *Record* with a privately-printed pamphlet on the secret customs of the Mandans, "said to be indescribably lascivious." The notice of this pamphlet, according to Mr. Field, appeared in the latter part of 1866. We learn from Mr. Trübner that no such notice is to be found in the *Record* for 1866; that Mr. Catlin was a contributor to its columns under his own signature, and that the advertisement of 'O-Kee-Pa' had a conspicuous place in it, during that very period. The facts which Mr. Field evidently intended to report were these. Several years ago the religious ceremony of the Mandans was described by Mr. Catlin and presented by him in MS. to a literary friend, who thought it curious enough to issue in a very limited impression for private circulation without consulting Mr. Catlin. Mr. Trübner was the first to inform the latter of what had taken place, whereupon Mr. Catlin prepared for publication the well-known illustrated edition of 'O-Kee-Pa,' omitting, *pudoris causâ*, certain details contained in the MS., although they formed an important and symbolic part of the ceremony. Of this portion he subsequently printed a few copies for private distribution. It is needless to add that the relations between Mr. Catlin and Mr. Trübner were always of the most cordial nature.

—On Friday, May 5, the semi-annual change of weather took place. Its date has been very uniform now for several years. Some time since, we proved that there are really only two seasons in our year, their boundary line being the date just passed. The other boundary—*i.e.*, the commencement of winter—is the change that has been denominated the November atmospheric wave. Last fall this occurred on October 31. Some of the phenomena by which the change of weather in May may be recognized are these: there is a sudden increase of heat so permanent that only a long rain can mitigate it, whereas, during the winter semester, clear days were colder than rainy ones; also, summer rains begin with the wind at SW and end at NE, whereas winter rains begin at SE and end at NW, and the SE becomes now a fair-weather wind; also, on May 5 the trees suddenly open their long-waiting buds.

—The "immense ovation" with which the reappearance of Dr. S. M. Landis on the Shaksperian stage was greeted at Tammany Hall a week ago last Tuesday was, if we may infer anything from the proceedings on the succeeding night, an ovation in the sense of the word used by one of the witnesses at the Tichborne trial, who, on being asked what he understood the meaning to be, explained that by ovation he understood "hooting and shouting." We can only speak with absolute certainty of the performance of Wednesday, when the Doctor appeared, as the advertisements had announced, in his "blood-curdling recital" of *Richard the Third*, the first performance of which had so affected the feelings of a certain Dr. Mortimer that the latter appealed to Dr. Landis for heaven's sake to "get a wooden dagger," as the sight of a sharp instrument in the tragedian's hand was, as he used it, "terrible." Quite different from the feelings of Dr. Mortimer appeared to be those of the audience on Wednesday night, for the two or three hundred people who distributed themselves among the superabundant settees of Tammany, instead of showing any apprehension or nervousness at the horrible way in which the principal performer hacked and slashed at his imaginary foes, appeared to be much exhilarated by the combat, and to be filled with that genuine theatrical *gaudium certaminis* which leads the spectator to take a personal interest in the varying fortunes of the fray, to egg on the combatants with cheers

and yells, and, in fact, to make such a din as to drown the voice of Richard at his loudest, and to recall the classic days of the stage when there was still a pit. The Doctor's method of acting is different from that of the Count Joannes (who heads the only other school of Shaksperian tragedy with which his can be compared), for he does not, like the Count, call to his aid (as, we must say, seems to have been the intention of the writer of "Richard the Third" and "Hamlet") a company of actors and actresses. On the contrary, Dr. Landis asks for nothing but a costume in character (including of course a rapier in *Hamlet*, and a somewhat stouter and less fragile weapon for the hot action of Bosworth field), a sofa, two chairs, three screens, and a whistle to represent the rising of the curtain. He does, as a matter of fact, introduce two voices behind the scenes, whether belonging to human beings or not we cannot say—one a deep bass, for the male parts, and the other more or less of a soprano, for the female; but as the sounds made by them are not articulate, and are delivered with a rapidity which would make them unintelligible even if they were, it is difficult to see what substantial assistance they render the leading character, particularly as the audience, by shouting familiar quotations from the play and gratuitously furthering the efforts of Dr. Landis with advice, suggestions, criticism, and approval, made it frequently difficult to know what anybody was saying. The engagement of the Doctor at Tammany Hall is, we believe, now over, after a brief season of two nights, so it is unnecessary to canvass the question whether, as a permanent institution, his method of acting Shakspere would be a success. For a single occasion, the sport is good, though it must be confessed it is a little cruel.

—Experiments have recently been made before a board of naval officers at the Washington Navy Yard with Lay's movable torpedo, in reference to its adoption by Government. This torpedo is of boiler-plate iron, is cigar-shaped, about 20 feet long and 30 inches in diameter at the middle, and carries 500 pounds of explosive material in its front compartment. The propeller is moved by carbonic-acid gas, generated within the machine, the details of which are not made public; the rudder is controlled from the shore by fine electric wires contained in a cable which is unreeled from the boat itself; by making connections on a key-board the machine can be turned to the right or left, the engine stopped or put in motion, and the torpedo exploded; it is impossible, however, to reverse the engine or reel up the cable. The Washington experiments were very successful so far as control of the machine was concerned, and prove it to be a useful adjunct to the defence of a harbor, if operated from the shore. Its usefulness from shipboard at sea is more problematical. The defence against it would be a heavy netting surrounding the ship, and its efficacy against this can hardly be predicted. A torpedo of a similar character, although differently shaped and operated on other principles, is that invented by Ericsson. It is propelled by compressed air supplied through a rubber tube which is unreeled *on shore*, the rudder being controlled by increasing or diminishing the pressure of the air. Successful experiments were made with this torpedo at Newport last summer. A comparison of the relative merits of Lay's and Ericsson's inventions would involve too much space in this notice; they can both be seen side by side in the Government Building, Navy Section, at the Centennial Exhibition.

—The Senate which lately adjourned at Albany distinguished itself for a remarkable aversion to the confirmation of Mr. Tilden's appointments, no matter whether they were good or bad; but the dead-lock to which this aversion threatened to lead was broken in at least one case, by the appointment of Mrs. Charles Russell Lowell as a State Commissioner of Charities. It is, we believe, an innovation that a woman should be appointed to a position of this kind, and the public has reason to thank itself that the Senate did not choose on this account to suspect that the nomination was a gubernatorial and Democratic "dodge" to catch the Reform vote, or had some mysterious connection with the warfare on the Canal Ring. There is really no branch of the executive machinery of the State in which the influence of women of real intelligence and also practical experience will more certainly tell than in that which relates to charities. As it is now, women do, without salaries or profit of any kind, a great amount of the work of volunteer supervision and inspection which is the only check we have on the maladministration in the hospitals and reformatories caused by the corrupt condition of politics. Few, who have not actually seen it for themselves, can guess what nurseries of disease and crime (to say nothing of misery and filth) mismanaged public institutions become; and it is to prevent such mismanagement that State Boards of Charities exist. The appointment of Mrs. Lowell, who was an active member of the Sanitary Commission and more recently of the State Charities Aid Association, represents not a recognition of the claims of one sex against the other, or of woman's rights so-called, but the claims of experience, capacity, and zealous interest in reform, where reform is sadly needed, to a share in the responsibilities of government.

—The Surgeon-General's Office has issued a large amount of very creditable work, and is a good example of the uniform success of those branches of our Government which are in the hands of professional men and comparatively uncontrolled by politicians. The latest and perhaps the most remarkable instance of its useful literary labor is due to Assistant-Surgeon John S. Billings, whose 'Specimen Fasciculus' of a proposed catalogue of the Surgeon-General's (or, as he prefers to call it, the National Medical) Library has just been printed in seventy-two pages large octavo, running from *Aabec* to *Air*. A few copies have been issued to elicit criticism and to determine whether the whole work, which is nearly ready for the press, should be published. That it deserves to be published is certain; that it will be is more doubtful, if that depends on securing an appropriation from Congress. Legislative bodies are generally indifferent to literature and suspicious of science. The present city government of Boston, for instance, elected on a cry of economy, has done little economical except cut down the appropriation for the Public Library. Certain Congressmen are said to consider the printing of "that list of books" appended to the recent report on the cholera epidemic of 1873 a shameful waste of money. In their eyes, to publish the present catalogue would be a still greater extravagance, for it will make five volumes of a thousand pages each. The cause of this extraordinary bulk for a list of forty thousand volumes is the thoroughness of the analytical work—that is, of the references to articles contained in periodicals and in the transactions of learned societies. Dr. Billings is a physician with an unusual taste for bibliography—practical bibliography, we mean: that kind which treats books not as objects of curiosity or causes of mania, but as instruments of scientific work. Knowing that commonly the best contributions to practical medicine first appear in medical journals, and that a large amount of valuable matter appears nowhere else, he made unwearied and generally successful efforts to complete the collection in the Surgeon-General's Office. Over how wide a space he has cast his net may appear from one example: under "Acid" (Carbolic), we find titles of periodical articles in English, German, French, Italian, Spanish, Swedish, and Russian. But this mass of material would have been nearly useless without an index, and Dr. Billings has had the courage to undertake to make one, putting an amount of work into it that would be possible only in a Government office well provided with clerks.

—The result is a medical bibliography. The author, it is true, disclaims all pretensions to that title; but no medical bibliography of equal extent has ever been published. Lipenius, Kestner, Carrière, Engelmann, Young, Puchelt, Sprengel, and a score of others, do not exceed a thousand pages. Even the six volumes of Haller's 'Bibliotheca Medica' and 'Bibliotheca Chirurgica' together fill but three thousand six hundred pages, each containing about one-third of the matter of a page of the 'Fasciculus.' The voluminous works of Ploucquet and Reuss alone approach and perhaps equal the extent of the promised work. It will even be the largest of library catalogues. The Boston Public Library catalogue, with its supplement, reaches only one thousand six hundred pages, the Boston Athenæum less than three thousand five hundred, and the Advocates' Library of Edinburgh only about four thousand nine hundred. Hardly any of the space is wasted. Dr. Billings has employed most of the common methods for compressing titles and packing them closely, and, in addition, some devices of his own. But we hope that he will not print till he has made every possible effort to complete his periodicals. Even the United States cannot be expected to reprint such a huge catalogue; articles hereafter acquired must be relegated to the inevitable supplement; and it is certainly desirable that as much as possible of the older literature should be contained in the main volume. We have left ourselves no room to commend the details of the work. We will merely say that the style of printing which begins at page 51 seems to us the best of the five varieties employed in the specimen, and next in beauty and clearness is the last style used. The use of capitals for authors' names and for the first words of anonymous titles is always to be avoided, because they are hard to read; the italic capitals employed in the first pages are hideous. We may suggest to Dr. Billings one method of distinguishing words that he has not used: s p a c i n g t h e m. One further remark, by the way. The old title, "Library of the Surgeon-General's Office," may not convey an adequate notion of the size and importance of the collection; but we warn the Surgeon-General that its alteration to "National Medical Library" may lead to its transfer by politicians into other hands. On the principle of leaving well enough alone, we de-

precate any change from the efficient control that has made it one of the best working professional accumulations. If a new name must be taken, why not style it the "Medical Library of the War Department"?

—We should be sorry not to think there was some ground for the hope expressed by M. Vivien de Saint-Martin, in announcing his retirement from *L'Année Géographique*, that a successor may be found ("not more zealous, perhaps, but younger and with greater leisure") to carry on that important publication. Its cessation would be a real calamity, for it is without a rival or a parallel. The thirteen volumes, covering fourteen years, form an invaluable library of reference in regard to current travels, exploration, and all the literature of geography. The record is anything but a dry one, for it abounds in interesting *précis* and ample extracts from the leading works noticed, while of scarcely any is some characterization, however brief, omitted. The whole is classified with French system, and an index of names of travellers and authors leaves nothing to be desired. Regularly, too, a full geographical necrology, and occasionally a map, are inserted. The work appears punctually in the first quarter of the year after date, and the only interruption was caused by the siege of Paris. M. de Saint Martin's reason for withdrawing from his onerous post is the necessity he is under of completing certain works of great magnitude—his 'Dictionary of Modern Geography' and its accompanying 'Universal Atlas,' and a 'Dictionary of Historical Geography' which is immediately to follow these. He finds himself, as he says, like a laboring barque forced to throw overboard part of its freight in order to get into port.

JEBB'S ATTIC ORATORS.*

WE fear that many scholars will be disappointed when they read the full title of this work and see that it does not include the orators of the age of Demosthenes, but stops short with Isaeus, the instructor and adviser of Demosthenes. Professor Jebb's object is twofold; first, to give a history of the "oratorical branch of Attic prose" from its beginning to its maturity; secondly, to help students of the earlier orators "who have nothing but a Greek text before them." In the introduction he takes a rapid survey of rhetoric from its rise in the Sicilian democracies of the fifth century B.C. until the appearance of Antiphon, the first Attic orator developed under its influence. This is preceded by a discussion of the essential character of ancient oratory and its relation to modern eloquence. The greater part of the two volumes is occupied with Antiphon, Andocides, Lysias, Isocrates, and Isaeus. In each case we have first a life of the orator, then a chapter on his style, and in the case of Isocrates one on his theory of culture; then follows an elaborate account of his extant works, with a separate introduction to each speech or treatise, and an analysis of its contents. At the end we have a chapter on the period of "matured civil eloquence," in which Demosthenes, Aeschines, Hypereides, and Lycurgus are briefly discussed; this is followed by an account of the decline of oratory during the period between Demosthenes and Cicero, and of the revival of the study of the pure Attic oratory in Rome under Augustus, chiefly through the influence of the Greek rhetoricians, Caecilius and Dionysius.

The chapters which treat of the styles of the five orators trace the development of oratory, which is almost identical with that of Attic prose, from the point of view of the Greek rhetoric. This art had a remarkable effect on the fortunes of Greek prose. The arrival of Gorgias in 427 B.C. with a Sicilian embassy is commonly said to have first roused the rhetorical spirit in Athens. The Assembly, according to Diodorus (xii. 53), was "astounded" by this first display of scientific oratory, with its "foreign air" and its new and brilliant figures. The pyrotechnics displayed by Gorgias must have been very different from those to which the Athenians had been accustomed while Pericles "thundered and lightened and confounded Greece." This anecdote of the effect produced by Gorgias is an additional proof that the eloquence of Pericles was natural and not rhetorical, and that his power over the Assembly came from his personal influence, his persuasiveness, and, above all, his exalted dignity of character and of bearing, which made him seem like an "Olympian" among the smaller men around him. The death of Pericles must have set the new race of statesmen to devising means for gaining and keeping control of the Assembly, and the arrival of Gorgias with his new art of persuasion was just in time to help them. At about the same time Thucydides was beginning to write his history, deeply impressed with the importance of his task and anxious to make his work "a possession for all time." He also naturally felt that rhetoric could help him. Rhetoric thus became fashionable at Athens just as prose composition began to be seriously cultivated as a new branch of literature. We, who at least read our newspaper every day, can hardly conceive the position of a cultivated Athenian in the middle of the fifth century B.C., to whom the reading and the writing of simple prose were alike unfamiliar. When he read, he read poetry, and a rich literature was always open to him; if he could not write poetry, he seldom wrote at all. The idea of using the common language of every-day life in literature as an equal of verse seldom, if ever, occurred to him. No one had yet tested in literary composition the power of plain, simple language, and it required great faith to make the trial. A few such models as were afterwards seen in Lysias, in the plain style which Demosthenes could always use when it was needed, and in the simple narrative style which Thucydides himself adopted whenever he did not "try to write," would have proved a powerful antidote to the charms of the Sicilian rhetoric. As it was, it is no wonder that the early prose fell into the hands of the rhetoricians, who taught that the language of conversation was not dignified enough for literature, and that the best prose must be as elaborate in its way as poetry. "Gorgias," says Mr. Jebb, "was the first man who definitely conceived how literary prose might be artistic. That he should instinctively compare it with the only other form of literature which was already artistic—namely, poetry—was inevitable. Early prose necessarily begins by comparing itself with poetry. Gorgias was a man of glowing and eager power; he carried the assimilation to a length which seems incredibly tasteless now" (p. cxxvii.)

This tendency to make prose artificial in the attempt to make it "artistic" explains the "theatrical figures," the parallelisms and antitheses, which Dionysius censures in Thucydides. "In these," the critic says, "Gorgias, Polus, Licymnius, and many others of that time abounded." Dionysius expressly says that the style of Thucydides is best where he deviates least from ordinary language, and worst where he deviates most. Of the artificial style which he censures, he says that if people should use it to their fathers and mothers, they would need interpreters as if they spoke a foreign tongue. A striking result of this original idea, that written prose must follow to some extent in the steps of poetry, appears in the importance which seems always to have been given to the "rhythm" of prose. Even Aristotle, though a century removed from Tisias and Gorgias, tells us that oratorical language must be "rhythmical, though not metrical"; not, however, "precisely rhythmical" like poetry, but only "to a certain extent." He objects to iambic rhythms as wanting dignity, because we use them more than any others in common speech; and he commends the First Paeon (— ⏑⏑⏑) for the beginning, and the Fourth Paeon (⏑⏑⏑ —) for the end, of a sentence ('Rhet.,' i. 8).

With all its extravagances and its errors in taste, there can be no doubt of the service which the earlier rhetoric rendered, by giving men power over language and calling attention to the form of expression when this was in most danger of being neglected. The same systematic training which once made men accurate in balancing antitheses afterwards made them accurate in the use of a pure, simple diction or in rounding elegant periods. We have spoken of the early influence of the art in discouraging simplicity of style, because it illustrates the position of the early prose writers of Athens (among whom Thucydides is more interesting to us than Antiphon) in the history of literature. Indeed, so long as rhetoric was a servant to pure taste and native good sense, it was a powerful aid to both speakers and writers; when it became the master of bad taste and bad sense, it led to empty declamation and to the *verbis volucre et incitatum* style (as Cicero describes it), which probably was much in sympathy with the "spread-eagle" and "rushing" eloquence of our own day. The best Greek rhetoric did not pretend to make an orator of everybody. Isocrates himself, the greatest master and teacher of the perfected art, places nature far above the two other requisites of an orator, rhetorical training and practice. He says: "If a pupil should listen to all the discourses on the art of speaking, and should outstrip all others in accuracy of knowledge, he might perhaps become a more elegant writer of speeches than common men; but let him rise before an audience with but the single element of courage wanting, and he would be unable to utter a syllable" ('Antidos.,' § 95). At the same time, he admits that cultivated art will sometimes prove superior to neglected nature.

Our space will permit us to give only a few specimens of the distinctions introduced by the Greek rhetoricians, and these will serve to show how far their principles of criticism are likely to interest us now. Mr. Jebb gives us careful accounts of the three "harmonies," or styles of composition, described by Dionysius—the "austere," the "smooth" or "florid," and the "middle." The first is represented by Antiphon, Thucydides, Pindar, and Aeschylus; the second by Isocrates, Hesiod, Sappho, Ana-

* 'The Attic Orators from Antiphon to Isaeos. By R. C. Jebb, M.A., Fellow and late Tutor of Trinity College, Cambridge, and Public Orator in the University; Professor of Greek in the University of Glasgow.' 2 vols. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1875.

creon, and Euripides; the third, which combined the virtues of the two others in judicious mixture, is found in Demosthenes, Homer, Sophocles, Herodotus, Plato, and Aristotle (the Aristotle known to Roman scholars). The character of the third class is, of course, absence of the peculiarities which mark the other two. Besides these three "harmonies," the ancients described three styles of "diction" (*i.e.*, choice of words)—the "elaborate" of Thucydides, the "smooth" and "plain" of Lysias, and the "mixed" of Isocrates. We must refer to Mr. Jebb's chapters on style for the application of these distinctions. The important distinction between the "running" and the "periodic" style is found in Aristotle's Rhetoric. It is thus described by Mr. Jebb: "The 'running' style is that in which the ideas are merely strung together, like beads, in the order in which they naturally present themselves to the mind. Its characteristic is simple continuity. The characteristic of the 'periodic' style is that each sentence 'comes round' upon itself, so as to form a separate, symmetrical whole. The running style may be represented by a straight line, which may be cut short at any point or prolonged to any point; the periodic style is a system of independent circles" (vol. i., p. 33). Of the periodic style of Isocrates Mr. Jebb says: "With Antiphon, as we saw, the structure of the period was still a matter of effort—admitting, too, of little variety; in Lysias, the power of forming terse, compact periods is nearly perfect, and is combined with skill in avoiding monotony; with Isocrates, the periodic style passes into an altogether new phase. The distinctive mark of the new Isocratic period is a certain luxuriant amplitude. Instead of aiming at the vigorous compression fittest for real contests, it rejoices in rich diffuseness, it unrolls itself like a clear river, luring the hearer on from bend to bend through the soft beauties of its winding course" (vol. ii., pp. 61, 62). The last words give the image by which Dionysius describes the "meandering" period of Isocrates. In contrast with this "long, luxuriant sequence" of periods, "Demosthenes intersperses the most finished and most vigorous periods with less formally-built sentences which relieve them; Lysias binds his periods, by twos or threes at the most, into groups always moderate in size but often monotonous in form—excelling Isocrates in compactness, but yielding to Demosthenes in life" (vol. i., p. 168).

We will add a single passage in which Dionysius states the indebtedness of Demosthenes to Thucydides. He says that Demosthenes stood alone among orators in recognizing the great merits of Thucydides, and that he borrowed from the historian and adapted to his public speeches "virtues which neither Antiphon nor Lysias nor Isocrates, the first orators of their times, ever attained—viz., rapid movement, terseness, intensity, sting, astringency [what Mr. Jebb calls his 'biting flavor'], and mastery in rousing the feelings," while he avoided "the fondness for strange words, the outlandishness, and the poetic character"—faults which Dionysius had already censured in the style of Thucydides, and which were to be expected in a pioneer like the historian, whose chief authority in Attic diction was the usage of the tragic poets. The testimony of the orator to the merits of the historian is a valuable commentary on the style of both.

Cities of Northern and Central Italy. By Augustus J. C. Hare. In three volumes. (New York: George Routledge & Sons. 1876.)—Mr. Hare has already earned the gratitude of tourists by his two elaborate compilations—the 'Walks in Rome' and the 'Days Near Rome,' and the work before us will add largely to the obligations felt by that numerous class of travellers who find their Murray and their Bädeker dry and meagre, and yet have not time or means for making researches. If the 'Cities of Italy' (like its immediate predecessor) is not such entertaining reading as the 'Walks in Rome,' this is not the fault of the author, who appears to have been equally zealous and careful; it is explained simply by the fact that no place in Italy, and no combination of places, is so interesting as Rome, and that the fund of quotable matter which Mr. Hare had to draw from is in this case very much less rich. Every one who has written at all (and who at the same time has been a traveller) seemed, by the testimony of Mr. Hare's pages, to have recorded some impression or some memory of Rome, and the subject, for the moment at least, has always made the writers vivid and eloquent. It was therefore easy, comparatively speaking, to make up a book very largely of quotations. Mr. Hare still follows the same system—that of giving himself the mere facts and directions, and letting some one else speak for him in matters of opinion and description. He has had some trouble, we imagine, in drumming up his authorities in the present case, and he has admitted a few rather ragged recruits. It is rather a shock to the discriminating reader's faith in his guide to find him offering us the spurious rhapsodies of "Ouida" and the flimsy observations of Alexandre Dumas. The author might have trusted himself a little more. The 'Walks in Rome' was for all practical uses a guide-book, but it was also very possible to read it continuously at a distance from the localities. Few readers will be tempted to follow this course with the volumes before us—their guide-book quality is much less mitigated. The extracts from other books, though always sufficiently pertinent, are rarely very entertaining *per se*, and the author's own text consists mainly of enumerations and catalogues.

Mr. Hare's first volume treats of the Rivieras, Piedmont, and Lombardy; the second, of Venice, Bologna, the cities of the upper Adriatic, and those of Tuscany north of Florence; and the third, of Florence, the minor Tuscan cities, and those which lie along the road to Rome. All this is very complete and exhaustive, and the author has taken pains to acquaint himself with places that are rarely visited. We wish, indeed, that he had devoted to some of these obscurer lurking-places of the picturesque a portion of the large space he has allotted to Venice and Florence. Murray's hand-book for France contains no account of Paris, on the ground that it is so well described elsewhere; and on some such principle as this Mr. Hare might have neglected the cities we have mentioned in the interest of certain by-ways and unvisited nooks. Mr. Hare would be very sorry, however, to take example in any respect by Murray, for whom he appears to cherish a vigorous contempt. This sentiment is on some grounds well-deserved—chiefly on that of the antiquated tone and exploded instructions of the great father of guide-books; but a generous tourist, it seems to us, should remember that Murray was a precursor in days when the tourist's lot was not so easy a one as now, and that he has smoothed the path for those who, thanks in a measure to his exertions, are in a position to cavil at him. But, as we say, Mr. Hare is extremely thorough—his excursions to places so off the beaten track (and in one case indeed so inaccessible) as Bobbio and Canossa are good examples of his determination to be complete. His volumes have been to us an eloquent reminder of the inexhaustible charm and interest of Italy, and of her unequalled claims to our regard as the richest museum in the world. It may cost us some pangs to see her treated more and more as a museum simply, and overrun with troops of more or less idly-gazing foreigners—a state of things which such publications as Mr. Hare's do much to confirm and encourage; but we are obliged to make the best of what we cannot prevent, and confine ourselves to wishing that, since Italy is to be "vulgarized" beyond appeal, the thing may be done with as much good taste as possible. To this good taste Mr. Hare very successfully ministers. He has evidently a passionate affection for Italy, as regards which some of his readers will profess a strong fellow-feeling, and though he opens the gate wider still to the terrible tourist-brood, he recommends no ways of dealing with the country that are inconsistent with a delicate appreciation of it. He has in his Introduction some very good general remarks as to what the traveller is to expect, and the way in which he is to conduct himself. He says, very justly, that the great beauty of the country is beauty of detail. "Compare most of her buildings in their entirety with similar buildings in England, much more in France and Germany, and they will be found very inferior. There is no castle in Italy of the importance of Raby or Alnwick; and, with the sole exception of Caprarola, there is no private palace so fine as Hatfield, Burleigh, or Longleat. There is no ruin half so beautiful as Tintern or Rievaux. There is no cathedral so stately as Durham, Lincoln, or Salisbury," etc. (This last statement obviously requires modification.) But "in almost every alley of every quiet country town," Mr. Hare continues, "the past lives still in some lovely statuette, some exquisite wreath of sculptured foliage, or some slight but delicate fresco—a variety of beauty which no English architect or sculptor has ever dreamed of." On the other hand, we think that the author goes too far when he says that the beauty of Italy is almost exclusively the beauty of her towns—that fine scenery is rare. He enumerates a small number of "show" districts—the Rivieras, the Lakes, the line of the railroad from Florence to Rome (together with the neighborhood of the former city), and appears to think that he has exhausted the list. But the truth is that all the scenery of Italy is *fine*, in the literal sense of the word—it is all delicate and full of expression—all exquisite in quality. Even where the elements are tame, outline and color always make a picture—the eyes need never be idle. The towns in Italy certainly deserve every admiring thing that can be said about them, but the landscape in which they are set is at least worthy of them. Mr. Hare has the good taste to like the Italian character, and to deprecate the brutal manners, in- ing with it, inculcated by Murray—especially that "making your beforehand" which appears to be the sum of Murray's practical "Never make your bargain beforehand," says Mr. Hare: offensive exhibition of mistrust by which you gain noth who are peculiarly sensitive to any expression of cor

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hesitate to pronounce this sound advice, and to admire, with the author, that sweetness of disposition which is proof against the irritation so plentifully provoked by the usual conduct of tourists. "The horrible ill-breeding of our countrymen never struck me more than one day at Porlezza. A clean, pleasing Italian woman had arranged a pretty little café near the landing-place. The Venetian blinds kept out the burning sun; the deal tables were laid with snowy linen; the brick floor was scoured till not a speck of dust remained. The diligences arrived, and a crowd of English and American women rushed in while waiting for the boat, thought they would have some lemonade, then thought they would not, shook out the dust from their clothes, brushed themselves with the padrona's brushes, laid down their dirty travelling-bags on all the clean table-cloths, chattered and scolded for half an hour, declaimed upon the miseries of Italian travel, ordered nothing and paid for nothing, and, when the steamers arrived, flounced out without even a syllable of thanks or recognition. No wonder that the woman said her own pigs would have behaved better." We differ, however, from Mr. Hare in the estimation in which we hold Italian unity, and the triumph of what he never alludes to but as the "Sardinian Government." He deplores the departure of the little ducal courts, thinks Italy had no need to be united, and never mentions the new order of things without a sneer. His tone strikes us as very childish. Certainly the "Sardinians" have destroyed the picturesque old walls of Florence, and increased—very heavily—the taxes, but it is a very petty view of matters that cannot perceive that these are but regrettable incidents in a great general gain. It is certainly something that Italy has been made a nation, with a voice in the affairs of Europe (to say nothing of her own, for the first time), and able to offer her admirable people (if they will choose to take it) an opportunity to practise some of those responsible civic virtues which it can do no harm even to the gifted Italians to know something about. But on this subject Mr. Hare is really rabid; in a writer who loves Italy as much as he does, his state of mind is an incongruity. It is a small defect, however, in a very useful and valuable work.

Authorized Report of the Second Church Congress of the Protestant Episcopal Church, held in Philadelphia, November 9, 10, 11, and 12, 1875. Edited by the General Secretary. (New York: T. Whittaker. 8vo, pp. 263.)—The introduction of the Church Congress into the Episcopal Church in the United States is justified on two grounds—its free discussion of present Church thought and life, and its contribution to permanent religious literature. We dwelt at the time of its session upon one of its vital topics—the relation of the Church to the masses. Some of the other subjects discussed in this volume are: Ultramontanism and Civil Authority; the Best Method of Procuring and Preparing Candidates for the Ministry; Church Music; the Nature and Extent of Episcopal Authority; the Parochial System and Free Preaching; Bible Revision; the Mutual Relations of Religious and Scientific Enquiry; the Best Methods of Promoting the Spiritual Life. The clergy and others who read papers or made addresses evidently spoke with entire freedom, sparing no words for fear of hitting or hurting anybody; the result is a better measure of the active life of the Episcopal Church than anything we have yet seen, while some of the more carefully prepared papers are valuable contributions to the current social and religious thought. Such are Bishop Huntington's essay on free preaching, Mr. Pellew's on religious work among the working-classes, Dr. Vinton's on the nature of Episcopal authority, Dr. Fulton's on its limitation, Mr. Brooks's on the spiritual life. The tone of these clergymen towards men of science is that of conciliation and sympathy. They avoid the bristling attitude sometimes shown by religious teachers, and their purpose is to accept the truth from every quarter and go down to the bottom facts, in the belief that theology and science are not required to part company. Dr. Garrison does not mince matters when he says: "What we do need is that clergymen shall learn one of two things—shall know science when they preach about it, or not preach about it at all." This is but a specimen of the plain-speaking which characterizes the entire discussion.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 25, 1876.

The Week.

MR. SIMON CAMERON'S anger over the nomination of Mr. R. H. Dana for the English Mission was freely attributed in Washington at the time to the fact that it interfered with some of his plans for the political elevation of his son, Mr. Donald Cameron. Since then the Senator's surprise and gratification over the manner in which Mr. Conkling was "developing strength" have grown steadily, and so has the confidence of Mr. Conkling's personal following in New York that his nomination at Cincinnati was a "sure thing," as all the necessary arrangements had been made for it. The recent changes in the Cabinet probably explain what these arrangements are. Mr. Edwards Pierrepont, the late Attorney-General, goes to England, which is a respectable though not brilliant appointment. Judge Taft takes his place as Attorney-General, which is an improvement, as the Judge, though a very good Secretary of War, will be a better Attorney-General. But then there can be little doubt that these moves are made simply to provide a place for Mr. Donald Cameron, an obscure man of forty, now engaged in railroad business, whose only claim to the place is that he is his father's son. What sort of claim this is is best explained by recalling the fact that his father was Lincoln's first Secretary of War, and that he was compelled to retire under the opprobrium excited by the gross corruption and jobbery in which he engaged freely at the moment when the rest of his countrymen were offering life and property in defence of the Government. To be knavish in the presence of the patriotic exaltation of 1861 was to be knavish indeed. The probable explanation of Mr. Donald Cameron's appointment is a bargain between his father and Mr. Conkling, by which Conkling gets the Pennsylvania vote in the Convention and any other influence Cameron may have, and in return Conkling supplies White House favors. We presume the honest delegates at Cincinnati will make a note of this, and remember that, though Cameron may sell delegates, he cannot sell many voters.

The "Favorite Son" business has been finished, Hayes having been "presented" in Ohio, Conkling in New York, Hartranft in Pennsylvania, Blaine in Maine, Bristow in Kentucky, and finally Parker in New Jersey, and now the real work will begin. The Kentucky resolutions are outspoken in demanding "thorough retrenchment and most rigid economy," and "such reform in the civil service as will prevent the prostitution of public station to selfish ends, and make honesty and capacity indispensable qualifications for all offices"; call for "men in office who are honest and have the courage to fight corruption"; denounce repudiation as a "national crime"; and oppose any postponement of a return to specie payments "beyond the time now fixed." The Delaware Republicans have held their Convention and declared for Blaine, while in Alabama, where a reform movement is in progress, the delegates to Cincinnati are for Bristow. The Alabama Republicans are in favor of reform, but declare that the most searching enquiries "have entirely failed to exhibit a single instance where President Grant has tarnished with his pen the splendid triumphs of his sword." The Democrats of Iowa are opposed to the Resumption Act, and demand its repeal, while at the same time they insist upon an "early return to specie payments." The Tennessee Republican delegation to Cincinnati are divided between Bristow and Morton. A letter from Parson Brownlow was read to the Convention, in which he makes to the Middle and West Tennessee Republicans this encouraging prediction: "We will roll up such a majority for the whole Republican ticket as will make the knees of this profligate and corrupt Democracy smite together as did those of Belshazzar on the night of that celebrated banquet." The New Jersey Republicans are unpledged, but are supposed to have a preference for Blaine. The National Greenback party have had their convention at Indianapolis, and nominated Peter Cooper for President, with Newton Booth of California in the second place. There were only two or three hundred delegates present, and the meeting was a failure.

The Ohio Communists have carried the Democratic State Convention, and put forward William Allen as their candidate for the Presidency on a platform made up of demands for the immediate repeal of the Resumption Act; the defeat of all resumption schemes which involve contraction, the perpetuation of the present banking system, or increase of interest on the debt; the "gradua but early" substitution of greenbacks for bank-notes; the issue by the Government alone of all currency; a "sound currency equal to the wants of trade and equalized with gold" by "appropriate legislation," making it receivable for customs, and interconvertible with 3.65 bonds; a "graduated income tax"; and a law making silver a legal-tender for all debts. The Hard-Money Party in the Convention, headed by Mr. Thurman, tried to get a platform of a different sort adopted; but, on the whole, the country is to be congratulated that they did not succeed, for even their platform demanded a repeal of the Resumption Act, and opposed any measure "which shall arbitrarily fix a day" for resumption. The success of Allen finally disposes of Thurman as a "Favorite Son," and will force the Democrats at St. Louis to say what they really mean on the currency question. The failure of Mr. Thurman is an awful warning to the politicians of both parties who set up for reformers without fully making up their minds that reform means a fight for principle, and not a sacrifice of it for votes.

J. B. Stewart has replied to Mr. Blaine's accusers at length, and declares that Mr. Blaine was never in his office at all, that he never had any transactions with him in Kansas Pacific bonds, and that if the name "James Blaine" or "—— Blaine" occurs in the records of the court in which his suit is going on, it is either the result of a forgery or a mistake. He says that John E. Blaine was the name, and that the whole story arose out of a mistake on the part of Knowlton as to the person whom he saw in his (Stewart's) office. He suggests an easy way of settling this part of the story, viz., that the bonds, which are still in existence, and can be identified, be examined, so that if the name of Knowlton appears on any as attesting witness, the history of these can be investigated, and he says that he will have this done at once.

The probabilities at this writing are said to be that the Senate will decide by a small majority that it has jurisdiction in the Belknap case, but we observe that Mr. Nordhoff says in the *Herald* that his conviction is unlikely, because those Senators who now deny the jurisdiction will believe it to be their duty to acquit him, on the ground that they have no right to try him at all, and that in this way the necessary two-thirds vote will not be forthcoming. We hope this is not an accurate description of the mental condition of the minority, because, if it were, it would show that they were fitter to be members of a Jacobin Club than of an American court. The question whether Belknap is triable by the Senate is not a moral question, "sounding," as the lawyers say, in the eternal verities, and in the solution of which a man has to explore the inmost recesses of his soul and get ready for the stake or the gibbet. It is a purely legal question, and there is no right or wrong about it, and a majority vote of the Senate settles it without appeal.

What a majority of a court of last resort decides with regard to its own procedure becomes as binding on the minority as the Ten Commandments. If the Senate says it has jurisdiction, it *therefore* has it, and the opinions of those Senators who think it has not become of no more consequence than their opinions about the weather or the Cincinnati nomination, and ought to have no more effect on their finding on the question of Belknap's guilt.

Things are going badly with General Schenck. He swore a few weeks ago before the Committee that Park had not drafted his resignation of the Emma Mine directorship for him, and that he had never seen any copy of his resignation in Park's writing. Whereupon, Mr. MacDougall cruelly forwarded by mail the document in question, with corrections in it which were plainly in Schenck's writing, and acknowledged by him to be his, but which Park, perceiving the situation to be desperate, came forward and unblushingly swore a thumping oath that he had made himself. Within the past week, too, certain telegrams from Schenck to Colonel Cheesbrough of the Legation in London having been produced, containing directions from Schenck sent from Paris for operations in the Emma Mine stock, he (Schenck) swore he had never sent them; but now comes Cheesbrough and writes that he did send them, and that it is all true. To crown all, the Committee has ascertained that, in spite of his enforced resignation, he has been holding his office as Minister and drawing his pay, which seems to confirm the suspicion entertained by many people that he was driven into resigning by the alarm caused by the Belknap exposure, but, this having blown over, was allowed to hang on. Next week we shall give a careful summary of the evidence taken before the Committee as affecting Schenck; on the following week, we shall render the same service to Park. The public does not know half the good things which were brought out in the investigation about these eminent men.

We have already twice within the last two years given in these columns the history of the Freedmen's Savings-Bank swindle and the principal details of it. It will therefore not surprise our readers to learn that the Congressional Committee of Investigation has reported unanimously that the institution was almost from the start a scheme of selfishness under the guise of philanthropy, and rapidly degenerated into a monstrous fraud; that the connection of its managers with the "District Ring" was close, five of the officers of the District Government being in the directorate, and the money being freely lent on worthless securities to Ring contractors. They recommend, accordingly, that Henry D. Cooke, Lewis Clephane, Hallet Kilbourn, and Joseph Evans should be criminally indicted, and others sued civilly for money obtained by them from the bank. But, then, the trouble is that few, if any, of them are worth suing. The case is one which eminently calls for Government interference. Congress is morally bound to pay the depositors in full.

The Committee appointed to investigate the Custom-house at New Orleans have examined one witness, who swears to several frauds committed in the importation of cigars, and gives some damaging testimony about Sypher, an ex-Congressman, who, as he says, got him to sign from forty to sixty fraudulent pay-rolls with real and fictitious names, and then got money upon them for the expenses of his election. The description given of the state of the cigar business in New Orleans is not encouraging, one dealer who paid money to the Custom-house gang being reported as saying, "Damn these fellows; they come after me before I can get the cigars out of the cases." The witness, who has lately been in the employment of the Custom-house, says that at an earlier date his occupation was that of a "political striker," and he referred to another gentleman as a "member of the Custom-house band"—a musical organization which Casey keeps in his pay to arouse the enthusiasm of voters. The Committee is now going to New Orleans to take testimony.

The testimony of Rehm and Hesing in the Chicago Whiskey Trials shows that the whiskey frauds in that city were carried on upon the same plan that worked so well in St. Louis. Rehm was a prominent politician, in the malt business, and also superintendent of police. In 1872 a distiller complained to him that some other distiller was making illicit whiskey, and begged Rehm to use his influence with the Collector to have a new gauger put into the distillery. This was done, and immediately Hesing, another influential man and proprietor of an influential newspaper, came to protest against the change, as he, Hesing, had endorsed the fraudulent distiller's note. He represented that unless the illicit manufacture was allowed to go on, the note would not be paid. In this way Rehm was let into the secret, and he in his turn approached the Collector, Irwin, who said that if he was to do anything wrong he must be paid for it, on which a satisfactory bargain was immediately concluded. Then the Supervisor and the Special Agent were taken into the ring, which consisted, when it was finally formed, of the distillers and all the officers of the revenue appointed to watch them. The money paid by the distillers was, as in St. Louis, partly kept by those who received it, and partly spent in "sustaining the party." Rehm swears that all his share went in this way, as he was "in politics all the year round," and did not want money merely when an election was coming off. The connection revealed by such testimony as this and that in St. Louis between politics and frauds on the revenue is so glaring that the Republican papers are not disposed to exult over the exposures, as they were at first, as a triumph of good government. It must be confessed that the present system of having all the Government officers in the pay of the whiskey-rings, and relying on their quarrels for evidence of this fact and for an account of the tax which ought to have been collected, is unsatisfactory as a method of collecting the revenue, however much it may show the desire for "reform within the party."

Mr. Bowen has been brutally expelled and "cast out" by Plymouth Church, in spite of a long and gallant defence. He is now a pewless man, and, if he should become embittered, might carry "the bottom facts" to the grave with him. But we do not believe he will become embittered. He has too rich and genial a nature, and is too anxious to do good. We have no doubt he will join another church, and take "the bottom facts" with him for the edification of some other religious society. We fancy, from his extreme fastidiousness about the persons he tells them to, that they are very precious to him, and probably the contemplation of them often consoles him in these sad days of dull business and fading hopes.

Silver continues to decline in London, and the lowest price ever known (52*d.* per ounce) has been reached. This makes the silver tokens now coming out of the Treasury worth 82¼ cents to the dollar, and the proposed dollar of 412½ grains worth 88 cents gold. The value in gold of a United States note (legal-tender) for one dollar ranged during the week between 88⅛ and 89 cents. Congress has done nothing during the week to increase the issue of silver tokens, which are coming out of the Sub-Treasury here at the rate of $60,000 to $75,000 per day. The silver halves are taken at 2 to 2½ per cent. premium by bullion-dealers to send to California, where they can be used at 95 to 96 gold; they are issued from the Treasury here at less than 89 gold. The premium on other small change ranges from ½ to 1½ per cent.

The Royal Titles Act, giving the Queen the title of Empress of India, has probably caused more bitterness of feeling than any measure passed in England within half a century. This bitterness was aggravated by the report, which was generally believed by the opponents of the measure, that it owed its origin to pressure brought to bear on the Ministry by the royal family, the younger members of which were said to be troubled by questions of precedence in their intercourse with their Russian and German relatives,

arising out of the fact that, while they were only "royal," their Continental connections were "imperial," and it was doubtful, therefore, whether the imperialists were not entitled to take the *pas* of them in going in and out of rooms and occupying seats. Finally, in order to settle these difficulties, the Queen was said to have urged Disraeli to make her an Empress, and his pertinacity in carrying his bill through in defiance of the best sentiment of the country was ascribed to Her Majesty's eagerness for the new dignity. Mr. Lowe, Mr. Gladstone's Chancellor of the Exchequer, seems to have got hold of this story in a shape which he deemed authentic —viz , that the Queen had not only urged Disraeli into his present course, but had tried in vain to get two former Prime Ministers to gratify her, and he (Mr. Lowe) accordingly produced it hot and strong in a speech at a public meeting. This furnished Disraeli, who owes him an old grudge, an opportunity for savage vengeance. He intervened in a discussion on the subject between Mr. Lowe and another member; denied that either he or Lord Derby had ever been applied to on the subject; quoted Mr. Gladstone's denial that he had been applied to; suggested the improbability that Lord Palmerston or Lord Russell had been; and then, as a *coup de grâce*, introduced a communication from the Queen contradicting the whole story from top to bottom. Two days later, Mr. Lowe came down and made an abject apology to the Queen, pouring ashes on his head for every reason he could think of, and leaving himself in a condition which must have satisfied even such a cruel monster as Disraeli. In all probability, this destroys Mr. Lowe's chance of ever holding office again, as no Liberal Premier would be likely to present his name to the Queen as a member of the Cabinet after what has happened.

The proclamation by which the Queen assumes the new title restricts its use to all documents intended to operate in India and the Colonies only, except military commissions; but there appears to be some difference of opinion on this point between the heralds and the lawyers, Sir Bernard Burke, the great heraldic authority, having advised the Corporation of Dublin that it would be proper to address the Prince of Wales as "Imperial Highness," while the Attorney-General says this is all wrong. But we presume the fears of the opponents of the measure are well founded, and that, gradually but surely, the vast force of flunkeyism which pervades the United Kingdom will have its way and give the Queen and the royal family the most sonorous title possible, without regard either to the Act of Parliament or the proclamation, and there will be no remedy; and the practice of the flunkeys will grow into a usage which everybody will finally follow. The quarrel seems at this distance a somewhat trivial one, but to many Englishmen the assumption of the new title marks in an unpleasantly sharp way the passage of England into the category of the new electro-plated monarchies of the last hundred and fifty years, and the consequent loss by the Crown of a portion of the dignity which a thousand years of unbroken custom gives even to a name.

England is reported as having refused to join in the note to the Porte agreed on in the recent conference of the three Powers at Berlin, on the ground that the making of an armistice with the insurgents through foreign mediation would be a recognition of them as belligerents; but, if this be the true reason, it will doubtless be got over by her addressing a separate note to Turkey herself. There does not seem to be anything left for Turkey but to yield. The murderers of the consuls at Salonica have been executed to the number of nine, amidst more or less popular excitement, but under the guns of the foreign fleets, and two more will probably follow. At Constantinople the excitement resulting from the movement of the Softas appears to have been even greater than was at first reported, and the foreign colonies at Pera and Galata were greatly alarmed for their safety, and probably will continue to be, and with reason, as long as the insurrection lasts. The lower classes of Turks, and the Ulemas, find it hard to believe that the Empire has really lost its strength, or that the growing insolence of the "infidels" is due to anything but weakness on the part of the Ministers. If Turkish rule in Europe should be overthrown, we should probably witness terrible atrocities committed by the Mussulmans before finally surrendering. The immediate cause of the present excitement is said to be the announcement by Mukthar Pasha that in his late fights to relieve Nicksics the insurgents had been aided by 7,000 Montenegrins; and what the war party at Constantinople would have liked to do was to precipitate an attack on both Servia and Montenegro. The Montenegrins are, however, making strong efforts to avoid giving any fair ground of complaint, and Servia is held firmly in check by Austria.

The new scheme for the assumption by the Empire of the ownership of the German railroads which Prince Bismarck has brought forward, and which is now the leading topic of German politics, is almost a necessary consequence of the union of the states. When we say that there are fifteen hundred and sixty-three railroad tariffs in the Empire, nearly every little state having its own, which it enforces against the through as well as the local business, so that calculations of the cost of transportation are rarely reliable in a business enterprise, and that, while some of the roads are owned by the state, others are in the hands of private corporations, it is easily seen that any reform attempted must be thorough and sweeping. The question is of course a good deal complicated by the feeling of "Particularism" which has been reviving somewhat since the war, and which finds the railroad-centralization plan a very good thing to make a stand upon. Prince Bismarck has accordingly met this difficulty by getting the Prussian Parliament to offer the railroads of that kingdom—some of which the state owns and others of which it controls—as the first sacrifice on the Federal altar, and it is expected that the other states, and particularly the larger ones, will rapidly follow. Bismarck's speech in the debate was eminently sober and cautious, and evidently intended to reassure the doubters. He does not think the Government should assume all the railroads at once, but only by degrees, and as fast as it finds itself able to manage them. He asserts that his projects, so far as they have assumed a definite shape in the Government's proposals to the Landtag, will require at least three years for their realization, so that probably all who have now in an official capacity to deal with them will have left the stage without witnessing their full development. It is admitted on all sides that no question of equal importance has been brought before the Landtag since 1866.

France has, luckily, little to trouble her beyond the question of amnestying the Communists, with which the Government seems disposed to act moderately and rationally—that is, to be willing to pardon those who acknowledge their error, and not those who still glory in their work and wish they had a chance to try again. In spite of the general prosperity of the country, there is a good deal of mourning over the steady decline of the French shipping, which is made harder to bear by the steady growth of that of Italy; and over the great falling-off during the year in the export of French commodities, which is made easier to bear by the fact that nearly all the great producing communities have the same story to tell. In fact, the civilized world seems to be economizing. M. Gambetta, who is placed at the head of the Budget Committee, is applying his active mind to questions of taxation, and has made a valuable suggestion for the revision of the official land survey and valuation, which is now thirty years old, and bears much less of the burden of direct taxation than it is able to bear. A great Exposition, which is to surpass anything yet witnessed in glory and extent, is planned for 1878, and is apparently intended to celebrate the return of France to order and prosperity, and to assure the world of the essentially peaceful and industrial character of the new Republican régime. Paris, too, is to be made ready for it by restoring all the ruined buildings, and carrying out some of the plans of improvement suspended by the war, by means of a loan of about $25,000,000.

A CENTENNIAL VIEW OF "PRACTICAL MEN."

THE comments of the press on the Fifth-Avenue Conference have brought out with increased distinctness the curious change which has taken place during the past fifty years in the meaning attached to the term "practical," as applied to persons who are either actually in public life or who interest themselves in politics. At the foundation of the Government and for a generation afterwards, a "practical man" was, in political parlance, a man who was competent to legislate or assist in legislation touching the various interests of an industrial community. He was familiar, that is to say, with the history of all that had been attempted or accomplished in the way of regulating the social activity or protecting the individual liberty of civilized societies; he had a mind well stored with the contemporaneous facts on which the policy of a legislative and administrative body should be based, and showed ability in making inductions from them for political purposes, or he had great power in the presentation of the arguments by which legislation was influenced or framed.

The men who bore the most prominent part in the formation of the Constitution—Washington, Hamilton, Madison, Jefferson, Adams, Franklin, and Jay—were in various degrees practical men; that is, men more or less familiar with the various political problems of their time, and with the facts which bore nearly or remotely on their solution; with the principles of trade and commerce and taxation; with the limits of the possible in legislation; with the history and conditions of political freedom, and with the strength and policy of foreign powers; and, as a consequence of this, they were for the most part sober-minded men, whose talk was the result of thought. Their writings, epistolary and other, are at this moment read eagerly and profitably by all political students, both for doctrine and instruction. Open a volume of their correspondence—Madison's, for instance—and see what his letters are about. On the first page of the index we find him discussing the manner of keeping the accounts of the War Department; the Achæan Confederacy; Admiralty jurisdiction; the African slave-trade; the effect of age on the judgment; agriculture; the Alien Bill and sedition laws; ambassadors; colonization; the Amphictyonic Confederacy; Anglicanism; apportionment; power of appropriations; aristocracy; Arkwright; artillery; banks; bankrupt laws; and so on—in other words, the weightiest subjects which can engage a statesman's attention; and there is hardly a word he says on them from which the reader may not get either new light or food for reflection. We might furnish a dozen more illustrations of the same kind. An index of Morton's or Conkling's letters would be amusing reading.

Now, these men, who performed what is by far the greatest political feat of modern times, perhaps the greatest feat of political construction ever performed in any age, and whose writings are still consulted as authorities on almost every subject touched by them, would be incapable of achieving any political success in our own day, and would, if they attended a political convention, be the laughing-stock of the managers, and, if they met in consultation on the affairs of the country, be sneered at as visionary and impracticable persons by most of the party newspapers. And yet the problems of government are still substantially the same that they were in their day. How to provide a good administration of justice; how to tax most lightly and yet most productively; how to provide for popular education; how to protect individual freedom; how to deal with foreign nations, and how to provide for the national defence; how to maintain the public credit and to regulate the currency—were the problems *they* had to solve; they are the problems *we* have to solve. Not a single absolutely novel question has arisen since their time except slavery, and that has been settled out of hand. Yet if these men lived in our day we should hardly be able to find a place for them in public life. Washington would probably be a Virginia farmer, writing grumpy letters on public affairs to Hamilton, a rich lawyer in New York, who passed his summers in Europe; Madison would be writing a history in fifteen volumes, and reading papers occasionally at an Historical Society; Jefferson would be a popular lecturer on Daniel O'Connell, or a Professor of the Heart in a second-rate college; Jay would be simply a trustee of Columbia College and a vestryman of Trinity Church; and John Adams would be a retired "Beacon-Street man," of frosty manners, whose nomination for high office would excite a smile in caucuses, while his "ability and patriotism" would be universally acknowledged in newspaper articles and conversation. If they were all to meet somewhere and take into consideration "the present alarming condition of public affairs," they would not fare a whit better than the less distinguished assemblage which met the other day at the Fifth-Avenue Hotel—that is, they would be advised to go back to their libraries and lecture-rooms and attend to matters they understood, because Conkling and Cornell and Bliss, they would be told, would be sure to beat them out of sight in the conventions and at the polls. "How many votes does General Hamilton command in his State?" the party organs would exultingly ask. "Why, just one. And how many Mr. Madison? Why, one also. And is it not, with all respect to these gentlemen be it said, under these circumstances, a little presumptuous for them to be giving advice to the 'brilliant' Conkling or the 'able and energetic' Morton or the 'sensitive and studious' Logan, to say nothing of the 'scrupulous and high-toned' Cameron?"

Moreover, we have reached such a pass that there is not at this moment a single man in the United States Senate whose opinion on any question of finance is received with respect by financiers, or whose opinion on a question of constitutional law is received as conclusive or even weighty by lawyers, or whose economical dicta command the attention of economists, or who has even a tolerable knowledge of the history or resources or policy or manners or languages of foreign states, or who has achieved any distinction in any department of literature or science or art, or is identified with any piece of difficult and successful legislation, or has by any conspicuous achievement reflected credit on his country or his generation. This is the first time in American history when this could be said; and yet the Senators are now confessedly our foremost politicians, and, par excellence, our "practical men." They *act*, we are told, while the professors and scholars and divines, who are mourning over the state of the country, only *talk*.

Now, what is the reason of this great decline? How is it that so few of our foremost men—of those who know how governments are successfully conducted, who can tell how laws will work, how taxes ought to be levied, how justice can be best administered, how the springs of national greatness are fed, the real "practical men," in short, of all ages and all countries—are to be found in control of the dominant political parties of the day? The explanation is not far to seek. If the Constitution had divided the appointing power among the Senators and Representatives, and made the offices party perquisites, the state of things we are now deploring would probably have been reached sixty years ago. The talent of the country would have retired into private life completely, and the authority of individual knowledge, judgment, and character have lost all weight, and an entirely new and peculiar test of practicalness have been created. In the first place, skill in the distribution of offices among the lower class of electioneering agents is hardly attainable by a man distinguished in higher and better things, even if he were willing to seek it. Consequently, the need of it stops our leading men at the very threshold of public life. They neither possess it nor are willing to make terms with those who do, and this is what renders the position of any first-class American at a political convention a little ridiculous. In the second place, even if a man really skilled in the art of government gets into public life, the distribution of patronage, and its resulting correspondence, interviews, and consideration of complicated "claims" and interests, are a work of such magnitude as to leave no time for attention to questions of either legislation or administration. It is in many of its features so repulsive that a real politician, sooner than submit to it, abandons political life altogether; and those who remain give up all serious attention to the work of government, and

pass their days either in seeing and satisfying office-seekers or writing letters to them, or in pushing such bits of legislation as their "workers" in their State or district may use as claptrap in securing a second nomination. No one who has watched Congress since the war can help perceiving the melancholy truth that it is under a kind of paralysis which makes the scientific or efficient treatment of a single leading question of the day almost hopeless, and causes the business world to watch its attempts at legislation with unconcealed terror. It cannot pacify the South; it cannot govern the Indians; it cannot regulate the tariff, or reform the currency or the civil service, or grasp any new subject like the silver question; and the defence it usually puts forward for its helplessness is thoroughly paralytic, viz., that if the bad men somewhere would only behave themselves, all would go well.

Were the pressure of the appointing power removed from the legislators, even such men as we have now in public life would do better than they are doing, though, no matter how good our legislation might be, the laws could not be "faithfully executed" without a trained and competent and permanent civil service; but if it were removed, and the work of appointment diminished by tenure during good behavior, so that the President and heads of departments could manage it with but little assistance, a different class of men would undoubtedly find their way into politics once more—men who are really interested in and skilled in the art of government, the real "practical men," in short, whom every civilized country but our own is more and more calling into its service as the first condition of national existence and prosperity. In politics in this sense our politicians have no interest. There must of course in all free countries be persons who look after the organization of parties and the machinery of elections, just as there must in every army be captains and lieutenants, sergeants and corporals. But we have committed the terrible mistake of raising them to the highest offices in our gift, and allowing them to parade their little tactical tricks and devices as feats of statesmanship. The real visionaries and theorists of politics, as of all other fields of human activity, and in this country as in all others, are the ignorant and unreflecting men. Morton and Logan and Cameron orating on finance are sentimental dreamers and romancers, in spite of the fact that they can "capture" a legislature or a convention. Thaddeus Stevens fixing the price of gold was none the less a visionary fool because he could get a majority of the House to approve of his folly. So was that other eminent man, whose name we forget, who refused to believe that a Government which had suppressed "the greatest rebellion the world ever saw" could not collect a tax of two dollars a gallon on whiskey. Ability to seize on a government by no means argues ability to carry it on. We are amused by Tweed's impudence in calling himself a "statesman," but he gave himself that name for the same reasons and with fully as much justification as Morton or Cameron can offer for calling themselves "practical men." He had got hold of the "machine" in a way which the ablest and best men in New York could not imitate, and he was rapidly persuading the public that it was through such men as he that the government of great cities on our soil was best conducted.

THE EXTRADITION TREATY.

LORD DERBY has answered Mr. Fish, and Mr. Fish is said to be replying to Lord Derby, on the Winslow case. The position which Lord Derby was said to have taken first was that he was bound to obey the British Act of 1870, which forbids the surrender of criminals under extradition treaties without some stipulation protecting them from trial for other offences than those for which they were surrendered. When this news came, we ventured to make the suggestion that this was no answer to the American demand, because, as has been said so often by the newspapers which have tackled the question on this side of the water, the United States cannot possibly admit that its rights under a Treaty can be modified by a municipal enactment of the other party. This position, too, was rendered still more untenable by the fact that the British Government has since 1870 disregarded its own law on several occasions by surrendering prisoners with regard to whom the stipulation prescribed by the Act was not required, and it has itself tried men for one offence when they had been surrendered to it by this country for another. If the British Government could, therefore, disregard the Act in other cases, they could in Winslow's also, and common decency would require that, if they set it up at all, they should not set it up without notice and against a pending demand for a criminal about the nature of whose guilt there was no doubt.

If report speaks truly, however—for the correspondence has not been published—Lord Derby does not now take this ground, but a much stronger one, to which those who have discussed the matter in our papers have given no attention—viz., that he acts in virtue of the right reserved by international law to the parties to every extradition treaty to judge whether a demand for the surrender of a criminal under the treaty is made in good faith, and to exact a pledge, if deemed necessary, that he shall not be tried for any offence not specified in the treaty. That this right exists is acknowledged by the text-books, and, what is still more to the purpose, it has been exercised both by England and America, and may be exercised again any day. The Treaty does not do away with it. It specifies certain offences for which criminals shall be surrendered, but it remains with the power on which the demand is made to decide whether the offence with which the fugitive is charged was really or only colorably one of the offences described in the Treaty. For instance, Great Britain has refused to surrender under the Treaty a slave guilty of killing his master in order to secure his freedom; and we have refused to surrender an Irish tenant guilty of killing his landlord. In both these cases, what each Government said was: "What you call murder, and believe to be covered by the Treaty, we do not consider murder in the sense in which the word is used in the Treaty. The circumstances of the case give it in our eyes a different complexion, and we are the sole judges of our duty in the premises. We have discretion, that is to say, in the construction of the Treaty, which comes to us from general principles of international law, of which the Treaty cannot deprive us. It is not enough, therefore, for you to say that this man has committed murder. We enquire into the causes which led to the offence, the social and political conditions under which it was committed, and conclude that it would be against our policy and repugnant to our public opinion to give him up."

If this is a correct statement of the position towards each other of the parties to an extradition treaty—and we have yet to see its correctness questioned—it is of course mere trifling to say that all Mr. Fish has to do is to show that Winslow had committed forgery in order to be able to accuse Lord Derby of bad faith. Great Britain still retains the right to go behind the charge and examine the circumstances under which it is made, and see whether it covers or is likely to cover any other charge not included in the Treaty. It may be inconsistent or discourteous or sharp practice for her to do so, but it is not a breach of the Treaty. For it must be remembered that the Treaty does not provide for the surrender of all criminals, but for that of criminals accused of certain offences. Other offences are excluded by implication, not inadvertently, but because the contracting parties did not deem it advisable to insert them. It does not do, therefore, to say now that it makes no difference if, having got a man surrendered for forgery, you try him for smuggling, because this really nullifies the Treaty. It uses it to secure the punishment of offences which the contracting parties did not intend it should secure, and, even if either of them has for some years allowed it to be used in this way, he is not thereby estopped from saying that the practice is pernicious and must now be abandoned. It is open to the other, as in the Winslow case, to say that it ought not to be abandoned without fair notice, or suddenly on a demand for a very great rascal, and the abandon-

ment may be made in a very exasperating way; but all this has nothing to do with the law of the matter.

To sum up, we do not think Great Britain has behaved well in the affair, but she has not transcended her strict right. If she has cited her own acts against us, she has been guilty of an impertinence and absurdity. If, on the other hand, she falls back on her legal discretion, we have no reason to complain of anything but the suddenness and discourtesy and inconsistency of her action. It would be a great pity, however, if this should prevent a national rearrangement of the Treaty, with a great extension of the list of offences. In fact, it is hard to see why any offence should be excluded from it between countries whose jurisprudence and manners are so nearly alike as those of Great Britain and the United States. The "right of asylum" would remain just where it is, and be protected as it is now by the enlightened discretion of the two Governments. Let us add that it is not the kind of treaty of which a quarrel of dignity can well be allowed to hinder the amendment. It is in reality an arrangement between the police of the two countries for mutual thief-catching, and any mounting of the high horse over it would be singularly inappropriate. Nobody will gain by any failure to agree or loss of temper but the criminal population; and the spectacle of Lord Derby and Mr. Fish pouting at each other, while the burglars and forgers of the two countries run to and fro with their plunder, and flaunt it on both sides of the Atlantic, will be both melancholy and ludicrous. The arrangement Great Britain proposes is undoubtedly a desirable one, both for her and for the United States, in their extradition dealings with all Continental powers. It is already in practice in France. The difficulties in its way here, owing to the nature of our Constitution, are not insurmountable. Even if we do not think proper to meet them in the Winslow case, there is no reason why they should not be met in preparation for other cases; and the best way of doing this, the easiest and completest, is to make a treaty including all offences not political. The line between what is criminal and what is political no doubt may sometimes be faint; but it must be left to the good sense of the government which is asked to surrender to trace it in each particular case.

DUMAS'S "ÉTRANGÈRE."

PARIS, May 5, 1876.

THE theatre of Alexandre Dumas, fils, is a curious object of study. There is so much vigor in his talent and originality in his mind that even his failures are more interesting than the successes of others. He is a little microcosm in himself: he always seems to me to personify the long and persistent struggle of humanity towards a higher ideal; but while humanity, taken as a whole, started from barbarism, from the mere play of animal instincts, Dumas started from the curious state of immorality which can only be found in an old country, an old society, an old capital. His education gave him the varnish of the most refined and corrupt civilization; it did not give him the counterpoise of family life, of religion, of established traditions of honor and self-respect. His father, with all his genius, was a mere child of nature; his mother he never knew; he was thrown on the waves of Paris like a ship without a pilot. What others learnt in the cradle, at school, in the family circle, the notions which entered their minds through the love of a mother, the grave counsels of a father, the lessons of the catechism, he had to learn through hard suffering and by personal experience. He found out at his own expense that virtue is less dangerous than vice; that every passion is like a poison which works with an irresistible force. He is a self-educated moralist, and this is what gives such a poignant energy to his analysis of human life. But his example shows, after all, that *one* man cannot do what mankind has done; his conception of right and wrong has not the solid and noble lines of the Christian or even of the philosophical ideal. His morality reminds you more of the contorted statues of modern art than of those beautiful figures of the Hellenes which give calm and nobility to every passion and even to physical pain.

Whenever I leave the theatre after witnessing a play of Dumas's, I feel discontented with man more than reconciled with truth. I have never felt this more strongly than in the case of his latest drama, the now famous "Étrangère"; I have already seen it six times, and each time this impression was intensified. I hear that the "Étrangère" will soon be adapted for the English stage; it is, therefore, likely to be soon discussed in other countries besides France. It is almost impossible, in my opinion, to give a correct account of a work made for the stage, as action is a necessary element in it. I will only analyze the "Étrangère" from a moralistic point of view. I will say first that its great defect is the total absence of any really moral character. If the "Étrangère" could be taken as a representative drama, as a résumé of a given country or a given state of society, I would only say: Fly away from such a country and from such a society! There is no train fast enough to take you far from it, no spot distant enough from a place where virtue has no better specimens to offer. For the characters of the piece which are made to defend the good cause are almost as imperfect as those which represent the evil cause. There is not one part which is completely and wholly pure, and the author seems entirely unconscious of the imperfections of those whom he has chosen as heroes and heroines.

The "Étrangère" is an American by birth, born in Louisiana, the daughter of a slave, sold at auction by her own father; she lives but for one thing—for vengeance. She cannot avenge herself on the vile master who was also her father: she must avenge herself on all men: she says, like Caligula, "I would that humanity had but one head to cut off." Her wish is to dishonor and ruin all men. She is handsome, and her beauty becomes the arm of her systematic vengeance. She begins with the sons of her father. She had met a good fellow in Boston, coming from the silver mines of Nevada, and had married him, but left him immediately with some money which he had brought from the mines. She returns to the South, and, being almost white, nobody knows that she has been a slave. She comes between the two sons, who are her brothers; they both fall desperately in love with her; one kills the other, and is himself hanged. Then she goes to Europe, to find a new field of activity. She becomes immensely rich; she plunders, ruins, all the men she knows, and she never gives anything in return but dangerous smiles and more dangerous words. She calls herself the virgin of evil. Is she really pure; and what right has she to destroy the happiness of so many?

She comes, when our play begins, between a young duchess and her husband. The duke is the worst specimen of humanity that can be found; he was ruined, nearly dishonored, and he married his wife, the daughter of a bourgeois millionaire, merely to secure ample means of continuing his disorderly life. Dumas has taken him as the personification of elegant vice; he is the "vibrio" of the social body, made for the decomposition of societies, like the microscopic animalcules that decompose the flesh and the animal tissues. Dumas treats this question of the "vibrio" as a naturalist. There are men who must act in the social blood as corruptors, as fatal agents of death; they have no conscience, no freedom; they do their dreadful work, inflicting suffering and scattering misfortune and dishonor round them, till a stronger "vibrio" comes and kills them. This would be very philosophic if the poor victim of the "vibrio," the young duchess, were herself a little interesting. But here Dumas shows the cloven foot; as soon as she understands her vile husband she has but one idea—to find the young man with whom she was in love when her vain and vulgar father forced her to wear a coronet. She throws herself completely into the arms of the young engineer who wanted to marry her when she was still a girl. It is, by the way, the fashion now to take an engineer for a hero. Mme. Sand began the apotheosis of the representative of modern industry, and Dumas is walking in her footsteps. I dare say there are some very respectable men among the numerous body of engineers; Dumas's hero is a very ordinary young man, and there is very little to say about him.

The duke is quite willing to inflict misery on his wife, but he doesn't like ridicule for himself; his particular code of honor does not allow him to be classed among the "maris trompés." He picks a quarrel with his wife's lover, and chooses for his second the husband of the "Étrangère," Mr. Clarkson, who happens to be in Paris, and who is on the eve of his departure for America. In Mr. Clarkson, Dumas has tried to typify a society quite different from ours. Clarkson is a rough, practical man; he appears in a travelling suit, keeps his hat on his head, smokes in the presence of ladies. He is occupied with speculations, and gives a long account to his wife, who is now simply his partner, of the development of a new city which he has started in the West. He becomes acquainted with our engineer, who is making plans for a new kind of machinery for the silver mines. He comes and goes through the piece, always darting like an arrow; when he is presented to the duke, he hardly looks at him, and calls him "Monsieur," or rather "M'sieur," in the most abrupt manner. He, of course, always carries a revolver in his pocket, and he has killed any number of men in the

mining districts. He is honest in his way; he never lies, he says, because he is too busy, and lies would confuse his mind. This is the type which Dumas opposes to his "vibrio" type—a rough, busy, active man, courteous only to the ladies, jolly, humorous, self-satisfied, a sort of living engine of progress. Why the duke should choose a man so different from himself as his second against the man who loves his wife, and who is loved by him, is a mystery. But "it is in the piece," as I once heard Lincoln say to his young boy, who was asking so many explanations during the representation of "King Lear."

The duke has got possession of a love-letter of his wife's, having stolen it; and he confides it to his second, as he wishes, in case he should be killed, that his wife should be disgraced—an act quite worthy of a "vibrio." While he is making his explanation to Clarkson, adding many details which show him to be a villain, Clarkson is first astonished, then becomes angry, and finally tells the duke very openly that he is a villain. The duke's amazement is very amusing; he himself becomes very angry. This scene is one of the best of the drama, for the gradations of it are very well marked; before it is over, the quarrel becomes so hot that Clarkson tells the duke that he will not be his second but his adversary. He can't let him fight with a man who is preparing such good machinery for him; they must have a duel themselves first. No witnesses are needed. They can go down in the garden and settle their little difficulty at once. The duke, who has preserved an intense pride as the only remainder of the virtue which should be attached to his rank, does not even think of refusing this offer; they go out together and disappear. The stage, of course, fills up at once with the other actors. The duchess comes, and the young lover, and Mrs. Clarkson, who is herself in love with the engineer, and who, consequently, wants the duke to live. You may imagine the chaotic state of the sentiments of all these people. Add to the number a doctor, who circulates during the whole drama as an unnecessary element; a Darwinist, a philosopher, it is he who propounds the theory of the "vibrio"; he talks like the ancient chorus, and always prophesies the calamities which are to happen. He is now quite satisfied; he knows that the young duchess will soon be a widow, that her lover will become her husband; he is infallible as science itself. The door opens, and, according to his prophecy, Clarkson comes back. Everybody understands that the duke is killed; and Clarkson says, quietly, "I have still time to go by the night train, as I am due to-morrow in Liverpool."

This is not an analysis of a piece which cannot well be analyzed; my object has only been to show that the drama, while it pretends to represent the eternal struggle of right with wrong, fails in its object, since there is no true representative in it of right, of perfect purity, of perfect virtue. All the actors finally make a sort of league against the "vibrio," and their war upon him is so unmerciful, and conducted on such principles, that the despicable, miserable "vibrio" becomes almost interesting. He is a victim not of his own bad passions, but of men and women who, if not as bad as himself, are far from being good. The morality of the drama is therefore very defective; it is more nominal than real. It may be that Dumas wanted to show that, even among the wicked, sin has no chance and must be defeated in the end; but it would have been refreshing if he had shown us at least one pure character among so many who are worldly, silly, or corrupt.

Correspondence.

MASSACHUSETTS ART-INSTRUCTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your issue of this week shows that the discussion of art-education in Massachusetts has life in it. Those who watch its course in your columns believe that a high service is doing not only for Massachusetts but for the various States in which book-agents are busily securing the adoption of the new system. It is not easy to give a satisfactory answer to a call for "a scheme without vagueness" which may be applied to the training of minds *en masse*, and which seems to be necessary in the present phase of education, but it appears to some of us that the call is well answered in your reply to "C. A. L." Hamerton, in his 'Etchers and Etchings,' touches the matter when he points out that the best and highest in art cannot be taught by any "method." It cannot be communicated, but the learner living in an atmosphere of true art may apprehend it.

While theories for the general study of art are in order, I should like to present through the *Nation* the actual working of the theory practised in Massachusetts, having obtained the knowledge as an observer of the common schools and as a student in the Normal Art-School. The system in use here was introduced first in the schools of Boston. From personal knowledge, I will say that it is a burden and disgust to the teachers. While the modern school-system is striving to do the impossible, to thrust in a new interest demanding unlimited time and nerve-force, and to press it by a special system of petty rules, creates in many teachers and pupils a waking nightmare, so much of the theory is carried out by compulsion. In the regular reports are published the names of teachers who fail to comply with these rules and prepare for special examinations in drawing. It was stated in the outset that the better method of applying the system would be by the regular instructors, but the State was soon asked to found a Normal Art-School for the training of *special* instructors. A large percentage of the first year's students were either teachers of drawing in Boston and vicinity, or former students of drawing in the Lowell Institute. A law had been passed making it obligatory on cities and towns of the commonwealth having more than 10,000 inhabitants to furnish free instruction in drawing, and most of the students were sanguine of obtaining employment at good salaries under the working of this law. In the case of very few has this hope been realized, since no method has yet been devised of compelling cities and towns to comply with the provisions of the law.

The course of study in the school was for a period of four years, that of the first year being designated "Industrial Art." For this twenty-five drawings must be presented and twenty hours of examination passed. At the close of the year only thirteen out of a hundred and thirty-three students could take the diploma. And yet each successive year the system is braced by increase of work. The motive of this I do not see, unless it be ambition to outdo everything else at home or abroad in what the director calls "tough work."

A number of trained draughtsmen, comparing notes as to the length of a day's work, agreed that it could not exceed seven hours without depleting the nerve-force and injuring the quality of the work. Ask the best and most vigorous student in the Art-School how much time must be given to the required work, and you will be told "*all* the time." Under such pressure, the morals of art suffer. Pleasure in the work there is none. There is only a dead determination to reach the end of the course—with what degree of credit, few care. The mental atmosphere of the school is one of extreme heat and fatigue. Remonstrating against this condition of things as crushing to the spirits, a student was coolly recommended by the director to take "morphine." In other schools there is an attempt at least to guard the health of the pupils against the exactions of a system or their own ambition. In this school it is nothing that the students lose health, inspiration, and courage—the system must not be "vaguely carried out." If one fails to complete a single drawing or receives forty-nine marks in an examination rather than the required number fifty, there must be another six months' waiting for the diploma. If, desperate at giving so much time to gain so little, the course is abandoned, it is done at the loss of all the completed drawings, the director declaring them forfeited, though no printed regulation acquaints the student with the condition.

Now, it will be asked, Why is not such a yoke broken? The Finance Committee of the last legislature had refused to consider a resolve appropriating $14,000 to the Art-School. They had heard that many of its graduates are unemployed, and regarded the founding of the school as premature. A member advised the preparation of a circular, in order to get light on the question when it should come before the legislature. At the proper time a copy of this circular was sent to each member of the Senate and House, but was abstracted, I will say, while in the hands of the legislative postmaster, *not* suppressed before printing, as was stated at a special meeting of students called by the managers of the school to express approbation of the system. And that is the point "*Normal* Art" has reached thus far in Massachusetts.

The chief incubus on those who oppose this sort of art is the money interest in text-books on art-education, and the great expectations of remunerative employment. At present the school is inefficient either as a training school for teachers or for designers—not, as I believe, from want of ability or earnestness in the students. The school is no longer free, there being a charge of $20 a year. A debt of $20,000 has been incurred by the managers during the past year, which is given as a reason for the change.

If in the distant future there should come a high development of art in America, its germ will not be unfolded by compulsory methods in Massachusetts schools.

Art-Student.

Boston, Mass., May 15, 1876.

THE CASTELLANI COLLECTION.

To the Editor of The Nation :

Sir : Many interesting articles have appeared in the leading English journals during the past year, calling attention to a very fine collection of antique marbles, gems, bronzes, and gold ornaments, recently deposited in the British Museum by Sig. Alessandro Castellani of Rome, and expressing the earnest desire that they should be purchased for the nation. It was in the belief that they would remain in England that Mr. Charles Newton, who has charge of the department of antiques at the Museum, had induced Sig. Castellani to bring over these treasures, and, when he did so, showed his estimation of their value by placing the marbles near those of the Parthenon, the bronzes in the room allotted to objects of their class, and the gems side by side with those of the Blacas collection. Unfortunately for England, but perhaps fortunately for America, Mr. Newton, although backed by the best English connoisseurs (and supported by the most influential journals), failed in his attempt to obtain an appropriation from the Government ; and although Sig. Castellani was urged to allow his collection to remain for another twelvemonth at the Museum, in the hope that the purchase-money would eventually be granted, he determined to transport it across the Atlantic, and thus give the Americans an opportunity of seeing, at the Centennial Exhibition, works of antique art of a class such as had never before and may never again be seen on this continent. "It becomes disagreeable to reflect," says a writer in the *Daily News* of January last, "that all these treasures may go to America. The Americans are not likely, at least they are not usually inclined, to drive a hard bargain for what they want, and it will be a pity indeed if England lets 'Dionysus' [a marble statue of the Indian Bacchus in the Castellani collection] and the rest cross the Atlantic. He would not return, as he did from India." Now that this has happened, Mr. Editor, it cannot but be the desire of all who feel that the standard of taste in this country can only be raised by the sight of objects of the highest class, that this prophecy may be fulfilled.

The collection was offered to the British Government for £40,000, and probably might have been or may be purchased for a somewhat less amount, but however this may be, there can be no question that for us to buy it at the asking price, if it cannot be bought at a lower, would be less extravagant than it would have been for the English, as they are already so rich in such precious objects, to have done so. It might, perhaps, be too much to expect that any one of our museums should purchase this collection, although by such an acquisition it would be at once placed on a footing with the museums of the Old World ; but is it unreasonable to hope that by a joint effort, made in Philadelphia, New York, Washington, and Boston, it may be secured for the museums of these cities, and divided between them ? In this case, the trustees of these institutions might agree that the portion allotted to each museum should be exhibited for a fixed period in each of the other three museums in rotation, so that eventually the entire collection would have been seen in each of the four. The Science and Art Department in this way causes works of art of very great value from the Kensington Museum to circulate about the United Kingdom for the benefit of provincial towns, whose inhabitants would otherwise be deprived of the great advantages thus offered to them.

There are many gentlemen in New York, Philadelphia, Boston, and Washington, who have shown a lively interest in the formation of museums, whose educational power is becoming more and more widely appreciated in this country. Is it not possible that they can be persuaded to take advantage of a great opportunity, the like of which may never again be offered to them ? Can they not be induced to take steps, each in their several cities, to raise a sum of from forty to fifty thousand dollars for the purpose, and together endow America with these treasures which the Centennial year has brought within her reach ? In a few weeks they will be arranged in the three rooms assigned to Sig. Castellani in the Art Memorial Building at Philadelphia, together with a collection of Italian majolica perhaps unique in its completeness and the beauty of its specimens. There they will be visited by persons who have the growth of our nascent museums at heart. Let us trust that having come, and having seen, they will determine to make every effort to save the antique collection at least from being taken back to Europe. If so, I would suggest that subscription papers be opened under the auspices of the trustees of each of the museums above-mentioned, and that both by word of mouth and by articles in the newspapers, the importance of making the intended purchase be urged upon the public ; and this not purely on artistic grounds, as calculated to foster an appreciation of the beautifu—lin itself an incalculably noble object—but also on industrial grounds, as a measure sure to lead to that improvement in taste which will more and more demand that what we use, whether to clothe ourselves, to adorn our persons and our houses, or to minister to our daily wants, shall be excellent in color, in form, and in design. Why is it that Signor Castellani's brother, the famous Roman jeweller, sells his beautiful gold ornaments to appreciative purchasers from every part of Europe ? Rome is full of shops where objects made of the same precious metal and of equal weight are to be bought for a third of the price asked at the Palazzo Poli. To this all the world knows the answer. Castellani of Rome has collected together and studied the counterparts of these exquisite antique gold ornaments from the sepulchres of Etruria, which his brother has brought to America. Who can say that, if we keep them in our museums, our goldsmiths will not so profit by the study of their technical and artistic perfection, as to be able eventually to make works of their own worthy to be classed with those now made at Rome by the first goldsmith of his time ?

It is not my intention to enter into any detailed description of the Castellani collections. I only desire, by raising a corner of the veil which still hides them from view, to give a faint idea of the treat which lovers of the beautiful in art have in store for them. The gold ornaments consist of rings, clasps, ear-rings, bracelets, necklaces, coronets, and the like, whose historical sequence increases their collective value. The oldest, found chiefly in tombs at Cervetri and Chiusi, represent an early stage of that peculiarly Etruscan granulated work which, at a later time, attained that maximum of technical delicacy and artistic elegance shown in the wonderful specimens from Metapontum and Tarentum in Magna Grecia, and from Volci in Etruria. Two necklaces, with clasps made of butterflies in particolored enamel, and a row of ear-rings with pendant enamels of birds and animals, may be cited among many examples of the use of colored enamels to enrich gold, which had previously been the goldsmith's only material ; and two vine branches with grapes formed of pearls, and a large bracelet whose clasp is shaped like a shrine with a deity seated in it, as equally typical of a later time, when that love for splendor, massiveness, and show, which came in with Alexander, marked all products of art with such sure signs of decadence. These, with Roman jewellery of Imperial times, and the Byzantine specimens which abound in the Castellani collection, enable us to trace the goldsmith's art from its rise to its decline, from the tombs of Etruria to the palaces of Byzantium.

Besides these precious objects, there are Roman rings, rings from the Ionian Islands and from Syria, as well as rings mediæval, altogether more than three hundred in number. There are also two hundred engraved gems, both cameo and intaglio, some of them of the greatest beauty, as well as Roman medallions in gold and silver of the utmost rarity. I have left myself but little space to speak even cursorily of the marbles and bronzes which Signor Castellani has brought us. Among the first are busts of Euripides, Dionysus, and Apollo ; a large statue of the Indian Dionysus, like the bearded Bacchus (called Sardanapalus) at the Vatican. But the gem among the marbles is a statue found on the Esquiline during the recent excavations, representing a boy taking a thorn from his foot. This, as all agree, is a masterpiece of art, differing from the more ideally treated bronze of the same subject in the Capitoline Museum in being singularly realistic in treatment. It is an undoubted original, and from its peculiar character may be supposed to be a product of the school of Pergamus, which flourished as late as the second century before our era.

Among the bronzes are twelve cists, probably used to contain mirrors, combs, strigils, sponges, and other articles needed at the bath. Such cylindrical caskets, chiefly found at Palestrina, are decorated with incised compositions, for the most part of Greek subjects. One of the Castellani cists, however, forms a peculiarly interesting exception to this rule, as the subjects engraved upon it are taken from that cycle of Italian legends which supplied Virgil with material for the later books of the Æneid. To Mommsen and other historians who maintain that these myths had no root in the hearts of the primitive Romans, the sight of a composition representing "Æneas pointing to the slain Turnus and claiming the hand of Lavinia from her sire," engraved by an artist who lived centuries before the days of Virgil, must be one of those stumbling-blocks which chance sometimes throws in the way of the archæologist to upset theories from which he is reluctant to part.

Want of space obliges me to speak very briefly of Castellani's collection of Italian majolica, which, with the single exception of that at South Kensington, is of all collections of its kind the richest and the most complete. Its origin is made clear by many fine examples of Hispano- and Siculo-Moresque glazed ware, the work of Arabian potters. Among these are specimens of Castel-Girone manufacture, made in Sicily by the Moors, a century before Luca della Robbia discovered his celebrated stanniferous enamel (1435). Of Italian majolica proper, the collection contains an immense number of rare

pieces from the factories of Pesaro, Faenza, Urbino, Castel Durante, Modena, and Rome, many of which give monograms and dates hitherto unknown. They thus furnish the student of majolica painting with valuable materials for its history, while from the beauty and admirable preservation of the objects which bear them, they give him fresh reason to admire this charming art. Among them are the iridescent plates of Maestro Giorgio Andreoli; the richly colored platters of Orazio Fontana and Francesco Durantino, adorned with grotesques and arabesques; and a dish with cover, in the shape of a tortoise, which is described in a record found in the Mantuan archives, dated from Pesaro in 1660, as having been purchased by the Duke of Modena, then on a visit to the Signora Contessa Violante. This is but one of many examples of majolica ware in the collection which are historically as well as artistically precious.

A few pieces are added to it of those rare objects, the first specimens of European porcelain manufactured in the small workshop established in the Boboli Gardens, at Florence, by the Grand Duke Francesco I. about 1580. One of these is described, in the introduction to Mr. Fortnum's 'Catalogue of Majolica in the South Kensington Museum,' as "exceptionally fine and interesting."

In concluding this hurried notice of the Castellani collection, I would urge all who love beautiful things to visit it, and express the hope that among the many who will do so, a large number will come away with the firm resolve to do all in their power to secure it for the museums of the United States.—Your obedient servant, C. C. PEKKINS.

BOSTON, May 12, 1876.

Notes.

HARPER & BROS. have just published the fifth volume (for the year 1875) of Prof. Spencer F. Baird's 'Annual Record of Science and Industry.' The plan of the work is unchanged, and its merits are so well understood that it is only necessary to allude to the extension given to the preliminary résumé, which here fills 272 pages against 186 last year. ——*Nature*, for April 27, continues its admirable series of scientific portrait-vignettes with a head of Sir Charles Wheatstone, which is accompanied by the usual biographical sketch. It is curious to notice that, like Herschel, he was the son of a musician, and that his optical pursuits were preceded by an apprenticeship in the manufacture of musical instruments.——The *Geographical Magazine* for May gives an account of the reception of Lieut. Cameron by the Royal Geographical Society. The explorer's journey from Lake Tanganyika to the Atlantic, which had already been mapped in the *Magazine* for March, is also delineated, on a smaller scale but more artistically, in Petermann's *Mittheilungen* for April 5. No. 61 of the Berlin Geographical Society's *Zeitschrift* gives a map of Kerguelen Island, based upon the surveys of the German frigate *Gazelle* during the Transit-of-Venus expedition. Some account of the natural history of this desolate but interesting locality, by Surgeon J. H. Kidder, U.S.N., attached to the American expedition, has been published in the *Bulletin* (Nos. 2 and 3) of the U. S. National Museum.——Three French works of considerable magnitude and importance are now in course of publication. One is a 'Dictionnaire raisonné d'Architecture et des Sciences et Arts qui s'y rattachent,' by Ernest Bosc, to be completed in four volumes 8vo, or 2,000 pages in all, and to be illustrated with 4,000 wood-cuts in the text, besides sixty engravings and forty chromo-lithographs (Firmin-Didot). Another is 'Les Travaux Publics de la France,' including roads and bridges, railroads, rivers and canals, seaports, buoys and light-houses, edited by five engineers of the Ponts-et-Chaussées, under the direction of their inspector-general. The five chapters just enumerated will each be accompanied by fifty photographs (permanent prints), and will each make a folio volume. The views are in part reproductions of those exhibited at Vienna by the Minister of Public Works (J. Rothschild). Finally, we may call attention to the 'Encyclopédie des Sciences Religieuses,' edited by Prof. Lichtenberger, with the assistance of numerous Protestant colleagues, among whom MM. Gabriel Monod and E. de Pressensé are best known in this country. It will make from ten to twelve volumes 8vo, or from 8,000 to 10,000 pp. (Sandoz & Fischbacher). Mr. F. W. Christern receives subscriptions for all the above.

—We note the publication of the first number of the *Quarterly Bulletin* of the Nuttall Ornithological Club, published by the club at Cambridge, Mass.—the first American magazine exclusively devoted to ornithology. This makes, we believe, the fourth periodical of the kind at present published, there being one in England, another in Germany, and a third in India. The appearance of the new journal is very creditable to the young club, and the articles themselves are well abreast of current literature upon the subject. It is proposed to issue sixteen to twenty-eight 8vo pages quarterly, with a colored plate to each number if possible. Contributions may be sent to H. A. Purdie, State House, Boston, and subscriptions ($1 annually) to H. B. Bailey, No. 13 Exchange Place, Boston. The *Bulletin* deserves to succeed, and we hope those interested will see that it does.

—"Prizes for Arboriculture" are offered by the trustees of the Massachusetts Society for Promoting Agriculture, a thousand dollars for the best plantation of not less than five acres of larches, or, on the coast, of Scotch or Corsican pines, on land worn-out or otherwise unfit for agriculture; also, six hundred dollars for the best similar plantation of American white ash. The gratuitously-distributed pamphlet in which these prizes are announced reprints Professor Sargent's 'Suggestions on Tree-Planting,' which we noticed a few weeks ago, and adds the needful directions for planting and managing young plantations, the want of which we had called attention to. Directions for procuring young trees are also given; and Mr. Francis Skinner, a young gentleman laudably interested in this enterprise of public utility, offers to transmit orders and see to the importing of seedling trees, in lots of 1,000 or more, for any intending planter in the State, whether or not intending to compete for these prizes. Second and third prizes are also offered.

—The Kindergarten, if not always a luxury, is on the other hand not always a convenience, while it is seldom presided over by a teacher thoroughly trained or naturally fitted for the task. Too often it is little more than a high-priced nursery. The machinery of the Kindergarten, however—the various "gifts" of Froebel—has a distinct value apart from any teaching, and we are glad to see that Mr. E. Steiger, who is a very ardent and disinterested advocate of the system, has published a series of "Kindergarten occupations for the family." They are very attractively put up in four boxes—one containing a number of assorted sticks for laying in different forms; another, a supply of mats for weaving; a third, leaves of paper ruled in small squares, with perforating needles and cushion for making symmetrical designs; and the last, a slate similarly ruled for pencillings. Diagrams accompany each box, and with their aid any child can amuse himself and exercise his imitative powers to good effect, while there is large scope for native ingenuity. Mr. Steiger is quite right in saying that these "occupations" are a proper substitute for toys, dolls, and other playthings, and will be found promotive of domestic quiet "during vacation, inclement weather, sickness, etc." And few will dispute that, even without a teacher, they are also valuable "as a first means of acquiring manual skill, artistic taste, and a love of study."

—In *Lippincott's* for June there is a slight but interesting paper on "Modern Huguenots"—in other words, the Protestant populations of the High-Alps in France as seen in a hasty tour—by James M. Bruce; and the paper "At Chickamauga," by Robert Lewis Kimberly, should also be singled out as descriptive writing excellent of its kind, in reading which, however, one cannot but feel that a sketch-map would have made the narrative both clearer and more impressive. General Rosecrans is not spared, while General Wood is vindicated, and General Hazen appears as the leader of the forlorn hope that rescued Thomas and saved the day. In *Harper's*, Mr. Holly continues his articles on "Modern Dwellings," and the second number (on color decoration) may be praised like the first, with some reserves. The medical and sanitary progress during the first century of the Republic is reviewed by Dr. Austin Flint, with ample knowledge and authority; with characteristic geniality, too, which makes him in one passage appear to uphold our existing schools of medical instruction as being quite the best in the best of worlds. He also very decidedly takes part in the ether controversy, by assigning the credit of the discovery to Horace Wells, of Hartford. While recording the fact that the leading medical text-books in this country are of American authorship, he refers to the obstacles encountered by this literature in every stage of its growth, in consequence of the absence of any international copyright. This "favored the republication of works by British in preference to those by native authors, the former having the advantage of a success already acquired, and the reprint requiring no royalty." Dr. Flint accounts for the dearth of purely scientific investigators on the ground that the exigencies of time and space and increment of population in this country have compelled the vast majority of those who pursue medical studies to "have chiefly in view the duties and responsibilities of the practitioner." The article closes with some speculations as to the next epochal discovery in medicine, which Dr. Flint is inclined to think will be the demonstration of "the nature of what are called the special or specific causes of disease"—a result foreshadowed by the tentative "germ theory." As for the coming physician, he "will

not be regarded even as much as now in the light of a mere prescriber of drugs," but rather, "in a higher point of view, as one on whose judgment people will be content to rely in the interdiction as well as in the prescribing of drugs."

—During the months of February, March, and April of last year a very systematic and thorough enquiry into the health of the public schools of Philadelphia was made by the Board of Public Education of that city, the results of which are now before us in the form of a pamphlet of 37 pages, with eight very large tables. Four hundred and twenty-three schools are represented by reports from their principals, besides which, twenty-nine have been specially visited by a volunteer corps of physicians, who have presented the facts from a medical point of view. The greatest plainness of speech has been used, both by teachers and physicians, in mentioning points of bad construction or drainage, lighting, warming, and ventilation. In glancing at the column of general remarks, we find such expressions as "intolerable," "unfit for a school-house," "air poisonous from privy smell," "several pupils became almost sick from confined air when the windows were closed a few minutes," besides severe complaints of various other evils, such as overwork, neglect of recess or gymnastics, excessive heat. Beyond doubt, the authorities have found a great many more faults to remedy than were suspected to exist. The total is even alarming in extent and variety, but we are informed that much improvement has been effected since the report was published. Such a sanitary inspection is needed by every city in the Union, by none more so than our own; and it is very greatly to the credit of the authorities of Philadelphia that they have led the way and shown how the thing should be done. Students of school-hygiene will find interesting material in the report.

—Mr. Sidney Lanier, moved by "the inexcusable disregard for the proprieties of a dignified occasion and for the laws of respectable behavior" shown by certain newspapers in their remarks on his 'Centennial Cantata,' has printed a long letter in the *Tribune* to show that his work was "at all events a faithful attempt to embody the status of poetry with regard to the most advanced musical thought of the time, made upon carefully evolved laws, and with clear artistic purposes." This statement of his object indicates the defect alike of his poem and of his letter. No one accustomed to use words with precise and definite meaning could speak of a poem as an attempt to embody the status of poetry with regard to musical thought or anything else. Mr. Lanier's poetic sensibility and serious purpose cannot make up for the lack of clear expression in his writing. This lack is the evidence not so much of want of practice in composition as of discipline in thought. His letter contains much that is interesting in regard to the extension of the capacity of the modern orchestra, to the relation of the voice as a solo instrument to the other instruments of the orchestra, and to the nature of musical interpretation. But the most important part of it is vitiated by a fallacy prevalent at the present time among loose thinkers concerning music. He affirms that the ideas in every poem intended for a musical accompaniment should belong only "to that class of intellectual conceptions which is capable of being adequately expressed by orchestral instruments." But music is not capable of adequately expressing any strictly intellectual conceptions; its function is not that of definite expression of ideas, or even of emotions. At its best, it can do nothing to express ideas; it can but arouse emotions in harmony with certain broad, intellectual conceptions. The subject is too large a one to be fully discussed in a note. Mr. Lanier has at least succeeded in showing that the difficulties of writing a good poem for musical accompaniment have been increased by the vast development of the powers of the orchestra, and that, with all his good-will, careful legality, and artistic purpose, he did not succeed in writing one that is universally approved.

—In the number dated April 29, 1876, of *Notes and Queries*, Dr. Edward F. Rimbault sheds a little light upon the history of the English national anthem, "God Save the Queen." He says that the authorship of the words is all matter of conjecture. Mr. Bartlett credits them to Henry Carey. Dr. Rimbault says that Carey "is totally out of the question," and that "all the improbable stories told of Henry Carey in connection with the national anthem were got up regardless of truth, mainly to serve poor George Saville Carey, and perhaps get him a pension; but they signally failed, as it was just they should." Henry Carey died in 1743, and the earliest trustworthy notice of the introduction of the words to the public is to be found in a letter of Benjamin Victor to David Garrick, dated October, 1745, which says they were sung to an old anthem tune. Now, in the word-book of the Academy of Ancient Music for this same year, 1745, Dr. Rimbault has found a Latin chorus, to which an English version is appended. In both structure and sentiment this chorus seems the original of "God Save the King," which could hardly have been known at that time, or it would have been appended instead of the version given. Earlier songs resembling in some sort the English anthem have from time to time been discovered, but Dr. Rimbault notes a new one, which he considers the earliest, from a rare black-letter volume printed in London, 1578, which prays for Queen Elizabeth and the confounding of her foes. That the music is older than the words, and probably of the sixteenth century, there would seem to be but little doubt.

—The blaze of semi-Oriental splendor in which Disraeli seems determined to envelop the Indian Empire will probably rather puzzle the natives than impress and overawe them. The progress through the country made by the Prince of Wales has been no doubt a fine show and pageant, but it is not by any such means that the English power in India has in time past been gained or increased. The theory of the pageant seems to be that the Indians are greatly affected by show and external display, while in reality they are accustomed to show and external display, and they are accustomed to it entirely divorced from real power. What they are unaccustomed to and afraid of is overwhelming power without external display. In the last century, when Clive and Hastings were consolidating the power of England in the East on a lasting foundation, the French tried the use of pageantry without the slightest success. "It well deserves attention," says Lord Mahon, in his 'History of England' (vol vii., p. 292), "that the greatest of the English in India—the rulers whose sway over the minds of the natives has been strongest—did not resort to or rely upon those pageantries in which the natives are supposed to take delight"; and he quotes as a witness the account given by a Frenchman, who adopted the Mussulman religion, of the futile magnificence of M. de Bussy and other French chiefs in the Deccan. Bussy, it seems, always wore a dress of rich brocade, with embroidered hat and shoes; his table, always in plate, was served with three, often with four courses; he sat upon a kind of throne, with the arms of his king in relief; and whenever he stirred from home he was mounted on an elephant, preceded by a band of musicians singing his feats of chivalry, and followed by two head-chobdars reciting his eulogium. On the other hand, "Colonel Clive always wore his regimentals in the field, was always on horseback, and never in a palanquin; he had a plentiful table, but noways delicate, and never more than two courses. He used to march mostly at the head of the column with his aides-de-camp, or was hunting at the right and left. Governor Hastings always wore a plain coat of English broadcloth, and never anything like lace or embroidery. His whole retinue a dozen of horse-guards; his throne a plain chair of mahogany, with plenty of such thrones in the hall; his table sometimes neglected; his diet sparing and always abstemious; his address and deportment very different from pride, and still more so from humility." It would probably not have occurred to the mind of any real Englishman to attempt to keep up or increase the English state in India by having the Queen called either Malikah, Malik, Sultana, Shâhin-Shah, Padisha, Mahârani, Adhirâja, Samrâj, Râjadhirâja, or Empress, or by sending the Empress's son to make a sort of progress through the country; but that it should have occurred to Disraeli to try a little brummagem Orientalism cannot be surprising to any one who is familiar with the peculiar character both of style and thought barely burlesqued by Thackeray in 'Codlingsby.'

—Mr. Howells's 'Foregone Conclusion' has just been published by August Auerbach, Stuttgart, as the first volume in his "Library of Transatlantic Fiction." Its German title is 'Voreilige Schlüsse.' The same house has also added to its volumes of Parkman, Franklin, Taylor, etc., Mr. Emerson's 'Neue Essays' ('Letters and Social Aims'). In this case the introduction has been furnished by Julian Schmidt, who takes up once more at some length the comparison between Carlyle and Emerson, between whom there is so little to compare and so much to contrast. Mr. Schmidt writes, as he could not help doing, with discrimination. Speaking for himself, he says: "Freilich, wenn ich mich über einen bestimmten Gegenstand belehren will, so ist Emerson der Letzte, den ich aufschlage"; but, on the other hand: "Wenn ich Emerson lese, so kommt es mir so vor, als ob ich mich in der besten Gesellschaft bewegen: ich fühle mich auf das lebhafteste angeregt," etc., etc. The author's note inserted in fac-simile is worth reproducing entire. It is dated at Concord, Feb. 24, 1876:

"I owe to Mr. August Auerbach, whose agreeable acquaintance I made during his visit to America, the honoring proposal of addressing my village thoughts to the most intellectual of nations. If I could repay to any German reader any part of my limited but precious debt to his countrymen, it would give me sincere satisfaction. R. Waldo Emerson."

—Under the title of 'Zeitfragen des christlichen Volkslebens' a series of pamphlets devoted to the interests of the Evangelical Church in Germany is to be published by Zimmer in Frankfort. The subjects thus far announced—"Socialism," by Dr. Geffcken of Strassburg; "The Creation of the World and the Laws of Nature," by Professor Pfaff of Erlangen; "The Beginnings of Mankind," by Dr. Ebrard—are sufficiently comprehensive and weighty, and a clue to their treatment is given in the first number, which ably and not intemperately discusses the delicate subject of "Christianity and the Press." The article, which is by Dr. Mühlhäusser, one of the editors, deplores the irreligious and anti-religious character of the German press, and the support given it by lukewarm Christians, but, as might be expected, fails of practical suggestions as to the establishment of a prosperous "Christian" press. The writer anathematizes more particularly the purely literary journals of the calibre of the *Gartenlaube*, which in Germany, more than elsewhere, form the staple of the intellectual food of the masses, and whose enormous circulation entirely overshadows that of the political papers. Thus, while but two of the latter—the *Kölnische Zeitung* and the Berlin *Volkszeitung*—reach a circulation of 30,000, the *Gartenlaube* has more than 300,000 subscribers, the *Illustrirte Familienzeitung* 200,000, the *Modenwelt* 165,000, *Über Land und Meer* 150,000, the *Bazar* 140,000, and *Kladderadatsch*, the most sensible and scholarly of humorous newspapers, 50,000. Dr. Mühlhäusser contrasts the activity of the Catholics in the field of journalism with the indifference of the Protestants. The *Germania*, the chief political organ of the Ultramontane party, has 7,000 subscribers, the *Kölnische Volkszeitung* 8,400, the *Neue Augsburger Zeitung* and the *Bayerische Courier* have each 10,000, and the *Mainzer Volksblatt*, a weekly, has 25,000.

—The sixth report of the committee having in charge the excavations at Olympia comes to us in a Berlin newspaper of May 6. We make the following extract, which is especially interesting as describing the metope, the discovery of which had been communicated by telegraph a week before, and which, it appears, was unexpectedly found in clearing the pavement of the temple:

"It is a marble tablet one metre high by one and one-half metres long. . . . On the left, in a serious attitude, stands a virgin, clad in a long robe reaching to her feet; her right arm, the fingers of the hand slightly parted, falls by her side; the head is turned toward the right; her wavy hair is covered by a hood; her left arm is raised aloft. Immediately adjoining, and with his back turned toward her, and seen wholly in profile, is an unclothed man, bearing a burden; the bearded head is bent forward, coming into view between his two arms, which are raised to steady the burden. Opposite him stands Herakles, stretching forward his right arm, with three apples (the apples of the Hesperides) in his hand. The left arm is broken, the rest of the relief in admirable preservation—*e.g.*, the head with the pointed beard; the locks of hair; the fillet surrounding the forehead. Some pieces which at first appeared to be wanting from the lower left-hand corner of the relief have since been found. This work, both as regards its subject and the style of its execution, is of peculiar value. The middle figure can be no other than Atlas, whose head it has been supposed was among the fragments found by the French in 1827, and now in the Louvre."

Private letters from the architect Adler to a friend in Berlin report that the impression made by the temple ruins, as far as disclosed, is extremely imposing, and that the sculptures are of even greater value than he had anticipated. It is also mentioned that the plain of Olympia, for so many centuries deserted, has already become once more a place of pilgrimage. Visitors, no doubt mostly Greeks from the neighboring villages, have flocked thither during the Easter season to the number of four hundred to five hundred daily. The excavations will be prosecuted until the end of May.

MACAULAY.*

I.

NOTHING is more interesting than Macaulay's own estimate of his own powers:

"My accuracy as to facts," he told his sister, "I owe to a cause which many men would not confess. It is due to my love of castle-building. The past is in my mind soon constructed into a romance. With a person of my turn, the minute touches are of as great interest, and perhaps greater, than the most important events. Spending so much time as I do in solitude, my mind would have rusted by gazing vacantly at the shop windows. As it is, I am no sooner in the streets than I am in Greece, in Rome, in the midst of the French Revolution. Precision in dates, the day or hour in which a man was born or died, becomes absolutely necessary. A slight fact, a sentence, a word, are of importance in my romance. Pepys's 'Diary' formed almost inexhaustible food for my fancy. I seem to know every inch of Whitehall. I go in at Hans Holbein's gate and come out through the matted gallery. The old parts of London, . . . those old gates and houses down by the river, have all played their part in my stories."

These words should be put side by side with his candid admission that his mind was not strong in critical analysis:

"There are," he writes to a friend, "extensive classes of subjects which I think myself able to treat as few people have treated them. . . . I tell you what I sincerely think when I say that I am not successful in analyzing the effect of works of genius. I have written several things on historical, political, and moral questions of which, on the fullest reconsideration, I am not ashamed, and by which I should be willing to be estimated; but I have never written a page of criticism on poetry or the fine arts which I would not burn if I had the power. Hazlitt used to say of himself, 'I am nothing if not critical.' The case with me is directly the reverse. I have a strong and acute enjoyment of works of the imagination, but I have never habituated myself to dissect them."

These passages should be studied by any one who wishes to understand either the nature or the limits of Macaulay's extraordinary powers. The prevailing taste of the moment inclines many so-called cultivated persons to underrate the originality of his genius. But the verdict of time will ratify the judgment of the multitude of his readers, and pronounce him the greatest historical narrator who has written in English. The first condition of his success lies in that capacity for living in the past on which Macaulay lays such emphasis. He is unlike other historians primarily in this, that he had associated, so to speak, for years with the persons of whom he writes. When he says in one of his letters, "I know no more of Scott than I know of Dryden or Addison, and not a tenth part so much as I know of Swift, Cowper, or Johnson," he touches incidentally upon this peculiarity of his mind. The men of whom he wrote—Chatham, Burke, or Hastings—were of his acquaintance. He might exaggerate their merits or their vices, but his partiality or unfairness was like the love or the hatred which most men bear only to their contemporaries. His comments on his books are very like the remarks most persons make on their friends or associates, and it is easy to believe Mr. Trevelyan's statement that his uncle "disputed" with the authors whom he read.

The immediate source of this familiarity with bygone times is, as becomes immediately apparent from Macaulay's life, his extraordinary gift of memory, and the use to which from boyhood upwards he constantly put it. Without exaggeration, it may be said of him that from early childhood—from the days when he lay on the rug reading a book and eating bread and butter—he was collecting facts for his history. After the manner of a child, he learnt the phrases of the past before he understood them. At four years of age he offered Mrs. Hannah More a "glass of old spirits, and when questioned as to what he knew about old spirits he could only say that 'Robinson Crusoe often had some.'" This capacity for seizing hold of literary expressions appears simply grotesque when it leads a young gentleman of four or five to answer a lady, who asks him whether he is much hurt by some hot coffee spilt on his legs, "Thank you, madam, the agony is abated"; but it is nearly allied to another quality absolutely essential for success in historical narration. At a time when most youths may consider that they do very well if they can express themselves in writing plainly and grammatically, Macaulay had already acquired a style of which a trained writer might be proud. His early command of language came undoubtedly in part from his early familiarity with literature, but there never was a writer whose style was more completely the natural expression of his mode of thought. Knowledge of the past and precocious literary skill might have produced a mere book-worm who could pour forth in good language the stores of his erudition. Something much more than this is needed for a great historian. The rarest and noblest feature of Macaulay's intellect was what, for want of a better word, may be termed its matchless lucidity. You cannot take up a letter or a memorandum in which this quality is not at once apparent. It is very closely connected with the decision and manliness which shine forth in every transaction of his life. His letters to his father and mother when not more than fourteen express his meaning in language as clear and as decisive as any which he has used to describe the scenes of history. In another respect, his style and mode of thought are curiously related to one another. His delight in illustrations is one of those traits which no imitator ever misses, but which it is most dangerous to imitate. Macaulay's illustrations are the overflow of a memory to which one fact always suggested, by the mere force of association, a whole series of analogies and examples. In the hands of imitators the use of illustrations is a trick of style, causing labor to the writer and disgust to the reader. In this, as in some other respects, Macaulay's own criticism on his style is emphatically true. It is a good style which has run very near being a bad style. Unbounded information, immense literary skill, perfect lucidity of intellect, made Macaulay such an

* 'Life and Letters of Lord Macaulay. By his Nephew, G. O. Trevelyan, M.P.' London: Longmans & Green; New York: Harper & Bros. 1876.

historical narrator as will not be produced again for ages. The gifts by which his works were produced are rare; nor will any candid judge doubt that the works themselves are immense achievements. A great literary performance is, like any other work of high art, its own justification. It were absurd to ask what was the good achieved by the labors of Herodotus, Thucydides, or Tacitus. To interest ages or multitudes in the past is in itself a feat which none but men of genius can achieve, and in the achievement of which genius, however high, may find full satisfaction. But even the direct effects of work like Macaulay's are not slight. National life can hardly exist without knowledge of national history. To the mass of Englishmen Macaulay revealed the great deeds of their forefathers. Every man or transaction of which he wrote is impressed on the memory of the nation. The events which he has not recorded, the statesmen or authors whose pictures he has not drawn, are all but unknown to English readers. Whoever will candidly ask himself how much he knows of Clive or Warren Hastings which he has not gathered from Macaulay's Essays will appreciate the debt due to the great historian, and feel how great the calamity that the one man who could have narrated the history of England died while his tale was not half told.

Macaulay himself was, as we have seen, aware that his forte did not lie in literary analysis. That his turn of mind was not "critical" was, however, true of him in a wider sense than that in which he used the term, and this comparative deficiency in analytical power affected both his reputation among his contemporaries and the character of his historical work. It certainly diminished his immediate influence among what are called the "cultivated" classes both at home and in this country. You cannot take up a single writer who at the present moment meets the literary taste of the day without perceiving traces of the prevailing passion for analysis of character. Novel-writers gratify this taste by subtle descriptions of the motives which are supposed to actuate their heroes and heroines. Historians are expected to meet the wishes of their readers by profuse employment of the art of sympathetic criticism. With this prevalent fashion (for it is little more than a fashion) Macaulay's whole tone of mind was thoroughly out of sympathy. He could tell the tale of English history as no one else has ever told it; but he had neither the power nor, it may be added, the wish to give hypothetical versions of the play of motive which may, for example, have led Charles I. to fancy that he was observing the law when he was breaking through every principle of the constitution, or to suggest vindications for the crimes of Strafford or for the intolerance of Laud which would have probably been incomprehensible to the Minister and to the Archbishop. This want of harmony with the tone of the day diminishes Macaulay's influence at the present moment. The partisan pamphlets which Mr. Froude has published under the name of histories have done more to mould or distort contemporary opinion than the whole mass of Macaulay's writings. It is, however, not to be regretted that Macaulay neither aimed at nor won the kind of success which rewards a pamphleteer. Nor can we profess to lament with an estimable critic that the great historian's talents did not include the possession of that "touching quality, the presentiment of the Eve—the feeling of the difficulties which will engage and distract mankind on the Morrow." Such presentiment, whatever be its worth, is incompatible with calm study of the past, and becomes utterly worthless when the "morrow" has become numbered among long-forgotten yesterdays. Whether Thucydides or Herodotus had shown a prevision of the wants of the next generation of Athenians or Spartans is a matter of no moment to generations to whom Athens and Sparta are known through the writings of Thucydides and Herodotus. That Macaulay's turn of mind lessens at the present time the weight which he exerts over opinion in England or America is a matter neither of moment nor deserving any special regret. What is of much more consequence is to note the way in which the nature of his intellect affected the character of his history. His most ardent admirers may admit that it lessened his success in dealing with topics such, for instance, as theological controversies, where what is needed is at least as much capacity for analysis as narrative power. His treatment of ecclesiastical parties has been not unfairly described by one of the acutest of modern critics. "He was fair," writes Mr. James Martineau, "to all, because in sympathy with none. Judging them simply as objective phenomena springing from past thought or passion, he looks at them not from the interior position which gives them meaning, but from the stage which exhibits their effects."

Another point to be borne in mind is that Macaulay belongs to the class of narrative rather than of critical historians. He must be compared rather with Livy than with Thucydides. Among the men who have narrated history he may claim the very highest rank; but his strength did not lie in what may be called the criticism of history. By this assertion we do not mean to imply either that he was credulous, or that he did not possess the capacity for estimating the weight of evidence. The very contrary is the case. Prejudice may occasionally have biassed his judgment, but, as a general rule, his decision as to the weight to be attached to evidence was, it may be suspected, far more sound than that of the various minute critics who, on the strength of special study of particular questions, have from time to time assailed his general conclusions grounded on immense general knowledge of his subject. What we do mean is that he considered the duty of an historian to be mainly that of a narrator, and that he did not consider the solution of the problems presented by past events to be the special task of the writer who narrated them. No man, for example, knew better than Macaulay how markedly different has been the position occupied by the English nobility from that held by the foreign *noblesse*. No author understood better the exact point of the contrast, or could, if he chose, bring it into more striking relief. If a man such as De Tocqueville had dealt with English history, he would certainly have given his whole attention to the solution of the question how it came to pass that the English nobles were not a *noblesse*. Macaulay never deals with the problem. Few questions again are more perplexing than those presented by the temporary success and the permanent failure of the Puritans. How did it happen, for example, that the party never rallied after their overthrow on the Restoration? The question, no doubt, may be answered. What is for the present purpose noteworthy is, that Macaulay never really attempts to answer it. Take any part of Macaulay's history the critic pleases, and the result, we venture to say, will be the same. Macaulay will be found to have devoted all his powers to the narrative of events, but neither to have searched for nor solved the problems which the events suggest.

To say that Macaulay belongs to that class of historians who are narrators rather than critics of past events is, it should be remembered, rather to define the limits of his genius than to detract from his reputation. The power of narrative and of analysis are rarely combined, and it is well to bear in mind that the primary and most important duty of an historian is not to propound theories, but to narrate facts. The value of the theories must almost inevitably pass away; the value of the facts remains. The speculations, for example, of Thucydides are interesting as a monument of genius; but our knowledge of politics and society and human nature is necessarily greater than his, and it may be doubted whether the naïve narrative of Herodotus is not of more worth to the world than even the most ingenious reflections of the writer whom Macaulay held, and no doubt rightly, to be the greatest of historians. Those, however, who still think that Macaulay's mode of treating history prevents him from taking rank in the very first line of historical writers will, it may be suspected, admit that his mode of treatment was the natural result of the character of his mind, and that he showed in his literary work, as in other parts of his life, the soundness of his judgment in devoting his powers exactly to the tasks which he was best qualified to perform.

TWO MILITARY MEMOIRS.*

THE 69th, 71st, 72d, and 106th Regiments of Pennsylvania Volunteers were raised principally in Philadelphia, and were formed into a brigade under Col. E. D. Baker in the fortifications of Washington in September, 1861; their terms of service expired before Petersburg in the summer of 1864, and for these three years, under different commanders but always as one organization, they shared the varying fortunes of the Army of the Potomac, on the Peninsula, at Antietam, Fredericksburg, Chancellorsville, and Gettysburg, and in Grant's campaign of 1864. It is to record their part in these campaigns that the first book named below was written.

To the survivors, and to the friends of those who perished from camp and prison diseases, and of those seven hundred whose names are recorded as killed in battle, the story will be interesting from personal associations; but to a much larger audience it is instructive, as being a vivid description of the actual life of a volunteer organization and of its daily experiences, in battle, on the march, in camp, and on the picket line. In a country whose military policy is to keep a small regular army, barely sufficient in time of actual hostilities to form the *cadres* of an immense volunteer force, a certain knowledge of military drill can be disseminated by an efficient militia organization like that of New York; but for a conception of the actual movements in war, the dangers and hardships of a soldier's life, the feelings and thoughts of the soldier himself in a campaign, we

* 'History of the Philadelphia Brigade. By Charles H. Barnes, late Brevet Lieut.-Col. and Ass't Adj't-Gen. of Volunteers.' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1876.
'The Life of Gen. Thomas J. ("Stonewall") Jackson. By Sarah Nicholas Randolph.' With illustrations. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1876.

must turn to books of this class, written by men who saw constant service in the war, and describing the particular share of the organizations with which they served in the grand military movements.

The volume before us is one of the best of its kind; it does not profess to criticise the campaigns, but gives a faithful picture of the American volunteer soldier, and of his transition from the recruit, firing at random upon his own people in his first night's march, to the cheerful and brave veteran, who still retains his supposed right of discussing his superiors while he obeys their orders; who patiently endures any hardship when he understands that it aids in the success of a movement; who assaults a position four times in an afternoon if ordered to do so, but who makes up his mind pretty clearly after the first attempt whether he will be successful or not, and accordingly fights with vigor or without it; who learns instinctively to intrench his position without orders, and submits to discipline because he appreciates the advantages of it and not because a higher authority requires it. Such a man may be a very different character from the well-drilled and even intelligent machine of the best European armies, but his character is one of the factors in the problem of any future war; and any regimental memoir which explains this character and records the deeds of a gallant body of men, makes a positive addition to the science of war as well as to the history of the Rebellion.

Thomas J. Jackson was born at Clarksburg, Virginia, on the 21st of January, 1824. His early life was one of hardship, as he was left an orphan at the age of seven, and was not very congenial to the uncles to whose care he was confided. At the age of twenty he went to West Point, where he had great difficulty with his studies, his mind not being quick and his previous education having been very limited. Each year, however, he improved in scholarship, and graduated creditably in 1846. As a lieutenant in the artillery he was at once ordered to Mexico, where his gallantry was conspicuous at Cherubusco and Chapultepec. A few years of the inaction of a garrison life after the war made him welcome with joy the offer of a professorship at Lexington, which he accepted in July, 1851. Here he passed ten eventful years, during which he was twice married, and travelled for a few months in Europe. He was methodical, zealous, and conscientious in the performance of his duties, very active at prayer-meetings, very unpopular with the cadets. On the 27th of April, 1861, he was commissioned colonel in the Virginia forces and ordered to command Harper's Ferry, and from that time his whole life changed. After occupying the attention of Patterson in the Valley, he was brought to Manassas in time to take part in the battle, where his firmness gained him the sobriquet of "Stonewall"; subsequently he was ordered back to the Valley, and with great skill he defeated or neutralized largely superior forces under Banks and Shields throughout the spring of 1862. In June, he was transferred with his command to the vicinity of Richmond, and opened the attack which resulted in the seven days' battles and forced McClellan to the James River. In August, having been sent to observe Pope, he fought the drawn battle of Cedar Mountain; and three weeks later, with half of Lee's army, made the celebrated flank march which drove Pope's army from the battle-field of Manassas to the defences of Washington. Soon afterward he captured Harper's Ferry with its entire garrison of 11,000 men, and on the following days took an active part in the battle of Antietam. At Fredericksburg he commanded the right wing and repulsed the attack upon it; and at Chancellorsville, with two-thirds of Lee's army, by making a rapid march of eighteen miles, he fell upon Hooker's right flank and rear and completely routed him. At the close of this day, May 2, 1863, he was accidentally shot in the darkness and confusion by his own men, and he died a week later—Sunday, May 10. As it was his skill which dealt the Army of the Potomac two of its most crushing defeats, so his death marks the period of the last Confederate victory.

If we turn to Mrs. Randolph's biography to find something of the hidden causes of this strange life, we shall be by turns pleased and disappointed. The domestic side of his character is brought strongly forward, and we readily see that in ordinary times he was a man to be completely misunderstood; his tenderness and kindly disposition made him beloved of his friends, but his shyness, his lack of geniality, and the almost morbid character of his religion, made him appear to strangers cold and unsympathetic. But in the times when men's souls are tried all this was as nothing; it was then that his great force of character, impelled by a single idea—God and his country, as he understood it—transformed him into one of those men whom others love to follow and obey, and in whose presence they have a feeling of protection. The more strictly military part of the book is not so successful. It shows a lack of technical knowledge which results in giving too great prominence to the minor details and not enough to the important features, and thus confusing the accounts of battles and campaigns. This is particularly noticeable in the history of the first year of the war, and it is rendered still more bewildering by the bravado and exaggeration as to the relative numbers of opposing forces, which were so common then but are out of date now. As the war runs on, and both sides settle down more steadily to work, the tone of our author's descriptions changes materially, and for the better; and, finally, the account of the battle of Chancellorsville and the wounding of Jackson (including the extracts from other biographies and the papers of the day) is wonderfully graphic and vivid.

But little is said of politics beyond applauding Virginia for her course about secession. This was, perhaps, to be expected; but it might better have been omitted, as contributing little or nothing to the fame of Mrs. Randolph's hero. It is enough to say of him that he was one of two men from Virginia who contributed more than any other two from the South to what chances of life the Confederacy ever had. These two men are still worshipped as heroes in the South; and their former enemies at the North, while holding fast to the idea that they made a great and terrible mistake, already yield them respect for their sincerity, their high personal characters, and their unselfish devotion to the cause which they supported.

A General History of Greece, from the earliest period to the death of Alexander the Great, with a sketch of its subsequent history to the present time. By George W. Cox, M.A., author of 'Tales of Ancient Greece,' 'Mythology of the Aryan Nations,' etc. (New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1876. 8vo, pp. 709.)—Mr. Cox's reputation as a scholar and as an historian made it quite certain when it was announced that he had undertaken a history of Greece that the work would be well done. In this expectation we are not disappointed. It is a pity, however, that this 'General History' of Greece is not a complete one, like Mr. Merivale's of Rome. Some disappointment was felt even that Mr. Grote did not bring his work down to a later period; and Mr. Cox stops a generation earlier than he—for the two brief chapters, twenty-three pages in all, which embrace the centuries from the death of Alexander to the present time are a mere mockery. Especially in view of Mr. Freeman's eloquent vindication of the neglected annals of the Achæan League, the book seems very incomplete. In everything else it may reasonably be expected to rank as the standard short history of Greece; for the later ages it is inferior to President Felton's edition of Smith.

Mr. Cox is best known by his studies in Comparative Mythology, and this is probably his favorite field. Nevertheless, we cannot help thinking him at his best in narrative and political history. In mythology he had a hobby, which he rode very hard, and the result was an aspect at once exaggerated and one-sided. If the present work is comparatively free from these faults, it lacks, on the other hand, unity of conception in its treatment of this subject. The chapter upon Grecian mythology, presenting in the main the same view as his earlier works, only with more soberness, is preceded by a chapter upon "The Growth of Hellenic Civilization," which appears to be based upon Coulanges's 'Cité Antique.' Now, there is no real contradiction between these two views, for both are true; but they point to two totally different origins of the Grecian religion, and it is the business of the historian to show their consistency with one another. This connection is, in fact, the most profound and important fact in the early religious history of the Greeks. Mr. Cox, in his earlier works, wholly ignored the one side; M. Coulanges almost wholly ignores the other. In the present work we have both present, each in its own chapter, but with nothing to show their relation to one another. The fundamental principle of the one chapter is the identity of "the gods whom they worshipped" with "their own ancestors." But the reader will be puzzled when he turns over the page to find a totally different theory of the religion and a totally different set of gods. M. Coulanges—incidentally and briefly, it is true—solves the problem. Mr. Cox does not.

Again, when he comes to the legislation of Solon, Mr. Cox would have done well to adopt Coulanges's view without any debate, instead of gravely discussing the question whether, at the beginning of the sixth century before Christ, there was "a class of professed money-lenders" at Athens, who took mortgages upon real estate. M. Coulanges's description of the *Seisachtheia* is one of the best single points of his book, and is the only explanation of this act consistent with the view of ancient society presented, for instance, by Mr. Maine. The fact is, Mr. Cox's interest in comparative studies has been confined to mythology, and is rather narrow at that, while of the cognate comparative study of institutions he appears to have a very inadequate notion.

The history of literature and art is scarcely touched upon. As this was evidently upon a deliberate plan, it is hardly a matter of criticism; where

they do come in, in direct connection with political events, they are very well treated. The chapter upon Socrates, for example, who was not merely a philosopher, but whose death was an event of moment in history, is a long and very good one. Demosthenes, on the other hand, has some just and forcible paragraphs devoted to him, but one cannot but feel that he deserves a fuller treatment.

There are some good maps and plans. The system of spelling proper names is on the whole as satisfactory as any that could be adopted, but why do we have, in a metaphor, "the Seiren's strain"?

Life Histories of Animals, including Man; or, Outlines of Comparative Embryology. By A. S. Packard, jr. (New York: Henry Holt & Co, 1876. 8vo, pp. 241.)—This work consists of the series of articles on embryology lately published in the *American Naturalist*, and here gathered in a convenient volume, with the addition of chapters on man and other mammals. The whole series has been carefully revised for the present purpose of affording advanced students and teachers a concise yet sufficiently comprehensive view of the development of animal forms from lowest to highest. The author's established reputation guarantees the reliability of the work, which may be used to the best advantage in connection with the ordinary text-books of comparative anatomy, since these, as a rule, contain little—at any rate, little to the point—concerning the surprising changes undergone by most animals before birth. The greater part of the treatise relates to the lower forms of life, more than two hundred pages being devoted to the various classes of evertebrates. As an example of the author's method of treatment, as well as of his advanced views, we may instance his illustration of the several types of structure which our own species successively represents during intra-uterine life: beginning with "a minute mass of protoplasm, like a moner," it passes through the stages of the egg, morula gastrula? ascidian, amphioxus, fish, reptile, mammal, and monkey. A valuable feature of the work is found in the numerous references to the literature of the subject, which point the way for further investigations. The volume is profusely illustrated with woodcuts, always clear and instructive, and often of much artistic excellence. Like the same gifted naturalist's 'Guide to the Study of Insects,' the present work cannot be too highly recommended as one deserving a place among our standard text-books.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices*
Art-Journal for June	(D. Appleton & Co.)
Baird (Prof. S. F.), Annual Record of Science and Industry for 1875	(Harper & Bros.)
Bourdon (Mme.) Real Life	(Kelly, Piet & Co.) $1 50
Bancroft (G.), History of the United States. Vol. I	(Little, Brown & Co.)
Dawson (G.), Pleasures of Angling	(Sheldon & Co.)
Day (H. N.), Elements of Psychology	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 1 50
Eliot (George), Daniel Deronda. Vol. I	(Harper & Bros.)
Forney (J. W.), Centennial Commissioner in Europe	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Furtwängler (Dr. A.), Der Dornauszieher und der Knabe mit der Gans, swd	(L. W. Schmidt)
Grane (G.), Der Mangel an Theologen, swd	(L. W. Schmidt)
Hartmann (R.), Die menschenähnlichen Affen, swd	(L. W. Schmidt)
Index to Scribner's Monthly, 1870-1875	(Scribner & Co.)
Jannasch (Dr. R.), Die Volks-Bibliotheken, swd	(L. W. Schmidt)
Lamers (A.), Der Moorrauch und seine Culturmission, swd	(L. W. Schmidt)
Lipschitz (R.), Bedeutung der theoretischen Mechanik, swd	(L. W. Schmidt)
L'Art, Revue Hebdomadaire Illustrée	(J. W. Bouton)
Maine (H. S.), Village Communities and Miscellanies	(Henry Holt & Co.) 3 50
Morse (Mrs. L. L.), The Druniard's Journey, swd	(Congregational Pub. Co.) 6
Naumann (E.), Die Tonkunst in Venedig, swd	(L. W. Schmidt)
Pettenkofer (Dr. M. von), Outbreak of Cholera among Convicts, swd	(L. W. Schmidt)
Portfolio for May	(J. W. Bouton)
Peacock (T. B.), The Vendetta and Other Poems	(Topeka)
Phillips (G.), Addai, the Apostle	(Trübner & Co.)
Pulpit Gems (E. S.), Defects in House Drainage, swd	(A. Williams & Co.)
Pearson (C. H.) and Strong (H. A.), Student's Grammar	(Samuel Mullen)
Scribner's Monthly, 1875-1876	(Scribner & Co.)
Tenney (E. P.), Silent House	(Congregational Pub. Co.) 1 00
Tuttle (H.), German Political Leaders	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 1 50
Toutain (P.), Un Français en Amérique, swd	(F. W. Christern)
Vogel (A.), Anaprüche des Landbaues auf Steuer- und Zollentlastung, swd	(L. W. Schmidt)
Walker (Prof. F. A.), Wages Question	(Henry Holt & Co.) 3 50
Withers (G.), English Language Spelled as Pronounced, swd	(Trübner & Co.)

Sir Henry Sumner Maine.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 1, 1876.

The Week.

THE Michigan and California Democrats have held their conventions, and adopted platforms strongly in favor of hard-money and civil-service reform. The delegations are for Tilden, as are almost all the delegates already chosen who are distinctly in favor of any candidate. In New York an anti-Tilden movement has developed itself lately, but on the whole cannot be said to have much strength outside the office of the *World* and the Court of Appeals. The success of his Canal campaign ought to make his party in his own State support him, if they wish to have their professions of reform taken to mean anything at all; for he has done what no man or party has before been able to do, in reducing the canal tax—which has gone as high in past years as three millions—to nothing. It looks now as if he would carry the St. Louis Convention almost on the first ballot, and we trust that the Republican reformers who are going to Cincinnati will recollect that in putting up a candidate for their own party, they must put up one who will not merely be better than Conkling or Morton, but fit to run against Mr. Tilden, who is himself a formidable candidate for any one to run against, and will have behind him what no Democrat has had for a long time, the almost solid vote of the South.

The Illinois Republican Convention distinguished itself by inserting in its platform a currency plank which declares that "the Republican party has given to the people the best system of paper currency ever devised, and would deprecate any legislation that might, by any possibility, cause a return to the system of paper currency in existence before the war." This is one of the best examples of the art of platform-making as developed in our day. It is equally false in its facts and in its suggestions; and while expressly framed to commit the party to no expression of opinion on the question of a return to specie payments, it offers a bait to the rag-money voter which may be disavowed at any time after the election. As the "best system of paper currency ever devised" goes well with the "best civil service on the planet," it is singular that the Convention did not declare for Mr. Morton but for Mr. Blaine.

We have no wish to push Mr. Blaine with charges, and have been willing to accept without question thus far all that he has said in explanation of his connection with the Arkansas & Fort Smith and the Union Pacific Railroads, while wishing most sincerely that there had been nothing to explain; but we must say his answer to the correspondence published by Mr. Aquila Adams leaves much to be desired. It appears from his own letter that after "the Jay Cooke contract had been perfected, and additional legislation had been obtained," he at the time (Nov., 1870) being Speaker of the House, "by a strange revolution of circumstances" he found himself "again able to control an interest" in the Northern Pacific Railroad, and thereupon offered it for $25,000 to certain Boston gentlemen. The offer was accepted, and the money paid, but he failed to deliver the stock, and in a year had to return the $25,000. It appears, too, that he had a year previously spoken to the same gentlemen about the same matter. In the letter he gives a glowing account of the prospects of the road, and commends the stock as extraordinarily cheap under the circumstances, and says that as he himself "can't touch it" he offers it to his friend. Now, what we should like to know, but what he does not tell us, is this: Why should the Speaker of the House occupy himself in peddling the stock of a land-grant road in "small flyers" of $2,500 each? How, if it was not proper for him to "touch it"—that is, become the purchaser of it at a fair price—could it be proper for him to "control an interest" in it? What does controlling an interest in it mean? Does it mean that he had "a call" on it at a certain price? If so, how did he acquire it? Who was the person who had it for sale, and for whom Mr. Blaine received the money "in trust"? If the transaction was a lawful one, why does not Mr. Blaine give his name? Why wait for this person "in due time to declare himself"? What, in short, is the meaning of all this mystery? It may of course prove that the transaction was a perfectly honorable one, but he ought to be frank about it, and not wait for the story to be dragged to light by investigation, and he ought not to be in pecuniary relations with anybody whose name he cannot reveal. Of the scandal of his selling stock in this way, and "controlling interests" in new railroads chartered and endowed by Congress, there can, unhappily, be no question whatever; and that Mr. Blaine should attempt to defend it is fresh illustration of the bewildering effect of the last ten years' speculation on the minds of even clear-headed and well-meaning men.

The Senate on Monday reached the conclusion that it had jurisdiction in Belknap's case, and accordingly the proceedings will be renewed to-day. The majority was of only 37 yeas to 29 nays, and might almost be called a party majority, the Republicans in opposition having the aid of but two Democrats and one Independent. Mr. Morton and Mr. Conkling were prominent in denying jurisdiction, while Mr. Cameron asserted it in the good company of Messrs. Edmunds, Morrill, and Sherman. Mr. Thurman moved the resolutions, which, with some amendments, were finally adopted. There are so many reasons why both parties are not anxious to let the impeachment proceedings run into the summer, that postponement seems more than probable. Either way, the case will serve the Democrats as a handle during the coming campaign.

Besides the Schenck report, Congress has had before it very little of general interest. Mr. Kerr has been accused of having sold a cadetship, but the proofs do not yet seem to be of a convincing kind. The House Banking and Currency Committee have agreed to recommend the passage of Mr. Randall's bill authorizing the purchase of silver bullion to the extent of $20,000,000, but the deadlock on the Appropriation Bill is already beginning to loom up as the most serious question in the immediate future. Mr. Randall, at the beginning of the session, announced his intention of cutting down the expenses of the Government $40,000,000, and in his appropriation bills he has cut down the estimates of the Departments right and left to a great extent, by a wholesale reduction of salaries. The Senate, not merely in the interest of good government, but also as being the body which fills the offices, objects to this kind of economy, and there is at present small hope of agreement between the two Houses, except after long disputes and conferences.

The Committee which has been investigating General Schenck's connection with the Emma Mine, finds that in November, 1871, he became a stockholder and director in a Company formed in the country to which he was accredited for the purchase of a mine in the country he represented; that this is the first instance in the history of the Government in which such a thing has happened; that these facts give rise to three questions: Whether such a connection is in itself proper; whether General Schenck's relations to the vendors of the Emma Mine "have been such as to cast suspicion upon his motives and subject his action to unfavorable criticism"; and whether his subsequent action in connection with the Company or its shares was compatible with his diplomatic position. In answer to these questions, the report goes on to show that the mine was floated for Park, Baxter, and Stewart, in London, by "Baron" Albert Grant, and that before he undertook it Schenck's promise to become a director had been obtained by Park, and that, in Grant's own language, he was induced to undertake the enterprise because Schenck had agreed to lend "the weight of his name, given in ad-

dition to the influence of his official position," to the Company; that, as director, he made himself responsible for all the statements of the prospectus, including that with regard to 13,250 tons of first-class ore "already developed"—an amount which, in addition to the one year's dividends actually paid, would have yielded two more years' dividends, which, for some reason or other, have disappeared; that the terms of Schenck's secret arrangement with Park were a loan by Park of $50,000 for a year, without interest, to enable Schenck to take up shares, dividends at 18 per cent. being guaranteed by Park, and Schenck having the right to "unload" his shares on Park at par within the year, and Park having the right to relieve himself of his guarantee by offering to take them back at par. "The practical result of this arrangement," the Committee say, "was to give General Schenck a bonus of 24 per cent." on his stock. Schenck also agreed to assign to Park 475 shares as collateral security, and to give him a mortgage on real estate in Washington; but this was not done.

The Committee further find that probably, though this "may have been forgotten by General Schenck," and was denied by him flatly, the note and guarantee were executed first, and the stipulation of Schenck to give security was executed afterwards—a resolution of enquiry having meantime been introduced into the Senate; that the reason why Park was willing to make such a peculiar arrangement was that he wanted to "identify" the American Minister with the sale, though there is no evidence to show that General Schenck knew or suspected any fraud; that, having thus placed himself in a false position, he made it still worse by concealing his contract with Park, though this contract contained stipulations which as vendor and as trustee he was bound to make known to the purchasers and stockholders; that his telegram to Mr. Fish, saying that he had paid "dollar for dollar" for his shares was not a correct statement of the facts; that Mr. Fish's reply, condemning the advertisement of his name as director, calling upon him to resign, but at the same time exculpating him from blame on the assumption that the advertisement of the Company was not his act, but that of the agents of the Company, without consultation with him, was in reality a sharp rebuke, inasmuch as the prospectus was, contrary to this assumption, issued and advertised with his full knowledge and consent; that Schenck's resignation was sent in on the 6th of December, but not made public till the 12th of January; that the letter of resignation first prepared was rewritten for him by Park, so as to amount to an endorsement of the high character of Park & Co., and to convey the impression that Schenck withdrew on "personal" grounds, and not because his Government had informed him, as was really the case, that his connection with the Company was "ill-advised and unfortunate," and ordered him to withdraw; and, finally, that Schenck, besides all this, speculated in the stock with Park and General Woodhull, his secretary of legation. The Committee, therefore, unanimously reported a resolution which "condemns" the action of General Schenck in becoming a director of the Emma Company, "and his operations in connection with the shares of the said Company, and the vendors thereof, as ill-advised, unfortunate, and incompatible with the duties of his official position."

This report, which, it will be seen, makes none of the inferences that might have been made as to Schenck's complicity in the frauds of Park and Stewart, is the unanimous finding of a Committee representing both political parties, and was accompanied by a stinging speech from Mr. Hewitt, who has done the real work of investigation and cross-examination, in which he reviewed in plain language the history of the fraud from the beginning, and exhibited Park, Stewart, and Grant, and the other swindlers, in their true characters. The unanimity of the report is very gratifying, as it leaves no doubt about the facts, and its calm and judicial tone spares us all unpleasant doubts as to its impartiality. There are no rhetorical passages in it, either, such as might have been feared in a report to a Democratic House, proving that the scandal was the result of "fifteen years of Republican misrule" and "radical tyranny," nor any rebutting rhetoric from the minority showing that things were worse "under the Pro-slavery régime" than they are now, and that all the corruption which has been exposed since the Rebellion was caused by "the party that brought on the war."

We can hardly find fault with the manner in which the Committee acquits General Schenck of all fraudulent intent, as this was probably necessary to secure unanimity, and as the remorseless summing up of the evidence and the report itself contain the gravest condemnation in every line. But we do not think it ought to go out to the world, without a word of comment from any quarter, as an accepted view, that a gentleman of General Schenck's age and antecedents can be as simple-minded as the Committee charitably set him down. He is sixty years old, with long experience of Washington politicians and lobbyists, and has played many a night of poker with some of the ablest gamblers in the country. That he was, therefore, taken in by Park and Stewart, and could not guess what these worthy fellows were driving at, and did not understand the exact nature of their arrangement with him, is an hypothesis of such boldness and breadth that it cannot help General Schenck's reputation, and we doubt whether on the whole he would not himself have preferred being described as a downright knave. Our object in going back to it now, however, is to warn all other diplomatists that this lenient view of the case is not likely to be taken more than once, and that representatives abroad of all ages must hereafter keep a sharp lookout for the "President of the National Bank of Vermont" and all other pious-looking lawyers with mines for sale. The plea of simplicity is exhausted.

Those who have followed the history of this scandal are aware that the fact which finally determined General Schenck to "assist," as he calls it, in the Emma Mine was the connection of the Portuguese Minister, his "esteemed friend" the Marquis de Saldanha, with the sale of a Lisbon tramway company in London, and the advertisement of the Marquis's name as a director in a prospectus offering the shares for sale. This tramway has been brought up at intervals of six months by General Schenck's defenders, for the last six years, as a conclusive proof of his innocence and the well-recognized right of Ministers to engage in the operations of "floating" stocks on the markets of the countries to which they are accredited. It never seemed to occur to them that the tramway (which was put on the market with the help of Albert Grant) might itself be open to suspicion. But it now turns out so, and Grant is being sued in London by the stockholders for fraudulent misrepresentation, concealment, and bribing the newspapers. The tramway was floated, it seems, in much the same way that the Emma Mine was floated, the contract with Grant himself being concealed, and the newspapers being liberally paid for "puffs." Grant's counsel have consented to a verdict in one case for $5,000, and there are eighty more suits pending. This unfortunate occurrence will, no doubt, open wide the flood-gates of slander, and certainly in a great measure deprives the Saldanha precedent of its moral weight.

The Senate Committee on Railroads have made a report on the relations between the Pacific Railroads and the Government which shows the principal of the bonds issued to them to amount to $64,623,512, and puts the total amount of interest which will be due from the companies, "on an average, in 1898, or at the maturity of the bonds," at $116,322,321. Against this the amount which the Committee think the Government can count upon from half the transportation money, and five per cent. of the net earning, is only $550,014 05 annually from the Union Pacific, and $320,496 21 from the Central Pacific. These sums, the report shows, are not sufficient to pay off the Government, while at the same time the Committee think that the power of Congress to provide means for payment in any new way is very doubtful. They therefore propose the passage of a bill authorizing the surrender by each of the Companies to the Government of 6,000,000 acres of their land-grants at $2 50 per acre; the ap-

plication of the $30,000,000 supposed to be represented by this transaction against the bonds; the crediting the Company with the amount now due it and withheld for Government transportation up to the 31st of December last; and the payment into this sinking fund of $375,000 semi-annually by the Union Pacific, and $425,000 by the Central. The lands to be surrendered are situated in Utah, Nevada, Nebraska, and Wyoming, and there can be little doubt that the Government will find great difficulty in selling them at either $2 50 or fifty cents an acre. In fact, the proposed bill amounts to a gift to the railroads of $30,000,000, and there are no "claimants" in the United States that are less in a position to ask favors of the Government. The roads were built really out of Government money, and the Companies have already got far more than they had any right to ask for in the relinquishment by the United States of its first mortgage lien. The construction of the roads was involved from first to last in scandals which covered the whole country with disgrace; and if the Companies cannot, after all the swindling and purchase of Congressmen that has gone on, and with their monopoly of the transcontinental traffic and eight per cent. dividends on stock issued for nothing, pay the money borrowed of the Government with anything better than worthless land, it would be at least worth while to push the matter in the courts first, and know the reason why.

Mr. William R. Taylor, the Granger Governor of Wisconsin, who, if we remember right, fired a salute of a hundred guns in honor of a decision by the State Supreme Court of the constitutionality of the Granger laws, has met with a misfortune, and, in fact, has had his pretensions as a reformer thoroughly exploded. A committee of the legislature has been investigating him, and has discovered that, on the last day of his term of office as Governor, he drew upon the State for several hundred dollars' worth of stationery, and thereupon retired to his farm carrying his plunder, in the shape of pens, pencils, ink, paper, envelopes, etc., with him. There seems to be some disposition in Wisconsin to grieve over this, as if it was another "fall"; but, in fact, Mr. Taylor fell—if, indeed, he ever occupied a position from which he could fall—when he joined the Grangers in a scheme to swindle strangers, who had honestly invested their money in enterprises protected by the laws of the State, out of their property. There is nothing unnatural or deplorable in a Granger turning from one form of swindle to another. The deplorable thing is that people should be found weak enough to trust the professions of a man who declares he is going to rob with one hand, and that he will reform and purify the Government with the other.

Among the important commercial events of the week were (1) the immense sales of dry goods by auction in this city, (2) the activity in the export of grain and provisions, and (3) the reduction of passenger fares by the trunk lines of railroads. The auction sales amounted to nearly 25,000 packages, of which the money value was from $2,500,000 to $3,000,000; the prices obtained were considerably below the cost of the goods, as these were made when cotton was three and four cents per pound higher than now. The sales were, however, regarded as encouraging, because with cotton at its present price the goods can be duplicated at a small profit, and because it was shown that there is a market at some price for an unlimited amount of goods. The low railroad freights, together with rumors of war in Europe and the consequent advance in gold to 113 @ 113¼, account for the activity in the export of breadstuffs; the shipments have been chiefly to England, although a considerable amount has been sent to the Continent, notably to France. The reduction in passenger fares by the trunk lines shows that a settlement of the railroad war is not near. Rates in the money market continue very low, and the New York banks have raised their surplus reserve by the large additions of legal-tender notes to nearly $14,500,000. The paper "dollar" has ranged, according to gold measurement, during the week between 88⅜ cents and 88⅝ cents. Silver in London has ruled at 52 @ 52¼d. per ounce. Small change is still scarce, and commands a premium of 1 @ 2½ per cent. The London and Continental markets for securities have been unsettled during the week by rumors of war. British consols declined 1¼ per cent. because, it was said, the Rothschilds, who have facilities for getting hold of state secrets, were selling. Part of this decline was recovered, but the apprehension of war remains.

The full text of the note of the three Powers to Turkey has come out, and provides a two months' armistice; the restoration of the Christian houses and churches; the maintenance of the refugees for one year and their exemption from taxation for three, the relief to be distributed by a joint Commission of Christians and Mussulmans; the withdrawal of the Turkish troops from all but the fortified towns until the country is completely pacified, the Christians not to lay down their arms until the Mussulmans have laid down theirs; and the execution of all the conditions to be superintended by the foreign consuls. The note closes with the significant threat that if at the close of the two months' armistice the programme thus traced has not been carried out, the Powers will take such steps as to them may seem necessary. To this note, which is to be presented by Russia, England refuses to adhere, though the reason has not yet been published, and the French, who are willing to agree, accordingly call on England to propose something. It is rumored in Paris that England would not refuse to enter into an international conference on the Eastern Question.

Meantime, the Softas, emboldened by their late success in deposing the Vizier, have now quietly deposed the Sultan himself, putting in his place his nephew, the heir presumptive, Murad Effendi, who is ten years younger than Abdul-Aziz, and is believed to be much more alive to the situation of his dynasty and the empire than was his uncle. The new ruler is said already to have accepted three propositions submitted to him by the revolutionary party, which look to the institution of a permanent assembly of notables, the abolition of the seraglio, and the reduction of the civil list to 5,000,000 piastres. The change of administration is regarded in Europe as favorable to a peaceful settlement of pending questions; but the mere change itself seems, under the circumstances, more likely to encourage the insurrectionists than to dispose them to accept any terms the execution of which is left to the Mussulmans. A *coup d'état* at Constantinople will naturally appear in Herzegovina as fresh evidence of the Turkish break-up. Nor do the promised reforms ensure financial salvation. The late reign was ushered in with a similar attempt to set bounds to the extravagance of an absolute despotism, and to ameliorate political and social conditions. It met with the half-success which is all that can be expected of Oriental imitations of constitutional and legal government. Moreover, the best intentions in the world, if they have not time in which to work themselves out, are good for nothing; and just now time is what it seems impossible for Turkey to be allowed to have.

The French Government has sustained a severe blow in the death of M. Ricard, the Minister of the Interior, who had just begun his official career most sensibly and auspiciously. He was one of the few moderate Conservatives who really believe in the Republican régime and are willing it should have a fair trial. He had just before his death issued an admirable circular to the prefects, giving them instructions as to their functions and their demeanor towards the councils-general, which must, to such of them as have served under the Empire, been strange reading. He had, too, removed the prohibition launched by his predecessor against book-pedlars, and had thus given the peasantry the only chance they can have at present of getting hold of cheap literature. Moreover, he relinquished on behalf of the Government the power given it by the late Assembly to appoint the mayors of villages, and left them to be chosen by the municipal councils—that is, appointed the persons the municipal councils presented; and he had a bill prepared before his death, and which is now probably before the Assembly, giving the election of all the local functionaries to the communes. Curiously enough, the principal papers of all parties unite in eulogizing him except the *Pays*, Paul de Cassagnac's paper, which rejoices that he is out of the way.

MR. BRISTOW AS A CANDIDATE.

MR. BRISTOW has now a great many active friends and partisans all over the country, and will have a powerful body of them in the Convention, and we should certainly not wish to discourage them, even if we had it in our power to do so. A great deal is said, and there is a great deal to be said, in his favor. The principal objection to him is that he has not been long or well known; but, as we endeavored to show a fortnight ago, this is rarely produced by persons who have any right to make it. It comes mostly from the supporters of candidates who have figured more prominently and for a greater number of years in Republican politics than he has; but they know very well that wide repute has never been considered an indispensable qualification for candidates for the Presidency in the Republican party. So that, although his obscurity may be a sufficient reason for not nominating Mr. Bristow, it is not a sufficient reason, under the party traditions, for preferring to him any other candidate now on the stage. As to the matter of fame, indeed, it may be said that a man of whom but little is known, and that little all good, is on the whole a safer choice than a man of whom a great deal is known, and half of it bad.

Nevertheless, it does not do to choose anybody for any office blindly, and no amount of inquisition about Mr. Bristow or his antecedents can be considered impertinent or superfluous. But we are sorry to observe that what of it there is now going on is directed exclusively or mainly to the question of his Republicanism. It seems to be supposed by many good people that if he is a good Republican, and there is no danger of his "Johnsonizing," as it is called—that is, adopting Democratic or semi-Democratic views after he gets into the Presidential chair—it is all we need to know about him. But those who talk in this way apparently forget that there is no doubt of General Grant's Republicanism, or of Mr. Morton's, or of Mr. Logan's, or of Mr. Conkling's, or of Mr. Simon Cameron's. The faith of all these gentlemen is sound. Not one of them is in the least danger of "Johnsonizing" under any circumstances. But this does not make General Grant a satisfactory President; and it does not prevent the others from being component parts of the very system against which the reformatory zeal of the country is now directed. In fact, it is safe to say, in the light of recent experience, that the sounder the Republicanism of a politician is in our time, the more apt is he to be untrustworthy in other matters. For instance, it will be found a rule which has but few exceptions, that the greater a man's horror of the Democrats, and the deeper his sense of the importance to the country of continued Republican rule, the less will be his disposition to see anything wrong in the civil service or any good in the investigation of abuses. It is well, therefore, that the candidate of the Republican party should be a good Republican, but this is not enough, and this would not necessarily indicate the possession of any other virtues—not even that of humane feeling towards the freedmen, for the swindlers of the Freedmen's Savings-Bank are all as sound in the faith as Mr. Sumner himself was, if we were to take their own word for it.

Now, while we, as our readers know, by no means undervalue Mr. Bristow's services in the Treasury as a pursuer of fraud against the Government, these services simply create a strong presumption that he is the right man for the Presidency at this juncture; they are not complete proof of his fitness. Such abuses as the whiskey frauds cannot, as we pointed out when they were first discovered, be permanently and effectually repressed by the vigilance and fidelity of any one man. It is the custom of civilized states in our time not to rely on the vigilance and fidelity of any one man for the protection of its revenues, but to provide a system of administration which shall promote vigilance and fidelity among all its servants. If Mr. Bristow had died or been dismissed from office when the whiskey thieves were being brought to justice, we should have been just where we were before the prosecutions. In Turkey and Persia, when the Vizier is a good man there is good government; when he is a bad man there is bad government. But no Christian state ought to be exposed to these vicissitudes. We are entitled to a *system* which will deliver us from dependence on any one person's zeal or courage. But whether Mr. Bristow is or is not heartily in favor of a new system or not, we are not as yet fully informed. He may be said to be in favor of "civil-service reform," and yet not satisfy the needs of the time, because the phrase civil-service reform is used in different senses by different people. As Messrs. Conkling and Morton use it—for they too use it—it means what they call "putting none but good men in office"—that is, appointing nobody who is not well recommended by Senators and Representatives friendly to the Administration. We have, however, had abundant experience of this kind of reform, and it is because the country is not satisfied with it that there is any movement in favor of Mr. Bristow at all.

We think, therefore, his friends ought to let the country know a little more clearly where he stands on this point. We feel quite sure he would, if elected to the Presidency, not tolerate fraud or corruption in any shape wherever he could see them, and would enforce a better accountability and more circumspect behavior among his immediate subordinates and friends than we have lately witnessed in Washington; but this would give us no security as to the vast field which his eye could not reach, and in which he would be dependent, as General Grant is, on the honor and honesty of others. The machinery of this Government has become much too extensive and complicated to be kept in order by the eye of an "enlightened despot" or by a Cæsar or Providential man of any kind. The test of Mr. Bristow's fitness to represent the reform sentiment of the country would seem to be his readiness to urge upon Congress such legislation as may be necessary to establish tenure of office during good behavior, and the adoption of a proper system of qualification for office and of pay and promotion. If he will bind himself to advocate these, and at the same time to resume the exercise of the appointing power as given to the President by the Constitution, and refuse to allow members of Congress to use the public service as a means of rewarding their personal adherents, he is what the country needs as a candidate, and what the reform sentiment, if there be anything substantial or practical about it, is seeking for. But if he has not nerve enough for this, and is simply another patriotic man with good intentions who will reform the civil service if the politicians will let him, but if they will not let him will manage it in their way; or if he has no general ideas at all with regard to reform, but thinks it means simply the substitution now and again of "good men" for "bad men," when things reach such a pass as to become intolerable, not only would nothing be gained by electing him but much would be lost. But upon all these points we confess we know nothing. We desire and wait for information.

It cannot be too distinctly remembered that the failure of a reform movement is a worse thing on the whole than the prolongation of bad government. As long as respectable citizens think they can mend matters if they try, this very confidence is a powerful instrument of improvement. When it has been lost, or greatly impaired by failure, changes for the better become much more difficult, because when the good become more apathetic the bad grow more confident. It is, therefore, of the last importance that popular indignation should never be aroused without the production of some positive results. If we can get this year a President with enough force of character to leave the beaten party-track, and part company with the "machine," and put himself in thorough communion with the best opinion of the country, his failure to accomplish all we now talk of or hope for will not be very regrettable. It will be enough if he shows that the conduct of a Republican Government on business principles is not a visionary or fantastic notion. If this be established by ever so small a beginning, we may trust to popular sagacity to do the rest.

THE FINANCIAL SITUATION IN ENGLAND.

THE advices of last week from England represent the depression in the money market as having increased to an extraordinary degree, so that all securities were selling on Saturday last in London extremely low, and there was a disposition to get rid of foreign

securities at almost any price. In fact, the situation was described as "little better than a panic." The origin of the trouble goes back to the outbreak of the Franco-Prussian war in 1870, which caused enormous loss, both by the actual destruction of property and by the actual suspension of productive industry in France and Germany during a whole year. This was followed by the withdrawal of French capital from nearly all foreign investments, in order to purchase the securities issued to provide the indemnity to Germany. The disturbance and loss of confidence caused by this was very great, and the sudden outburst of the speculative fever in Germany, consequent on the increase in the volume of the currency from the receipt of the indemnity, certainly did nothing to abate it. In fact, the social and industrial disorganization wrought in that country by the compensation received for the losses of the war was so serious that the speculative period was extraordinarily brief, and left behind it a profound feeling of distrust of the future, which again was aggravated by the substitution of gold for silver as a legal tender—a process which, however necessary, was unsettling in its immediate effects. Then, too, for fully three years after the war there prevailed throughout Europe a feeling of great anxiety as to the course that would be pursued by France, and the belief was very widespread that whatever government was set up would find itself driven, as a condition of its existence, into making preparations for revenge. The state of Spain, too, in which a civil war was raging with doubtful results, seemed at one time not unlikely to bring about the interference of foreign powers, and helped, if not to increase the prevailing uneasiness, to sustain it.

In 1874, the borrowing powers of various semi-civilized governments, which had for ten years been making heavy drafts on European capital for "public improvements," were exhausted, and the creditors woke up to the unpleasant truth that about $1,200,000,000 was due to them by bankrupt governments, only a small portion of which would probably ever be paid, and, if ever, at an indefinite period. It came out in the Parliamentary enquiry made in England last year that Portugal, Turkey, Tunis, San Domingo, Mexico, Honduras, Nicaragua, Costa Rica, Venezuela, Ecuador, Peru, Bolivia, Paraguay, and some of our own Southern States, to say nothing of Spain, were in default in some shape, and, what was worse, had little or nothing to show for the money they had borrowed. The Turkish repudiation followed close on this exposure, and came simultaneously with the outbreak of an insurrection which seemed, and still seems, likely to revive the dreaded "Eastern question," which has since 1815 been the blackest cloud on the European political horizon, and the one which is sure to create the most serious complications before it can be settled. Since then, too, Egyptian credit has given way, and has been patched up by an arrangement so onerous to the debtor that its permanence may well be doubted; and the money markets were in the midst of their convulsion over it when the sudden and rapid fall of silver disordered the finances of India, and unsettled the trade with that country and with China, and filled the European countries which still used silver as a legal tender with vague alarm. When we add that, when all this occurred, four of the great nations of the world, containing a population of more than 150,000,000, were using an irredeemable paper currency, and that two of them, Austria and the United States, were trying to recover from a severe commercial panic, we see plenty of reasons to account for the present severe and widespread financial depression.

We see in some quarters a disposition to believe that, as the ten years which usually intervene between English panics is now at an end, we are about to witness a crisis like that which followed on the failure of Overend, Gurney & Co. on the 11th of May, 1866. But nobody who has given much attention to the conditions of panics can well entertain any such notion. To make a panic, traders have to be engaged in heavy and widespread operations which they are carrying on on credit, and the completion or continuance of which is suddenly checked either by a war, a famine, or some disaster in the commercial world which causes a quick loss of confidence. Speculators have, in short, to be taken *en flagrant délit*. This is what happened in 1847, in 1857, and in 1866; but this is what cannot happen now. Credit has not been suddenly overthrown in England; it has for four years been slowly declining, under a series of slight shocks, none of which was severe enough to cause absolute terror, but each of which was sufficient to inspire caution and cause weak men to abandon their ventures. The result has been that for the past year money, instead of being in eager demand—as is always the case just before a great collapse—has been a drug in all the great markets. On the 9th of May, 1866, the Bank of England rate of discount was nine per cent. This year, on the same day, it was two per cent., and we believe few persons could be found to borrow it at that. On that day in 1866 the coin and bullion in the Bank amounted to £13,156,140; this year it amounted to £26,327,853. In 1866 consols were selling at 85½—a sure sign that the need of money was desperate; this year they are selling at 96⅝. In fact, the state of things in England, as well as here, has, as far as the money market is concerned, all the marks of the post-panic period, and none, or next to none—except a readiness to sell some securities low—of the ante-panic period. There is the languor, the depression, the distrust, the unwillingness to borrow money or contract new obligations of any kind, the joy at not owing anything, the lofty indignation about extravagance and luxury, and the longing for a simple and frugal life, which almost always take possession of people in the interval between a collapse of credit and the revival of industry.

If we were asked what is the principal peculiarity of the financial depression by which England as well as other countries is just now afflicted that distinguishes it from similar states through which they have passed already, we should say that the seat of the prevailing distrust and distress was now to be found rather in the investing than in the trading class; that is to say, the large body of persons who are not engaged in buying and selling, but who are trying to increase their incomes by lending their money at a good rate of interest, are just now frightened as they have never been before. The bankruptcy of "sovereign states" is a new experience to them, and so is the complicity of ambassadors in frauds—such as has been brought home to General Schenck and to Señor Gutierrez, and will probably be brought home before long to General Schenck's "much-esteemed friend," the Duke de Saldanha. The investments of this class in foreign securities have enormously increased during the last ten years, under the influence of improvement in means of communication and of increased knowledge of foreign countries, and of the increased use of banks of deposit. The great state loans, and the guaranteed bonds, and so forth were never held as widely and by so many small holders as they are now, and to frighten them seriously checks consumption and causes a withdrawal of active capital to a degree which financiers even twenty years ago could hardly have dreamed. The situation also suggests an interesting question, which it is impossible to discuss fully at the close of an article, and that is, whether the prodigious addition made by steam and machinery to the productive power of the race has not caused production in large classes of commodities, at all events, to run ahead of the tastes and habits of the masses of the people in every country. In England, for instance, it is well ascertained that the most marked effect of an increase of wages is, in the existing state of popular culture, not to cause an increased demand for shirts, and broadcloth, and furniture, and books, but for strong drink; and one cannot help asking what would be the use of being able to provide seven shirts for the present price of one, as long as a shirt a week was as much as the average man cared to wear, or three loaves for the present cost of one, if he preferred one loaf and gin? It is very possible that this points to one cause of the existing check on production.

MR. T. W. PARK'S CASE.

THE report of the House Foreign Affairs Committee on Gen. Schenck's connection with the Emma Mine is so thorough and overwhelming an exposure that little can be added to it by further analysis or discussion, ex-

cept, possibly, a doubt whether so old a poker-player can really be of so confiding a disposition as not to have guessed the cause of Park's affection for him; but there is another branch of the subject, not actually referred to the Committee for investigation, which is of sufficient public interest to justify an examination of the evidence taken by them. We refer to the part taken in the sale and development of the Emma Mine by Mr. T. W. Park. Mr. Park, though a few years ago an obscure man, is now as great a public character as General Schenck himself. He is not merely the possessor of steamships and railroads in both low and high latitudes, but he is the possessor of a character so valuable that even in these days of commercial depression he values it at a quarter of a million, and a person so precious that in some quarters of the globe he could not show himself in the streets without rendering himself liable to legal capture by his old friends and associates. Wherever the English language is spoken, the name of Park is known. But, as with many other great men, his reputation has outrun the knowledge of the facts on which it is based. This is particularly the case with regard to the Emma Mine. We shall, therefore, endeavor to lay before our readers a brief summary of the evidence taken, doing this, as far as is possible, in the spirit not merely of impartiality but of decorous sobriety, though we must confess at the outset that some of the passages in the history of Park's connection with the mine are such as to make this task difficult.

Park and Baxter bought the mine—or, rather, began to buy the mine, for the purchase was protracted—in April, 1871, and the first question which the evidence taken by the Committee opens is, what did they pay for it, and what was the actual value of the mine at the time? Fortunately, on these points the evidence taken by the Committee is very clear. The testimony of Lyon, who claimed at the time of the sale a third interest in the property; of Stewart, his attorney; of Park himself; and of all the experts who have examined the mine (with the exception of Professor Silliman), points to the conclusion that the mine was actually worth not more than $1,500,000. This was the price at which Mr. Irwin Davis offered the mine to Park in March, 1871. This was the price, too, at which Lyon estimated the mine, as appears from the fact that he agreed to part with his third interest for the sum of $500,000. In April, Park purchased half the mine for $375,000, and in July again a further interest, at the rate of $1,500,000 for the whole mine. Park's purchase included all the ore taken out and all the plant. As corroborative evidence, the value of the ore taken out while Park owned the mine, between the time of the purchase and the sale in London, was $895,000, as given by himself, and a considerable amount of ore had been taken out before Park's purchase. On August 5, 1871, Stewart, then Lyon's attorney, wrote to Lyon advising him to agree to the surrender of his third interest for $500,000, on the ground that he would not then be "fighting for a worked-out mine"—an expression which is easily understood if the mine was worth $1,500,000, while the ore (as was in fact the case, according to Park's own testimony) was being extracted as fast as possible. The dividends actually paid to the English stockholders point in the same direction. They were in round numbers $1,000,000, and after they had been paid the mine gave out.

The evidence of all the disinterested experts goes to show that the mine is now exhausted, and was worth in 1871 exactly what Park paid for it. Mr. R. W. Raymond, who saw the mine in July, 1871, estimated its value (without taking the ore already extracted into account) at $1,000,000; and Mr. Clarence King, who examined the mine two years later, after the dividends had ceased, reported 300 or 350 tons at the outside (worth at the outside $50,000) as all "that is left of the famous Emma reserves." The opinion of Mr. W. P. Blake, another mining expert, as given by the prospectus of the Company, was that the mine compared with "the most brilliant and magnificent developments in the silver regions of Mexico and South America"; but as it appeared in a private letter written to Park and Baxter at the same time, July 27, 1871, it was, that "at the present rate of extraction the mine will soon be stripped, and for the present practically exhausted, at least for some time or until another body of ore can be found." This is all the positive disinterested evidence that we have as to the value of the mine; and we are now in a position to form an opinion of the character of Professor Silliman's report, made in 1871, on which the prospectus was based and the sale effected, and his supplementary report in 1872. According to the first, the property acquired by the Company included, in cash and ore on hand, £180,300 (which, at the rate of 18 per cent a year on £1,000,000, would have given exactly one year's dividends). Dividends were paid for thirteen months, so that, without taking into account other expenses, this money is accounted for. But Professor Silliman's first report also showed, as it was given in the prospectus, 13,250 tons of "first-class ore," and in April, 1872, he reported 8,000 additional tons discovered. This made in all more than 21,000 tons which have absolutely disappeared, and no trace of which any scientific or disinterested expert except Mr. Silliman has ever been able since to find. At $150 a ton (the rate usually referred to as probable), they would have been worth $3,150,000. These so-called "reserves," after a temporary obscuration, reappear in Mr. Clarence King's report as 350 tons.

All this evidence seems to show that Park, who is himself familiar with mining properties, must have known at the time of the sale in London what was the value of the mine, and that it was, with Lyon's share and expenses taken out, worth about $1,000,000, or, in round numbers, precisely the amount which he got out of the mine and paid in dividends to the shareholders.

We now pass to the sale in London. Park, in the course of his evidence, gave the following description of the transaction: "There never was a fairer contract for the sale of a farm or a horse, or anything else between two gentlemen, than the sale of that mine; and it was made solely on the report of Professor Silliman, who had a high reputation in England as well as here, and on facts that were known in England as well as here, on information that they had later than I had; and I believe to-day," summing up in a sentence, "that the mine was worth all it was sold for." This report of Professor Silliman's, he elsewhere repeatedly declares, was made not to himself as vendor, but to the purchasers of the mine, represented by Messrs. Coates & Hankey. We have just seen what reason Park had for believing that the mine was worth $5,000,000; how much truth there is in the rest of the statement may be inferred from the following facts:

In the first place, instead of Mr. Silliman's being the only name mentioned in the Company's prospectus as having knowledge of the mine, we find Mr. T. W. Park referred to as having consented to become one of the directors to afford the Company the benefit of his "large experience in mining generally, but especially with the working of this mine"; besides which, it appears from his own testimony that he made a thorough examination of the mine before he sold it, gave to Coates & Hankey a statement of the property before Silliman's report arrived, and considered this statement so far binding upon him that he made good with his own check a misstatement in it with regard to the extent of ore on hand. Park's statement that the mine was sold on Silliman's report is not true, and his assertion that the report was made to the purchasers is open to the serious objection that Silliman was paid for it by the vendors, that his payment was so arranged as to be a strong temptation to a favorable report, and, finally, that there were no purchasers or "vendees" in existence at the time of the report. The history of Mr. Silliman's employment was this: Park telegraphed to his partner, General Baxter, to employ him; General Baxter got one James H. Selover to attend to the details; and Selover took the Professor to Utah. Silliman was paid $5,000 down, and was promised a further indefinite sum, contingent upon the value of his services—not to the vendees, but to the vendors. He examined not merely the Emma but other mines, which work, Selover says, was done for himself, and finally Selover received $50,000 from Park and Baxter, and gave Silliman $20,000, making the latter's receipts $25,000 in all. Why Selover should have been paid any money at all, or why Silliman should have received $20,000 from Park and Baxter for examining Selover's mines, are questions on which we can throw no light; but the facts which we have given make it sufficiently clear that Silliman's report was made to and paid for by the vendors. The negotiations with Coates & Hankey fell through, and Park then was brought into communication with Albert Grant, who undertook to put the mine on the market for $500,000. Professor Silliman's report was no doubt perfectly satisfactory to Albert Grant, but Grant was not in any sense of the word a purchaser of the mine. He was really employed by Park to induce the public to take shares at a fictitious value; and to get him to do it, Park paid him half the actual value of the property. Ostensibly, therefore, Grant was a purchaser, and ostensibly Silliman was the employé of the purchasers. Really, Grant, Park, and Silliman were all agents in the sale, and this fact was concealed from the public, who were the real purchasers.

The contract between Park and Stewart as vendors and Grant & Co., dated November 2, 1871, makes this clear. According to this agreement, the mine was sold to "a joint-stock company" not in existence, but "to be formed by Messrs. Grant & Company for the purchase of the property," and for this sale at $5,000,000 Grant was to receive 20 per cent. of the capital, half the purchase-money was to be liquidated by the retention in the vendors' hands of half the capital stock (25,000 shares), and these shares, as well as all of the other 25,000 shares which should not be

taken by the public, were to be locked up in the hands of Mr. J. H. Puleston, of the firm of Jay Cooke, McCulloch & Co., for six months. During these six months Grant was to have the right to take any of the 25,000 shares not taken by the public at a discount of 20 per cent. from their par value, while the vendors were to have the right, if Grant did not do this, to take up these shares themselves on paying Grant 20 per cent. Grant also had the right to take further shares (out of those retained by the vendors) to the extent of $1,250,000 at par, and in this case he was to receive one-half the net profits on the sale of the shares. Besides this, among Grant's services, that of "sustaining the market" by the purchase of shares is mentioned, while the vendors were to have "one-sixth of the net profits realized by Messrs. Grant & Company." In this contract no vendees appear at all except a future non-existent company, while Grant was plainly the agent or partner of Park and Stewart in making the sale. That this was the view taken by Grant of the transaction is evident from the fact that after the mine was floated Grant never took any interest in the affairs of the vendees, and never, according to his own account, went to any meetings of the directors but once, when he went out of curiosity. This was not the conduct of a vendee, and, as we say, there were at the time of the agreement, and of Mr. Silliman's report, no vendees in existence.

The statement that the sale was made "on facts that were known in England as well as here" is therefore false. The public, as we have pointed out, were the real vendees, and there were many facts which were not merely unknown to them but were carefully concealed from them. The first fact concealed from them was that there were 25,000 shares locked up with the vendors—the prospectus was issued on the 13th of November, and omitted to mention this. In the second place, the name of Grant was kept back, and the bargain with him concealed—in the prospectus two firms of brokers are mentioned, one of them being Coates & Hankey, who had brought Grant into their plans, and yet nothing is said of Grant at all. But this is only a small part of the concealment. The prospectus contained the names of five English and four American directors. Of these latter three were vendors, the fourth was General Schenck, who, by a recent contract with Park, highly unprofitable to the Company, had sold his name to the concern, and of the remaining five all but one had received qualifying shares as a gift from Grant. The trustees for the shareholders were the chairman of the Company, General Schenck, and Mr. J. H. Puleston. General Schenck had sold his name to Park. Puleston received of Park and Grant $100,000. Lewis & Son, metal brokers, who sold the ore in the London market, received from Park $25,000 in paid-up shares. Messrs. Coates & Hankey, for no services (except refusing to take the mine), $50,000, and the accountants, solicitors, and brokers $20,000 more. In fact, if the stockholders had wanted at any time to get any information about the mine from sources independent of Park they could not have done it, for the agents, trustees, and servants of the vendees were all, directly or indirectly, in the pay of Park himself, the vendor.

With regard to the yield of the mine, Park is still more directly responsible for any misrepresentations that were made. According to his own evidence, on the purchase of the mine he gave orders that extraordinary efforts should be made to make the mine produce as large an amount of ore as possible. When pressed for an explanation of these orders, he told the Committee that he had at the time a favorable contract with the Union Pacific Railroad and wished to take advantage of it. But his partner Stewart, in the confidential letter to Lyon already quoted, gives a very different reason. He says: "They have worked the mine up to 80 in England by the ore they have sent, and the manner of sending it, so that I have no doubt of a sale from five to eight millions. . . . The Emma party have been working all the time to put up the reputation of the mine." It was also testified by Park that one reason why he was able to purchase half the mine for $375,000 was that he made the owners believe that by a high sale in England he would make their remaining interest very valuable. It seems evident from this that the reason why Park extracted as much ore as possible between May and September, 1871, was that he wanted to make the sale easier. Turning now to his representations on the subject, we find in his statement to Coates & Hankey the following item: "Profit on 5,636 tons produced by present owners (who purchased April 25, 1871) up to September 1, 1871, £158,268," or at the rate of £450,200 per annum. In the prospectus, however, the figures are altered. "Net amount produced: Total estimated net yield of mine from 1st May to 1st September, equal to four months' working, £231,058, or at the rate of nearly £700,000 per annum." It is unnecessary to say that the mine never produced anything like this before or since. Park admits this. The statement of the "rate" of production was, therefore, a complete misrepresentation.

Knowing now all these facts, which were carefully concealed from or misrepresented to the real vendees—*i.e.*, the purchasing public—at the time, we are prepared to put ourselves in their position, and ask this question: If in 1871 they had known all the facts with regard to the price given for the mine in America; had seen Stewart's letter to Lyon; had read the contract for the release of Lyon's third interest; had known the exact nature of the arrangement with Silliman; had seen the contract with Grant and Company; had known that the man who floated the mine, the expert who reported on it, the brokers who were most concerned in the sale, and, finally, a majority of the directors, were all in the pay of Park who sold it to them, what would they have given for the mine? The answer we take to be this—exactly what Park had given for it. The value of the knowledge which Park concealed and the misrepresentations he made, made just the difference between the price of the mine in London and the price of it in Utah.

The facts with regard to Park's dealing with Silliman cannot be properly understood without reference to his dealings with other "experts." Towards the spring of 1872 doubts began to be thrown upon the value of the property, and the shares to have a tendency to decline. Park accordingly determined to get another report, and joined to Silliman Mr. Brydges-Willyams. We have already seen what ties bound Mr. Silliman and Mr. Park together, and now we find that Mr. Willyams was enlisted in the same way. He was paid £5,000 for his report, and given in addition a "call" on 2,000 shares at par—*i.e.*, he was to have the right to demand the transfer of that number of shares to him at par, no matter what the price in the market might be. He had only to make a favorable report to make his remuneration for it what he pleased. The report sent by these two experts actually put the shares up from par or 20 (the quotation of March 16) to 31 on April 20.

Mr. Willyams, desiring society, determined to take with him another expert, and so he went to Park and asked to be allowed to make use of the services of Mr. Lawrence, whose qualifications as a mining expert consisted in his having written 'Guy Livingstone,' and for this valuable assistance Mr. Willyams said he would himself pay "if the report was favorable, because he could make it out of the mine." Mr. Lawrence accordingly went, and from the testimony of Mr. Selover it may be learnt what he did when he reached Utah. Mr. Selover, being asked by one of the Committee whether he (Selover) had anything to do with the preparation of Willyams's report at that time, replied: "No, sir, not the slightest. Mr. Lawrence and I were engaged playing cards most of the time while Mr. Willyams was examining the mine."

Park has declined to produce his accounts, so that, in estimating the chances of the swindled shareholders recovering from him, we have not the advantage of knowing what his profits were. Neither have we availed ourselves in this summary of the very important evidence of Lyon, who swears positively that Park and Stewart admitted to him on repeated occasions that the whole sale was a swindle, and who has, at every important collateral point, been corroborated in his statements by other witnesses. We have preferred to give only undisputed evidence. On this the Committee appear to incline to the opinion that Park cannot be made to disgorge his plunder. But we doubt if most lawyers familiar with the law of corporations and trusts will agree with them. We doubt very much whether any court of equity would hesitate an instant over the questions presented by these facts. Fortunately for Mr. Park, criminal breaches of trust in this country, though they may be the foundation for civil suits, are not punishable by fine and imprisonment.

THE INTERNATIONAL EXHIBITION.—II.

BRITISH PAINTINGS.

PHILADELPHIA, May 29.

GREAT BRITAIN has sent the most adequate and the best arranged and catalogued of the foreign exhibits. The admirable order of the hanging, the importance of the specimens, and the easy reference, added to the rarity of British pictures in America, make this department the most really interesting, as it is so far the most popular, in the whole display. There are over two hundred and fifty works exhibited in oil and water-color, and the selection is a real effort to show British art to America in a national, and not a commercial, spirit. It is probable that this strong patriotic movement, resulting in an impressive demonstration, and foiled by the mean and shoppy look of several of the Continental exhibits, will open a market for British art in this country, now practically closed to the dear and peculiar-looking products of the English school. The loan of ancient pictures illustrating the rise of English painting at a date little if any earlier than that of our own, and developing parallel with ours for a considerable

period under artists borrowed, like Copley or West, from the American colonies, engages our sympathy at once. The pictures spared from the historical period of British art are works of consequence, and it is impossible not to feel the generosity of the contribution. Nothing could possibly replace the superb portrait of himself by Reynolds, if an accident were to happen it in this country or on the sea; it is large, grand, imposing, a lesson in portraiture; the Royal Academy is poorer while it is away, and could not by any means be consoled for its destruction. Equally irreplaceable is Gainsborough's fine three-quarters portrait of the Duchess of Richmond, lent from the collection of Baron Lionel Rothschild: a noble pose, the grand air of a more mannered society than ours, rich and varied colors slightly gilded with the modifying action of time, and the naïve lassitude of a brush more engaged with impression and type than with draughtsmanship, render this work a fairly delicious revelation of past tastes and modes, while its superb state makes it startlingly real to the eye, like a social resurrection.

The specimens of Constable and Turner are, unfortunately, diploma pictures, and not quite representative. Neither is large; that of Turner, "Dolbadden Castle in North Wales," is conscientious, labored, and without grace or inspiration—a scene owing more of its pensive charm to the shadowing Rembrandtism of time than to the painter's development in poetry at the period when it was wrought. The Constable, also small, and representing a "Lock" in the artist's native Suffolk, is a fair example, but not important enough to construct a reputation upon; it simply represents the landscapist's love of constantly-soaked leafage, heavy with superabundant sap, dark with too much chlorophyl, and varnished with rain, and the tumbling of clouds over one another in a health-giving atmosphere. Wilson is represented only by a portrait. West, who is exhibited—like Boughton—both as an English and an American painter, shines by the innovation he made in painting modern clothes in an historical picture—"The Death of Wolfe"—here present, and wearisome enough now that the innovation it created has become an expected custom. Then there is Barry, whose "Adam and Eve" appears a little better than anything we know of West's; Fuseli, with a "Thor" so deadly brown as to confirm the legend that he painted with his own snuff; nothing of Haydon's; Zoffany's spirited and neat group of Academicians posing a model; and an Etty, naked, raw, and beefy, showing how easy it is for a painter with an unchastened addiction to colors to get a literary reputation as colorist. These examples, spared from the Academy or from the Royal collection, show the brush writing its own history in rubric, and replace with great vividness the best possible descriptions in Walpole or Cunningham. They are often early pictures, the beginning of a style; but it is impossible to deny that they are characteristic, and the favor of seeing them is so gratuitous that it is impossible to be otherwise than grateful. They form a little National Gallery on the shores of America which partly takes away the necessity of travel. The record starts from the end of the eighteenth century, when the condition of art throughout Europe was miserably low, and when the portraiture of Reynolds and Gainsborough was about the best thing going; and the rise of Constable and Turner soon afterwards came to turn a jet of genuine romance and nature-study into the epic landscape of Claude and Poussin. The privilege of referring to the embodied illustrations of this history is a very real one, and the true way to meet the action of the British Commission is not to complain of the want of a Hogarth or the inadequacy of a Turner, but to bless our stars that anything at all of the national treasure has been spared, and to set the palette of our mind forthwith with the colors of Gainsborough and Etty for comparison with those of our own Stuart and Allston.

The exhibit of pictures early in our own generation, apart from Pre-Raphaelite examples, is discouraging indeed. Nothing can strike a falser note than Maclise's elaborate machines, with their strained drama, their unpronounceable horrors in color, their contented opacity and obtuseness of shadow. "Macbeth's Banquet" is illustrated by this trivial anecdotist with the confidence, the swing of an inferior ballad. What the tormenting seesaw of a good loud Macaulay ballad or a vociferous Whittier anti-slavery ballad is to the mystery of a night-scene in "Macbeth," so is Maclise's tableau group to an interpretation by a real painter. The Scottish lords are dressed and varied with the proud, exhibitor's air of a costumer or a Madame Tussaud. A trivial effect of magic-lantern shadow stands for the dead Banquo; Lady Macbeth is a Mrs. Crummles; Macbeth himself is conceived with desperate ingenuity, but altogether in the lay-figure style; a flood of spilt wine in the foreground challenges with its study of still-life the admiration surfeited with mechanical inventiveness in the human figures; and a black system of color that time is turning to plumbago, and not to gold, completes the suffocating effect of the whole picture upon the eye. The figure of the "Wood Ranger," Maclise's diploma canvas as Academician, disarms criticism by its youthfulness and braggadocio innocence. It shows a portentously strong fellow, built as no human being ever was built, with oval bulges to his calves, a slim waist, an attitude of high-strung alertness, and a rustic mirthfulness learnt by rote. The complete, deep-seated unreality of these and all other Maclises gives one a pitying feeling for the nation whose historical painting he long represented almost alone. An art-civilization that is chromo-civilization, and looks at itself with delight for a quarter of a century, is in the most urgent need of Perugino and a muse with "Anglo-Saxon attitudes." A similar sort of commiseration overtakes him who glances at the dreadful work that Mr. Frith has made of the "Prince of Wales's Marriage." Here, among scores of portraits, there is not a countenance that represents in the most distant degree the color of flesh, and the faces in the extreme distance, though made smaller to represent the perspective, are in exactly the same focus as the nearer ones, and shine upon the eye with the same horrible, horny distinctness; meantime the Queen, halfway up the wall of Saint George's Chapel, clings to the architecture like a swallow, with a face and figure more determinedly focussed in the centre of vision than any of the others. His "Railway Station" is an instructive thing to see, after the engraver's proofs that stare at one from every print-seller's window. The burin has been its success; it is fair, good, *bourgeois*, modern Hogarth; but Hogarth divested of every painting quality. The artist of "Marriage à la Mode" and the "March to Finchley" was a Venetian, a Titian, a Rubens, compared with this chalked and floured apparition of him. The cheap superficiality of works like these, and like some others that abound in the exhibition, explains as we never had it explained before the reaction into mysticism and realism that came up in the movement of '49.

E. S.

THE LAST OF THE ROYAL TITLES ACT.

London, May 13, 1876.

WE have come at last, I hope, to the end of the discussion as to whether or not the Queen of England is to be henceforth an Empress; and now that we have decided the question in the affirmative, and that the whole thing is finished, it may not be uninteresting to go over the proceedings and state the result of the turmoil. The discussions have cleared up some points which were obscure. We know more about the origin and reasons for the change in the royal style and titles than we did, but we cannot feel assured that we have got to the bottom of the whole matter. I do not suppose that the present generation ever will know the whole truth. A Stockmar, or a Greville, or a Pepys may be about the court, and may be in the seats of the highest functionaries, and when his correspondence or his private journals come to be made public property, after the fashion of the times, our sons and grandsons may learn the "great reasons of high policy" which made this unfortunate move necessary, and of which we have heard so much and seen so little. As things are, we can only reason in the dark from such undoubted facts as are matters of history, and from the statements of the Prime Minister, which, for the sake of argument, we must make believe are facts. Taking, therefore, the facts of history and the Prime Minister's facts, what do we find? It is clear that after the Indian mutiny, when the Indian dependencies were transferred from the old trading company to the Crown, the question was mooted as to whether any, and if so what, addition should be made to the royal style as a recognition of the transfer. It is equally clear that it was deemed inopportune to make any addition at that time, but the question was kept open, and it was not unreasonable that advantage should be taken of the first fitting occasion to make the addition. Nothing special has occurred with regard to India since 1857 until now, when a great piece of work has been made about the Prince of Wales's visit to the East. The return, therefore, of the Prince has been deemed a fitting occasion for opening the question and settling it. Most people are of opinion that there is no harm in this. Something was wanted to weld the Indian dependencies into one Government, under one formal, recognized head; an opportunity presented itself for carrying out the process of welding, and that opportunity was seized. So far, there is no complaint. If the Queen of Great Britain and Ireland had been made Queen of the British Isles and India, and if the matter had been proceeded with in an ordinary way, we should have been spared all the trouble and irritation and humiliation of the last three months. What the ordinary way was can easily be shown. During the present reign there have been three precedents of the ordinary and two of the extraordinary way of handling questions affecting the Crown. The three first have either succeeded or have been dropped without controversy, and the two last have failed. The three first precedents were the questions of the Regency in 1840 before the birth of the Princess Royal, the question of the assumption

of the title of King Consort by Prince Albert in 1841, and the assumption of the title of Prince Consort in 1857. On all these occasions the leaders of the Opposition were taken into the confidence of the Ministry. On two of them the desired result was attained without one unpleasant word. On the third the proposal was not approved. It was never mooted in public, and no one, except those who had been consulted confidentially, knew anything about it for more than thirty years. The two last precedents were the questions of Prince Albert's annuity and his precedency in 1840. There was no communication on either of these occasions between the heads of the two parties, and the result was a Ministerial defeat on both occasions. In the first the annuity was reduced from £50,000 a year to £30,000 a year; in the second, the principal clause in the Government Bill—that, namely, which dealt with the precedency—was thrown out.

Mr. Disraeli having these apt precedents before him would, if he had been a wise man, have followed them, and taken the leaders of the Opposition into his councils. There is nothing in his relations with the present leaders to prevent his meeting with them on a matter of business. Lord Granville and Lord Huntington might, perhaps, not be especially desirous of encouraging a social intimacy with Mr. Disraeli, but no one can doubt that they would receive any overtures from him in his public capacity with frankness. His position as the recognized political leader of the Tory aristocracy would be a sufficient warrant to enable them to enter on business relations with him. He must have known this well enough, and therefore the cause of his reluctance to consult them must be looked for elsewhere. If he had sought for nothing but to further the best interests of the country and the crown, he would undoubtedly have communicated his intentions to Lord Granville and asked him his opinion. What that opinion would have been is plain so that he who runs may read. Lord Granville would have approved the proposal to add India to the royal style or title, but he would have disapproved the suggested addition of Empress. This would not have suited Mr. Disraeli. In one of his early novels, 'Tancred,' he had, through the lips of the Emir Fakredeen, started the theory that England was exhausted, and that the only chance for future greatness was the erection of a real Indian Empire, under a real Empress of India, with Delhi instead of London for the capital. "We will acknowledge the Empress of India as our suzerain," says the Emir ". . . Your Queen is young; she has an *avenir*. Aberdeen and Sir Peel will never give her this advice; their habits are formed—they are too old, too *rusés*. But you see! the greatest Empire that ever existed: besides which, she gets rid of the embarrassment of her Chambers! and quite practicable; for the only difficult part, the conquest of India, which baffled Alexander, is all done." In these sentences, it is not unfair to conjecture, is the true key to their author's reluctance to follow the ordinary course in this matter, and to the consequent embarrassment of the Chambers which we have been contemplating for the last three months. Mr. Disraeli knew the English character well enough to be aware that he was embarking on a perilous voyage when he determined to convert his fiction into fact and give the Queen a title which the public could not esteem, and to which they would be certain to attach not respect but ridicule. He knew that if he took the leaders of the Opposition into his councils his conceit would come to naught, whereas, if he got the measure fairly launched, and the Tory party committed to it blindly, he was safe to see his dream of creating an Empress of India realized in fact. He was not "old" or "*rusé*," like Sir Peel or Aberdeen. He would "give her this advice," and by the help of his mechanical majority of unreflecting Tories he would carry it out successfully—or at least the portion that was dearest to him, the splendor of the title Empress of India. He was too wary to let the whole cat out of the bag at once. It would have terrified his supporters, and therefore he brought it out piecemeal. There was first the visit of the Prince to India, and the moderate proposal of the Ministry to limit his expenditure to £60,000. Then came the suitableness of this occasion for recognizing the dependencies, then the announcement in the Queen's Speech of a contemplated addition to the style and title. What that addition was to be was too high and holy a conception for him; it was matter of prerogative. But when the Tory party were educated to the point of agreeing to the principle of the Bill, out jumped the whole brindled animal with a rush. "The title will run thus: Victoria, by the Grace of God Queen of Great Britain and Ireland, Defender of the Faith, and Empress of India." But the announcement was soon found to be precipitate. The country was aroused, and some even of the most docile followers of the Tory party were alarmed; and so the cat was partly put back into the bag. The title was to be localized in India, kept for external application only, and never to be assumed by any of the royal children.

On this distinct understanding, given by the Prime Minister and also by the Lord Chancellor, on whose word we have been more accustomed to rely, the bill was allowed to become law, and the proclamation following on the Act was framed, and has been issued. The Queen, too, has been proclaimed "Indiæ Imperatrix" with all the formalities of mediæval times, and we have now got time to study the proclamation, and see what has become of the distinct understanding of localizing the title. The understanding has turned out to be what many thought it would be—not worth the paper on which it was printed in the *Times'* Parliamentary report. It has been torn to pieces and thrown to the winds. It does, indeed, localize something; it localizes the title of Queen to the locality of the British Isles, and universalizes (to borrow a new word from Sir William Harcourt's vocabulary) the title of Empress to the rest of the Eastern and Western hemispheres. The whole cat is out of its bag now, and never will be put back again. Emir Fakredeen has had his way, and taken one decisive step towards the realization of his visionary projects, and the country is powerless to move hand or foot against these innovations. Protests against this breach of faith—or breach of contract, as it has more delicately been designated—have been made both in the House of Lords and in the House of Commons. In the House of Lords, the motion was not pushed to a division. In the House of Commons, a division was taken yesterday morning, after a lifeless discussion of nine hours and a half, and the hapless Opposition was beaten by the largest majority ever ranged against them. The argument was all one way, and entirely in favor of the Opposition, but the voting was all the other way. The Ministry did not attempt a serious answer. They were not to be bound by words or understandings. They never intended anything different from what they did, and by their intentions, not their acts, they were to be judged. The House got into a listless state, from which nothing but personalities could rouse it. Well-reasoned speeches against the Ministry received no attention, as the division was a foregone conclusion. But the heavy Dundrearyisms of Sir Robert Peel—a very different stamp of politician from his father, the great Sir Robert Peel—and the snarling malignity of Dr. Kenealy were cheered to the echo by the united lung-power of 334 of the Tory representatives of England.

This, then, is the final tableau in the drama of the Royal Titles Act, and a most appropriate conclusion it is. The curtain falls upon the new Imperialist party, who used to be the old aristocratic party in the country, carrying Mr. Disraeli in triumph on their shoulders and welcoming Dr. Kenealy to their bosom! I said some weeks ago that the Prime Minister had degraded the Tory aristocracy and was now trying to degrade the Crown. But I hardly thought it could have come so soon to this. There are not wanting indications that the democratic party in the state has not been slow to see the advantage which this false move has given them. I told you how petitions were being extensively signed by the republicans in London directed against the throne. Mr. Arch, the champion of the distressed agriculturists, has been explaining to eager audiences that if our Prime Minister, by a stroke of his pen, can make an Empress, another can make a President; and men of position and education in my own hearing have given expression to opinions antagonistic to the throne and the principle of monarchy with a frankness and openness that would have been almost inconceivable six months ago. Many thoughtful people, content to acquiesce in existing arrangements as inevitable and as working pretty well upon the whole, have been brought face to face with the question of the throne and the utility of such a form of government at the present day, and perhaps for the first time in their lives they have considered it in the concrete. It is perilous to apply the utilitarian argument to what, disguise it as you will, is in reality a sham—an important and a useful sham, and one that, on the whole, we are for the time better with than without, but one that is not indispensable to the well-being of a great modern nation. Reflections of this sort constitute all the good or bad which the nation has gathered from the addition to the royal style and title. The Liberal party have gained nothing but numerical defeats and moral victories; the Tory party, numerical victories and the adhesion of Dr. Kenealy; and Mr. Disraeli, the gratification of making history out of his own burlesques.

Correspondence.

THE LAND-GRANTS OF THE PACIFIC RAILROADS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The proposition, embodied in a bill introduced in Congress recently by Senator Edmunds, for the United States to receive back the land-grant of the Central Pacific Railroad at $2 50 an acre, is a step long

since foreseen by those observing the relations of that company to the Government, and knowing the character of its lands, as the policy of all the Pacific land-grant roads. The lack of comment upon this proposition augurs its possible success. Already has the public press been summoned in its aid, and the literary campaign commenced with the view, by the use of magazine sophistry, to prepare the public mind for this barefaced scheme —a plan for a time so successfully practised by the editorial department of the Northern Pacific. The *International Review* for May leads off in an article entitled "The United States Land-Grant Policy," by R. T. Colburn, which has only to be carefully read to have its inspiration and purpose at once understood. Without attempting any general review of the article, I will merely give a few extracts, italicizing those parts which are the most flagrant in deception and the fullest of untruth.

Of the Northern Pacific grant the writer says: "This was an empire in extent, and if this naked land, *good land for the most part*, could have been held till the road was built, it would have enriched the possessors beyond the dreams of avarice." As to the quality of this land, nothing could be more untrue. A gentleman who has recently seen much of it writes me: "Having a deep pecuniary interest in the matter, I visited, with a friend, the whole country along the line of the road [Northern Pacific] to its terminus on the Missouri River. Knowing what I do of the country, its soil, lack of water and timber, its long and severe winters, with the resulting shortness of summer, I can conscientiously say, and have said to a great number of interested people, that no sane man could or would settle in that country after seeing it." The fact is, there is not a farm, excepting the few experimental ones about Bismarck, between the Red River Valley and the Rocky Mountains.

The *Review* article further says:

"If the Government were to invite proposals for the surrender of unsold lands, of which the title has been earned by the construction of the roads, at rates not exceeding the minimum now established by law, $2 50 an acre, and at commuted rates for grants wherever the roads have not been constructed, we have no doubt but a hundred million acres of land could be regained for a hundred million dollars. This would be a good stroke of business for the Government, inasmuch as these same lands *will, within fifty years, be sold for at least two hundred and fifty million dollars.* . . . At any rate, whether it would be wise to take back all the lands that may be offered at low rates, and issue bonds for them, and hold them as an inheritance on like terms for future settlers, *there can be no question about the wisdom* of applying the lands of the companies, which are already indebted to the Government, to the extinction of their debts." "It is not improbable that in many cases where the lands have been mortgaged for a dollar or two an acre, or less, the land could be had by paying off the mortgage claims upon it."

Words are inadequate to express the true character of the deception the foregoing extracts have a tendency to convey, and it would be unfair to regard them as written in ignorance. These lands are not suitable for settlement in the American sense, nor suitable for the payment of any just debt. To permit the scheme to pass would be, in effect, to give without recompense a clear title of these roads to the companies after building them, and cancelling all claims the Government may have upon the companies, presuming the lands ample at $2 50 an acre for this purpose; for I am positive in the assertion that as a basis for honest credit, ninety-nine-hundredths of the land-grants of all the Pacific Roads between the 100° meridian and the Sierra Nevada Mountains have no available value, and that neither the United States nor any private party could in fifty years sell them honestly for ten cents an acre, which would not pay ten per cent. of the cost of surveying. I make this assertion knowing fully its purport, after years of observation of the country and conscientiously studying the whole subject, and after fully recognizing the great aggregate value of the grazing and mining interests of the West, and the occasional facilities for profitable agriculture by the aid of irrigation.

There can be little doubt, nor has there been from the first, to those who cared to investigate the matter, that the Government will, in a commercial sense, be a loser to the entire amount of the aid it has rendered or may in future render the Pacific Roads, both principal and interest (the first mortgagees eventually possessing the roads), except for services rendered, every cent of which ought to pass to its credit. There seems no good reason for giving up this also, which would be practically done by receiving back those worthless lands at $2 50 per acre. The painful result of the ignorant and dishonest representations about the Black Hills, including an Indian war upon our hands, adds another reason for more accurate and general information respecting this great region of country.

W. B. Hazen.

Cincinnati, May 17, 1876.

Notes.

Robert Carter & Bro. have nearly ready 'Forty Years' Mission Work in New Guinea and Polynesia,' by the Rev. A. W. Murray.——'Men and Manners One Hundred Years Ago,' edited by Horace E. Scudder for the Sans-Souci Series; and 'The Fall of the Stuarts, and Western Europe from 1678–1697,' by the Rev. E. Hale (Epoch Series), are announced by Scribner, Armstrong & Co.——Harper & Bros. publish immediately a work on 'Early Man in Europe,' by Dr. Charles Rau; Dr. Draper's 'Intellectual Development of Europe,' in two volumes; and Gladstone's 'Homeric Synchronisms.'——J. B. Lippincott & Co. announce Mrs. Lynn Linton's 'Atonement of Leam Dundas,' which has been running through their magazine.——A special American library journal is shortly to be issued from the office of the *Publishers' Weekly;* and we learn from the same source that steps are being taken to bring about a congress of librarians at Philadelphia during the present year. Their last conference was held in 1853—a date whose remoteness is not expressed by a quarter of a century.——The President has by special proclamation called attention to the joint resolution of the Senate and House of Representatives, approved March 13, recommending the public recital on the Fourth of July next, in each county or town, of a sketch of its history from its formation. Wherever this reminder is necessary, the time allowed for the task will not seem excessive.——To inform those interested, a *Quarterly Record of the Tauchnitz Editions* began to be issued at Leipzig March 31. It includes the current additions not only to the British authors, but also to the German authors whose works have been translated into English. The titles are accompanied by notices of the press.——An International Archæological Convention is appointed to be held at the Ohio Building, Centennial grounds, September 4th prox. In the exhibitions of the Smithsonian Institution and of the State of Ohio itself, which has an admirable collection of relics of the Mound Builders, the Convention will find abundant material for study and comparison. It is also announced that a sub-section of Anthropology will be formed at the Buffalo meeting of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, to be held Aug. 23. In regard to the Convention, further information may be obtained of the Rev. S. D. Peet, Ashtabula, O.; in regard to the Buffalo meeting, of Mr. F. W. Putnam, Salem, Mass.

—The *Publishers' Weekly* for May 20 tabulates the answers received to its prize question—"Which are the (fifty) most salable novels?" Bulwer, Dickens, Scott, Thackeray, and George Eliot were expressly excluded from the terms of this enquiry. What follows is full of surprises. We give the first twelve titles adjudged most salable: 'John Halifax,' 'Jane Eyre,' 'The Wooing O't,' 'St. Elmo,' 'One Summer,' 'Scarlet Letter,' 'Uncle Tom's Cabin,' 'My Wife and I,' 'Princess of Thule,' 'Infelice,' 'Barriers Burned Away,' 'Opening of a Chestnut Burr.' In this list is exhibited the enduring popularity of good books as well as the fashion of the hour. If we ask ourselves why Miss Mulock stands first, and why Mrs. Southworth (for instance) is not found either among the first twelve, or the first fifty, or indeed the first hundred and fifty, we may discover the difference between the statistics of the trade and those of the circulating and public libraries. The distinction is one which it is well to make, for it would be comforting to think that when the irresponsible readers of free literature, whose calls for fiction form three-quarters of the entire demand for works of all kinds, turn buyers, they select novels of admitted worth or of wide reputation, perhaps from a really improved taste, perhaps to ensure getting their money's worth, or with the motive of collectors who wish to own what "no gentleman's library should be without." It may further appear probable on reflection that the demand for fiction like Mrs. Southworth's proceeds to such an extent from minors and persons of immature minds that it might safely be disregarded; and then the duty of excluding works of this class from our libraries would be clearer than it is now. The popularity of 'John Halifax' and 'Jane Eyre' and of the 'Scarlet Letter' is easily understood; that of 'Uncle Tom's Cabin,' at this distance from the political and social conditions which inspired it, must be regarded as phenomenal. Among the fifty "immortals" Miss Mulock figures but once, and the same is true and noticeable of Charlotte Brontë, Mrs. Alexander, and William Black. Mrs. Stowe, on the other hand, counts three works, Miss Evans four, Hawthorne two (the second being the 'Marble Faun'), Rev. E. P. Roe three, J. G. Holland two, Mrs. M. J. Holmes three, the Misses Warner two ('Wide, Wide World' and 'Queechy'), Howells one ('Chance Acquaintance'), Cooper one ('Last of the Mohicans'). 'The Scottish Chiefs' and 'Children of the Abbey' still hold their own;

so do the 'Initials,' and the 'Count of Monte Cristo,' and 'Charles O'Malley,' and the 'Wandering Jew,' and 'Les Misérables'; but no other works of their prolific authors occur among the salable fifty. If George MacDonald appears but once ('Robert Falconer'), so also does Wilkie Collins ('Woman in White'), and "Ouida" ('Under Two Flags'). Charles Reade, though he ranks pretty well down in the list, gets in three of his works ('Griffith Gaunt,' 'Very Hard Cash,' and 'Put Yourself in his Place'). Of the German novelists, E. Marlitt has three entries, Auerbach one ('On the Heights'). On the whole, the list makes a creditable showing for our novel-buyers. It would be most instructive to compare it five years hence with one similarly compiled. One might confidently indicate now a good part of what by that time will have become forgotten, and what is sure to remain.

—From the sixth annual report of the Trustees of the Metropolitan Museum of Art, it appears that the institution has been nearly relieved of its indebtedness during the past year by subscriptions to the amount of $26,500. And if so much could be accomplished at a time of the greatest financial depression, we do not doubt that by next year the sum still needed to extinguish the debt (about $9,000) will be forthcoming. It will be a pity if the additions made to his collection by General di Cesnola, which, for want of room to display them, remain unopened, fail to be secured as a permanent possession instead of a temporary deposit. So long a period in the history of Cypriote art as these discoveries illustrate, demands, to be fully known and studied, the largest possible number of articles and inscriptions; and it would be very unfortunate if these were scattered among many museums and countries instead of being concentrated in one. The number of visitors to the Museum during the year has been 66,663, of whom only 9,836 were non-members, attending on close days, and paying for admission—a daily average of 53; the average for the free days being 577. There has been, the Trustees state, a noticeable attendance of artisans.

—There will be some difficulty at first in appreciating the value of the Castellani collection, of which Mr. Perkins gave so interesting an account in the last number of the *Nation*, from the almost total absence in this country of anything to furnish a standard, and because most of the objects belong to a class calling for a special education of the eye and mind. The majolicas are presumed to be a collection of about two hundred plates made several years since by M. Alessandro Castellani, which it was understood he would only dispose of as a whole, and for which he could hardly expect any purchaser but a government or great museum. It has been said that he valued it at twenty thousand pounds. Whether this be an approximation to the price asked or not, it will give some idea of its importance. The peculiar value of the old majolica consists in the fact that it was the product of a period when pictorial art had reached the highest point it has ever attained, and when its spirit penetrated all branches of art-manufacture. The best majolica painters were artists of a high order, who in a cheap material and with a limited range of pigments succeeded in giving an unique expression of this great art. They are masterpieces that can never be repeated, and their number is limited. Their collection was made by perhaps the best qualified expert in Europe with ample means and an enthusiastic love of the subject. So completely are the best specimens of majolica absorbed in national museums and in the hands of a few rich collectors that probably not even M. Castellani himself could make such another collection. They are not only works of high art, but imperishable historical documents of the best period of modern art. No other branch of ceramic art has produced works comparable to them in this sense. Their effect, as compared with the delicate and brilliant colors of Oriental or European porcelain, is of course disappointing. The coloring, owing to the materials at command, is necessarily conventional, the tints often crude; but such consummate judgment is shown in their disposition and use that an effect of power and harmony is often produced that outweighs, in an artistic sense, any mere effect of delicacy or brilliancy in porcelain specimens. The collection is, or was, very rich in Gubbio or lustred ware—examples of that lost art of which no modern imitations give any idea. In regard to the other works composing the collection, it need not be doubted that anything Signor Castellani sends will be of a combined artistic and historic value of which few examples have yet reached us.

—Still another measure has been adopted for extending the privileges of instruction at Harvard College. On and after September 28 the elective courses of study will be open to persons not less than twenty-one years of age (we presume men only), "who shall satisfy the Faculty of their fitness to pursue the particular courses they elect, although they have not passed the usual examination for admission to college and do not propose to be candidates for the degree of Bachelor of Arts." A certificate of proficiency will be given at the end of each year if warranted by faithful attendance and ability to pass creditably the mid-year and June examinations. Particulars as to fees, etc., may be obtained by addressing the Registrar, Prof. C. J. White, Cambridge, Mass. We do not know what expectations may have been formed as to the success of this measure, which every one must approve. The lecture system which a few years ago was arranged with a view to outside support, proved, we believe, a failure—a chief reason being, as we imagine, the difficulty of reaching Cambridge from Boston and the neighboring parts without an excessive loss of time. In a pecuniary point of view, the success or failure of the new scheme is almost a matter of indifference to the College; but as Boston must principally be relied on for the students whom it seeks to attract, and as many of these may be persons obliged to earn their living between recitations, the need of rapid transit becomes apparent.

—In the interest of good and sound teeth, whether artificial or one's own, it is pleasant to hear of the prosperity of the Dental School connected with Harvard University. The standard of the school since 1868–9, the first year of its successful operation, has advanced, and the conditions of a degree now read very much like the conditions required in the Medical School. The candidate must give evidence of having studied medicine in the one case, and medicine or dentistry in the other, three full years; have spent one continuous year in the school, medical or dental, from which he graduates; have presented a satisfactory thesis, and passed all the required examinations. The school as a charity, also, deserves a recognition which, according to the Dean's report, has not yet been given it. At the infirmary of the school in the Massachusetts General Hospital there were performed in 1874–5, on more than 8,000 patients, over 9,000 operations, mostly, we suppose, by the forty-one students connected with the school, after instruction and under the supervision of the professors. The quality of the work is probably attested by the fact that patients offer themselves in increasing numbers who are able to make some payment for operations performed upon them, although it is the policy of the dental professors to discourage applicants of this kind. The services of the professors up to 1873–4 were wholly gratuitous. Beginning with that year, some disbursement has been made them by the Corporation, though as yet nothing that can be called a compensation. The criticism that might have been made upon the University for establishing this institution, that it is a sort of *lucus a non* for a university to confer a degree for work which does not demand a university training, is weakened by this advance towards a union of medicine and dentistry; and the charitable work of the school recommends it to popular favor, though, of course, the latter consideration alone would not have justified the University in attempting to elevate the dentist's profession, or to arouse the public to a proper regard for their teeth.

—Mr. Charles G. Leland contributes to *Macmillan's Magazine* for May "one piecee pidgin-English sing-song," which is among the best of his performances in this line. It is the story of one China-man Wang-ti," who "wantchee be one Man-da'in," but, being a very indifferent scholar, "no pass" in spite of all his exertion, and "no can catch degʻee." One night, however, while out walking, he has the good luck to rescue a "a flower-flag nation man" from the attack of a robber, and to play the part of the good Samaritan towards him:

> "He Melican he soon get well an' walk topside he tracks,
> An' muchee much chin-chin Wang-ti for allo he good acts.
> They gottee f'in—so muchee f'in he each belongey half,
> That Yankee name he Doo-little—he makee photog'af."

In one of his early confidences to his new friend, Wang-ti pours out the tale of his baffled ambition, and says that all would go well with him at the examinations if he could do as was the fashion "in olo tim" when

> "Man p'int some littee book,
> They hide-um in he pig-tail—or someside, hookey-clook,
> That book he blongey classics—but Goverument he pat
> An' talk he killee p'inter-man who makee book like t'hat."

Mr. Doolittle proves equal to the emergency, on learning that scholars are allowed the use of spectacles. Wang-ti has only to get himself "a pair of magnifyin' glass"—

> "And if the thing will help you—if nothin' else availa,
> I'll photograph the classics upon your finger-nails.
> I see you wear 'em awful long—(for gougin', I suppose!)
> I'd put the Astor Library upon such nails as those."
>
> . . . . . .
>
> "They catchee book, t'hey makee work, t'hey keepee awful mum,
> The books of olo Kung-fu-tsze were all on Wang-ti's t'humb.
> He blessee good Amelican t'he day he makee f'ins,
> When allo larnin' t'hat he want was at he finga-ins."

The trick succeeds to a charm—

> "Wang-ti he gallanti man,
> He go topside all nother in allo hiya-lan';
> But allo tim no man can tell or savvy what it meant
> How Doolitt' catchee cont'acts f'om he China government."

It has often been conjectured that a Chinese-American would do more

business at the Patent-Office than all the rest of mankind ; and Mr. Doolittle and his friend may serve to prove the advantages of a like international partnership in rascality :

"Chinee an' Yankee in one firm could squeezee all worl' d/y,
Dis my g/ate mo/al-pidgin of he sto/y of Wang-ti"

Mr. Leland's "moral-pidgin" appears to be as sound as any in Æsop.

—Among a people as theatrical as the French, it was inevitable that the death of Lemaître and of Déjazet should be at once followed by the writing of their biographies. It is to be hoped that they have left memoirs or reminiscences of some sort, as during their long lives they were brought in contact with many authors and artists of whom we would gladly learn more. Neither of M. Georges Duval's volumes—'Virginie Déjazet, 1797–1875' (pp. 221) and 'Frédéric-Lemaître et son temps, 1800–1876' (pp. 266. Paris : Tresse ; New York : F. W. Christern. 1876)—can be called a good biography. His method has been to embroider on the account given in the biographical dictionaries the many anecdotes, more or less apocryphal, with which the newspapers abound immediately after the death of an actor, supplementing these heterogeneous materials with the result of such hasty researches as the speed at which the book was rushed through the press might permit. His two volumes, therefore, are of little value. Their bulk is increased by obvious padding, *e.g.*, copious extracts from plays ; in the 'Déjazet' a history of the *chanson*, and in the 'Lemaître' an account of the French romantic drama. To the 'Déjazet' are appended the obituary notices of the *Débats*, *Moniteur*, and *National*, and these are by far the best things in it. To each volume is prefixed an etched portrait by M. Gonzagne-Privat ; to neither is there affixed what is as necessary to a theatrical biography as an index to any book—*i.e.*, a carefully-compiled chronological list of all the parts played by the actor who is the subject of the work.

—Early last year appeared the first number of *Die Zeitgeschichte*, a monthly chronicle of contemporary politics. It was published in Berlin, edited by a Dr. Martin Waldeck, and evidently intended to reach a wide circle of readers, subsequent numbers bearing the names of the Vienna, Paris, London, and St. Petersburg agents of the publication. American subscribers to the *Zeitgeschichte*, won by the promises of its title-page and a liberal flourish of favorable press opinions, have to this day received, at fitful intervals, but nine numbers, concluding with that for September, and the fate of the enterprise seems wrapped in mystery. We understand, however, that it has not been abandoned, and it will, therefore, not be amiss to cast a critical glance at the numbers before us. The *Zeitgeschichte* covers a sufficiently wide field, although German matters are treated of most fully. It chronicles, however, not only events, but the comments of newspapers thereon, their speculations as to possible contingencies, and even vague rumors long since set at rest. Thus, the comforting assurance of the *Agence Havas*, chronicled under September 5, that the insurrection in Herzegovina has been almost completely suppressed, hardly deserves a place among "events" ; and the report, under "Servia," of the killing of two Servian officers appears, together with the denial of its truth, under "Turkey." Greater carelessness, however, is revealed by the statement, under "Russia," that the 4th regiment was ordered to the Dalmatian frontier, this being a repetition of a statement to the same effect properly given under "Austria"—the resemblance between Peterwardein (in Slavonia) and St. Petersburg probably having misled the compiler. In spite of the amplitude of newspaper extracts—sometimes filling entire pages—a general wastefulness of space, and the needlessly large type of the headings, the editor has seen fit to make use of numerous abbreviations, whose meaning is not always easily guessed at. Thus, we find G.-E. for Gesetzentwurf, K. for Kommission, and similar abbreviations, which, combined with the ungrammatical omission of the definite article, result in sentences like the following : "Minister des Innern legt G.-E. E. betr. Erweiterung der Pressfreiheit und Abänderung G. über die Autonomie der Gemeinden vor." The natural abbreviation of Gouv. for Gouverneur does not suggest itself to the editor, and Präsident alternates with Präs., Regierung with Reg., just as San Francisco and San Francisko, Giczy and Ghyczy, Krajujewatz, Kragujewaz, and Krajugewatz, succeed each other. In the long list of errata—Pensilvania, Dunidee, Sassy for Jassy, Förster for Forster, etc.—America is fairly represented. A mayor "Ewarts" is assigned to the city of New York, a Mr. "Godlive" is appointed minister to Austria, and the State of Maine is reported as having elected, on September 14, a Republican governor by a majority of 5,000, and a Republican President (!) by a majority of 6,000. Finally, we notice a novel attempt to introduce patriotism into orthography—"Der Deutsche Konsul" being always distinguished by a capital D, in contrast with his colleagues, Der österreichische, italienische, französische, englische und russische Konsul.

MACAULAY.*

II.

WERE it possible (which it never is) to sum up in one word the noblest trait of a great man's character, the expression by which we should define the most noteworthy moral quality of Macaulay's nature would be—loyalty. That he possessed the strength and clearness of purpose without which no man can be loyal either to others or to himself, might be assumed by those who had studied his works or were acquainted with the outline of his life. Mr. Trevelyan's biography tells the world what, before it was published, could be known only to a circle of friends, that in his uncle was found not only the strength but also the passionate feeling which can hardly be wanting in a man whom one emphatically calls loyal. A careless reader may indeed fail to discern the passion which glowed beneath the strength of Macaulay's character. This arises in part from the main defect of Mr. Trevelyan's work. All that the book contains is full of interest, but it does not contain many of the exquisite personal touches which give an undying charm to the life of Johnson, and, in a less degree, to the life of Scott. The correspondence with Ellis is not only a delightful supplement to the 'Critical and Historical Essays,' but is also a noble record of friendship ; yet we would gladly exchange some of the remarks on literature and politics with which the letters to Ellis are filled, for fuller accounts of Macaulay as he appeared to the nephews and nieces who adored him, for details of the serious talks he held, "in a quiet way" and "without the forms of a lecture," with the lads in whom he was specially interested, or for any of those petty anecdotes which, though prigs may scorn them as gossip, really embody the character of an eminent man.

Another cause of a more general nature may hide from the unintelligent the vividness of Macaulay's feelings. He shared to the full that intense interest in public affairs which was the finest trait of the Whigs. Modern critics, inspired by the misplaced contempt for the mechanical arrangements of politics, are apt to think that a man fully engrossed by the party contests of his day shows an incapacity for the finer sentiments and higher interests of life. No idea can be more unjust either to Macaulay or to his associates. Even if it be granted (what is very doubtful) that they overrated the importance of political mechanism, they did honestly hold that the highest interests of the public were involved in the political conflicts of the time. They may possibly have been in error ; but their intellectual mistake, if mistake it were, does not detract from the moral greatness which is shown by men who sink private feelings in their zeal for the public good. Persons of culture should make sure before they criticise the political interests of the last generation that they have not fallen below, instead of rising above, the moral standard of their fathers. Certainly, if politics are to be the pursuit of good men or of great men, political contests must be carried on with that loyalty to principle which Macaulay exhibited in his canvass at Leeds. What, however, is for our present purpose of consequence, is to point out that in the very midst of a hot party struggle Macaulay's mind was torn by the strongest, and one might fairly say most passionate, personal feeling. His success at Leeds exactly coincided with the news of the marriage of his favorite sister. It coincided, as appears even from the necessarily scanty details given in the biography, with the first blow to the happiness of his life. His affections were centred in two of his sisters, Margaret and Hannah. The following sentences are part of a passage in which he refers to his feelings on Margaret's marriage :

"I have still one more stake to lose. There remains an event for which, when it arrives, I shall, I hope, be prepared. From that moment, with a heart formed, if ever man's heart was formed, for domestic happiness, I shall have nothing left in this world but ambition. There is no wound, however, which time and necessity will not render endurable ; and, after all, what am I more than my fathers—than the millions and tens of millions who have been weak enough to pay double price for some favorite number in the lottery of life, and who have suffered double disappointment when their ticket came up a blank ?"

The anticipated event—Hannah's marriage—soon followed. It took place under circumstances which, in some respects, made the blow to Macaulay specially hard to bear, and there are few writings more full of manly pathos than the letter to Margaret in which he describes his own feelings at a marriage which, though in every other respect satisfactory, might by an unsympathetic critic be described (as far as Macaulay was concerned), in his own ironical words, as "a tragical dénouement of an absurd plot." But no one who can enter into the sufferings which distract

* 'Life and Letters of Lord Macaulay. By his Nephew, G. O. Trevelyan, M.P.' London : Longmans & Green ; New York : Harper & Bros. 1876.

human hearts can doubt that the "tragedy" was only too real. An additional intensity was added by the sudden death of Margaret. After twenty-two years of a happy life, we find Macaulay still in mourning over her death :

"I passed the day in burning and arranging papers. Some things that met my eyes overcame me for a time. Margaret—alas! alas! And yet she might have changed to me. But no, that could never have been! To think that she has been near twenty-two years dead, and I am crying for her as if it were yesterday!"

This note, from a private journal, written for no eye but Macaulay's own, makes it easy to believe the assertion in a letter to Ellis that after the news of his sister's death the great historian was driven to work, lest grief should affect his reason.

Of the warmth of affection almost essential to loyalty there certainly, therefore, was no lack in Macaulay's character. The greatest proof that strong feeling was with him combined in perfection with manly self-control is found in his course of conduct after suffering keen personal disappointment. He did not, as he seems to have feared he might, turn cynic. He indulged in no weak repining; he turned to the sources of affection still left open to him; and, with rare wisdom and generosity, cherished and kept alive all the ardor of his love for those who could not, from the nature of things, make a full return for it. Above all, he did not allow private griefs or personal disappointments to jaundice his view of life. Nothing is more noticeable in Macaulay than his happy view of existence and of human progress. It is easy to censure this disposition towards exaggerated optimism; it is far better to note how much strength of character is needed to enable a man to see that the universe is very good even when he himself suffers disappointment, or to recall in the very midst of his pain that he is no "better than his fathers," and that "tens of millions" have, like himself, drawn blanks in the lottery of life. It is, after all, no credit to a philosopher that the details of his own life should affect his whole view of society and of the world. There have been men—and they men of considerable power—who would, in Macaulay's position, have unconsciously suffered their whole view of politics to be warped by disappointment at political failure, or would have constructed strange theories as to the relation between father and child under the bias given to their sentiments by the peculiarities of Zachary Macaulay's most respectable but most unpleasing character. In nothing, on the other hand, do Macaulay's strong affection and manly good-sense appear to more advantage than in his relation to his father.

Zachary Macaulay was, to judge from Mr. Trevelyan's picture of him, a man whom it was easy to respect, not easy to love, and very hard indeed to withstand. Most sons would have found him difficult to deal with. The difficulty was greatly increased in Macaulay's case by the extraordinary difference in disposition and genius between father and child. There was a temptation to the son to grow, at any rate, cold towards a father of uncongenial tastes, who did not know how to show the affection he felt, and while undemonstrative was also in some respects exacting. There was an even greater temptation, in youth at least, to yield up to the father that moral independence which every man ought to cherish. Macaulay, even as a boy, when the temptation to undue concession was extremely great, took the tone which the highest sense of loyalty dictated. A letter written by him when he is fourteen in palliation of the accusation (doubtless well founded) of speaking too loud, is striking as an example of juvenile command of style. It is still more impressive as an example of the tone of affectionate yet manly independence which Macaulay early adopted and never gave up in communicating with his parents. The tone of this letter foreshadows the position he took up in regard to his father throughout the whole of his career. To his father's wishes and interests he was prepared to make the greatest sacrifices. At a critical moment, Macaulay resolved to surrender office and blight his political prospects rather than support a measure of which his father, as an abolitionist, disapproved. To discharge debts for which his father was responsible Macaulay went to India, and thereby sacrificed his well-grounded hopes of high success in the career of statesmanship. But though ready to make the greatest sacrifices of interest for the sake of his father, he never compromised his moral and intellectual independence. He differed in nature and convictions from his father. The difference must have been apparent to both of them. Macaulay had the strength to follow the impulses of his own genius. No one could ever say of him, as was said of J. S. Mill in his youth, that he was a "made" man. No one could fancy of him, as one certainly might fancy even of a man as independent as the author of the 'Essay on Liberty,' that he was intellectually cowed by the force of his father's character. Macaulay's loyal fidelity to his parents, to his friends, and to his party was, indeed, made possible by his perfect loyalty to himself.

From his earliest youth Macaulay's mind had been filled with a passion for literature, and to literature he devoted the whole of his powers. Of the merit of the poem written by him on his losing his seat at Edinburgh critics may form different estimates; but no one who studies Macaulay's life will doubt that the verses in which he describes his consecration from youth to literature have the rare merit of expressing the true intellectual passion of his life. To the pursuit of literary greatness he felt himself called, and this pursuit he never really forsook. In this enthusiasm for letters, as in many other respects, Macaulay shared the sentiments of the eighteenth rather than of the nineteenth century. It is a sentiment which would have been perfectly intelligible to the contemporaries of Johnson or Gibbon, but which is scarcely understood by admirers of Mill or of Froude. Yet critics who do not enter into this feeling cannot appreciate either Macaulay's work or Macaulay's career. To the production of his history he devoted his life because the production of a great literary work seemed to him, as it has seemed to all to whom letters have been a passion, an object well worth living for. It is this devotion to an end, in his judgment well deserving all the labor and sacrifices required for its attainment, which gives Macaulay's career what we may venture to call its singular roundness and completeness. Of no great man whose life has been laid open to the public does one feel more sure that on the whole he acted as far as any man can up to his own ideal of duty. There is nothing in his life of the futile aspiration, the disappointed effort, the inconsistent conduct, the weakness and the struggle, which mar the career of so many writers and teachers. Here again he belongs in character to a past generation. Jeffrey, Sydney Smith, Sir Walter Scott, and, indeed, most of the celebrated men who made the glory of Edinburgh at the beginning of the century, have, with all their differences, this trait in common, that they are in full harmony with their work. No doubt this very "completeness" seems to modern critics inconsistent with what is now thought a high ideal of life, and the very qualities which made the class of men to whom Macaulay in feeling belongs so happy, and also, let it be added, so useful, in their generation, has rendered them somewhat uninteresting to the class of readers who think more of high aspirations than of successful attainment of a possibly somewhat lower ideal standard. There is no doubt that Macaulay also will, under the prevailing state of sentiment, fail to excite as much interest in the minds of many of those who read his life as has been kindled by the biographies of persons possessed of not half his gifts or of a tithe of his moral worth. It is, however, worth considering whether the time has not come for revising our own standards of moral criticism. A high ideal is a legitimate object of admiration, but weakness of purpose and uncertainty of aim can never of themselves deserve anything but condemnation. Some of the admiration lavished on persons who, if they aim high, admittedly do not hit their mark, may well be diverted to a man whose loyal performance of the duties before him lent to his life a completeness and happiness rarely exhibited in the career of modern writers or teachers.

A FLOCK OF SONGSTERS.*

ONE of the chief delights of the returning spring is the early morning chorus of the birds, vocal once more after their winter silence. The air is no longer mute. The intermission of the song gives the charm of freshness to its renewal, and even notes as little musical as those of the blackbird and the woodpecker are welcome and pleasant to the ear weary of the stillness of the brown fields and bare woods. It would be well if there were a like alternation of season of silence and of utterance for the little poets who have been so often likened to singing birds. If they had but an annual spring in which their notes were heard, it might be that they too would be more welcome to the world than they find themselves now as they appear chirping or singing without cessation through the year. The pretty green, or brown, or gray and gold, or purple, or crimson bodies of their volumes might seem all the prettier if they came in flocks, instead of one by one, from week to week, or morning to morning, and in chorus their voices might sound sweeter than when the weakness of each is noticeable in its separate, solitary performance.

It is for their sakes, then, that through the winter we have let them straggle in upon us unnoticed, and now, in this more genial time of year, give ourselves up to listen to their concert.

First, the course of time has brought us another Pollock. He was born in Philadelphia in 1823; he never had a day's schooling; he began to write for the local press at the age of eighteen; he went to California in 1852, and died there in 1858. That his memory is cherished is shown by the publication of this volume so long after his death. We are told in the

* 'Poems. By Edward Pollock.' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1876. 12mo, pp. 242.

preface that "what he produced was but as the flutterings of the falcon ere he strikes for the higher air, and the object afar"; and further, that, "full of lofty ambition that aspired to a grand niche in the temple, gathering the materials for the flight, like Columbus struggling against all obstacles, just as the sails were ready to be spread, the ship went down at her moorings, and only the few floating fragments given in this volume remain of all the brilliant promises and golden anticipations our argosy contained." Mr. Pollock's poems are free from such mingling of metaphors as appears in this prose, but they are, as is indicated here, poems of promise rather than of fulfilled achievement. They do not bear the stamp of strong individuality of power or gift, but they show a nature susceptible to impressions from without, and capable of rendering such impressions with a certain facility and skill. The influence of Poe, of Coleridge, of Byron, and other famous poets, is obvious in Mr. Pollock's work, and, while the talent shown in his verse may well make it interesting to his friends, it will scarcely secure for him very wide or permanent reputation.

Mr. Charles Siegel, the author of 'A Hundred Years Ago, and other Poems,' is a student in the Reformed Theological Seminary in Lancaster, Pennsylvania, and his verse is altogether creditable to his piety, his patriotism, and his affections, but it is of a sort to be more prized by those connected with its writer by personal or local association than by the world at large. To all the acquaintances of Mr. Siegel the volume may be unqualifiedly commended as a sincere expression of his character. We suspect it will be a long time before our theological seminaries become so reformed as not to be the nurseries of a good deal of such respectable verse.

"G. E. O." displays in 'The River of Dreams, and other Poems' a considerable readiness of fluent versification, a sense of the picturesque aspects of nature, and a more than common delicacy of sentiment. But there is a want of vigorous fibre both in the conception and execution of this writer's work, so that, for the most part, it makes but a faint impression. The longest and the most ambitious poem in the little volume, "The River of Dreams," is a mystic allegory, of which the intention is somewhat vague, and which does not justify its obscurity by beauties which powerfully allure, even while they baffle and perplex the curious intelligence. We should quote, were it not too long for our columns, a poem called "Fortune's Favorite" as a specimen of the pleasing turn of the author's fancy and the ease of his diction.

Mr. Alger is a versifier as literal as "G. E. O." is unsubstantial. He writes in an unpretending style of "Grand'ther Baldwin's Thanksgiving," of "Phoebe's Wooing," and matters of this order. His poems "In Time of War" are simple and direct in sentiment and expression, and may well have gained some popularity. His volume, altogether, is one which many people will like to read, though it will not secure him a high place on the roll of poets.

Mr. Charles Edgar Spencer gives us in 'Rue, Thyme, and Myrtle' a collection of poems, all composed at the age of eighteen or under. They are creditable to him as being free from any marks of unusual precocity; yet, while they are respectable, or even more than respectable, in point of talent, they do not give evidence of such gifts as make it certain that Mr. Spencer has a distinguished career as a poet before him.

'The Poetical Works of Ray Palmer' is the name of a very handsome volume that contains the productions in verse of the Rev. Dr. Palmer of New York. In his own denomination Dr. Palmer has been known as a writer of what may be called without offence popular hymns. One of his compositions of this sort, known by its first line, "My faith looks up to Thee," has had so remarkable an acceptance that Dr. Palmer gives its history in an appendix of considerable length. It is, indeed, something that an author may feel with pleasurable pride, to have succeeded in expressing a sentiment common to a vast number of men and women in a form of words that shall be acceptable to them, and adopted by them as their own. This is what Dr. Palmer has done in this instance. But neither this hymn, nor any other of the pieces in his somewhat voluminous collection that we have read, authorizes him to assume the name of poet, except so far as it is synonymous with versifier. Dr. Palmer has the faculty in a high degree of putting the religious sentiment and doctrine and the corresponding moral notions into verse of correct measure, and occasionally of melodious construction. But, so far as we have seen, there is very little vigor of thought, still less of imagination, in his verses. These qualities, however, may be dispensed with by the writer of hymns. His readers come to his work with such associations with the matter of his verse already established in their feelings as would make any special originality of treatment appear impertinent and incongruous. The type on which the hymn is written is fixed; and even the Wesleys, with their fervor and with their power of vision, were unable to make all their hymns poetical. It is only by a liberal interpretation that most hymns in English, including Dr. Palmer's, can be classed among poems. Dr. Palmer's volume is one to meet with a cordial reception by every student or lover of what Lord Selborne calls hymnology.

In his 'Legend of the Roses: a Poem; and Ravlan: a Drama,' Mr. Watson has shown an ambitious purpose, and his work indicates that he has pursued his object with a patience, zeal, and sincerity which deserve commendation even if the result be not altogether in accordance with his desire. Here and there in his pages are lines and even passages of some length that exhibit something more than mere conscientious workmanship —lines, for instance, like the following:

> "Before me stretched a sea of golden grain
> Which rocked and rose in many a sunny wave,
> Each billow like the bounteous breast of Ceres";

or these:

> "——the future is
> A thing of dreams and fancies; a poor salve
> Which unquiet men keep ready for their hearts
> Which their own acts have wounded."

Mr. Watson has been a student of good models in dramatic literature, but he has yet to study life in others, and in himself to harvest a larger store of experience and knowledge of human nature, before he can write a play or even a poem of an undramatic kind that shall compel the attention of the busy world or attract that of the leisurely lover of good letters.

Mr. Gilbert, a volume of whose plays has lately been reprinted in this country, is a poet and playwright of very different order. Some of his dramas have had a moderate success upon the stage, but that they should have met with anything that can be called success is indication that the average theatrical audience is far from exacting. There is a vulgar smartness about Mr. Gilbert's work which may make it attractive to vulgar minds, and there is a knowledge of stage-effects which may give his plays a sort of liveliness upon the boards; but as literary compositions, whether in prose or poetry, or as studies of character, their value is very small. If read at all, they will be forgotten as soon as read.

The name of George D. Prentice, the founder in 1830 of the Louisville *Journal*, and for more than thirty years its editor, was widely known during the last generation. In a period and region of low culture, he passed for a wit and a poet, and was passable in both capacities. Mr. John James Piatt has now edited his poems, with a eulogistic biographical sketch of their author, in the pious hope of keeping alive a reputation in its nature ephemeral. A statue of Mr. Prentice, above life-size, is about to be erected, so Mr. Piatt tells us, "in Carrara marble, supported by granite pillars, at an elevation of nearly forty feet, in front of the new *Courier-Journal* building" in Louisville; but Mr. Piatt cherishes the belief that "there is something in this volume of his poems which will survive the marble effigy in the memory of men." Most of Mr. Prentice's poems are of the reflective and sentimental order. His heart seems to have been susceptible to the impressions of female loveliness. He was constantly paying his addresses in verse to one charmer after another. There are "Lines to a Lady," and again "To a Lady," "To a Young Beauty," "To Mary," "To Rosa," "To Miss Sallie M. Bryan," "To Fannie," "To Young Adelaide," "To Lucy Merrill," "To Alice Griffin," etc., etc. There are Memories, a Wish, a Parting, a Farewell, and many others of the same sort. There are lines "sent with a rose," a "Bouquet's Compliment"; there are more roses and violets, and all, alas! a little faded now. They were fragrant and pretty enough, doubtless, in their time; but their time was long ago. It is plain that Mr. Prentice was a genial, ready writer of occasional verse. He had little gall in his nature. He begins a poem to a political opponent:

> "I send thee, Greeley, words of cheer,
> Thou bravest, truest, best of men."

It is not strange that the verses of such a man should be collected and cherished by his friends, but their interest is personal rather than poetical.

Professor Blackie, of the University of Edinburgh, whose 'Songs of

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'A Hundred Years Ago, and Other Poems. By Charles W. E. Siegel, A.B.' Lancaster. 1875. 12mo, pp. 223.

'The River of Dreams, and Other Poems. By G. E. O., author of 'Thurid, and Other Poems.'' Boston: Lee & Shepard. 1875. 16mo, pp. 97.

'Grand'ther Baldwin's Thanksgiving, with other Ballads and Poems. By Horatio Alger, jr.' Boston: Loring. 1875. 16mo, pp. 125.

'Rue, Thyme and Myrtle. A collection of Poems and Songs. By Charles Edgar Spencer.' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1876. 16mo, pp 99.

'The Poetical Works of Ray Palmer.' Complete edition. New York and Chicago: A. S. Barnes & Co. 1876. 8vo, pp 372.

'The Legend of the Roses: A Poem. Ravlan: A Drama. By Samuel James Watson.' Toronto: Hunter, Rose & Co. 1876. 16mo, pp. 228.

'Original Plays. By W. S. Gilbert.' New York: Scribner, Armstrong & Co. 1876. Sm. 8vo, pp. 265.

'The Poems of George D Prentice. Edited, with a Biographical Sketch, by John James Piatt.' Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. 1876. 12mo, pp. 216.

'Songs of Religion and Life. By John Stuart Blackie, Professor of Greek in the University of Edinburgh.' New York: Scribner, Armstrong & Co. 1876. 12mo, pp. 242.

Religion and Life' have lately been reprinted, is, to use a phrase from one of his own verses, "a fluent preacher in rhyme." His motto seems to be, as he writes,

> "Wear your heart not on your sleeve,
> But on just occasion
> Let men know what you believe,
> With breezy ventilation,"

and his poems afford him just the occasion for the breezy ventilation of his speculations and beliefs (perhaps also his prejudices) concerning religion, philosophy, morals, and the conduct of life. He has a cheerful confidence in himself and his opinions, and a hearty conceit of his country. The composition of his poems has been, he tells us, "a source of intellectual enlargement and of moral elevation" to himself, and it is possible that the reading of them may be a source of similar advantage to some other persons.

The most interesting part of the Rev. Mr. Call's volume of 'Reverberations' is the autobiographical sketch that precedes the poems. It is a striking and sincere narrative of the mental experience of a religiously-minded man, a clergyman of the Church of England, in the course of which his faith in the traditional doctrines in which he had been nurtured gave way, and he was finally brought to hold such opinions as led him, at great personal sacrifice, to give up his position in the Church and withdraw from its communion. The narrative is of value as illustrating the difficulties in which many men in circumstances similar to those of Mr. Call are at present involved, and it touches the feelings of the reader with a pathetic sympathy for the struggles necessary for extrication from a position whose maintenance is likely to involve a silencing of the reason and a blunting of the conscience, while to desert it is likely to be attended with heavy social penalties, and not infrequently with material loss. We can well believe Mr. Call's words when he speaks of the "varied experiences of pain and sorrow" brought to all who belonged to him, as well as to himself, by his abandonment of the popular creed. There is, however, nothing of bitterness or of a controversial spirit in his writing. His poems are those of a man of culture of an enthusiastic nature, and of keen social sympathies. One of them, "The People's Petition," written in 1840, is an appeal, powerful through its simplicity, of the great mass of the ill-fed laborers for daily bread; and there are others of the same sort, written under that stress of feeling which might well affect a clergyman in a rural district in the West of England at a time when, as he says, "seven or eight shillings a week was the usual remuneration received by a laboring man." We cite some stanzas as a close from a piece called "Nemesis":

> "We know not clearly what is good,
> We dare not see Truth's dazzling face,
> But yet our heart has understood,
> Has felt her royal grace.
>
> "Who loves divines the Eternal Plan,
> Who dwells with Beauty dwells with truth;
> Still the old thoughts return to man,
> The soul is still a youth.
>
> "The sun still lights the fourfold year,
> The moon still lifts the wave on nigh,
> Man still is man: then wherefore fear?
> Believe, live, love, and die."

A Handbook of Architectural Styles. Translated from the German of A. Rosengarten by W. Collett-Sandars. With 639 Illustrations. (New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1876.)—Almost every desirable quality is to be found in the translation of this well-known hand-book, just reprinted from the London edition. It is at once concise and comprehensive. Every important style, from China to Spain, and from Norway to Egypt, is sufficiently described, and in a way that shows both intelligence and erudition. What is not made clear in the text is abundantly set forth in the illustrations. These are very numerous—six hundred and forty in five hundred pages—and they are many of them so large (nearly a hundred occupying a whole page, and as many more half a page each) that not much more than half the book is given to the text. The subjects of these illustrations are remarkably well selected, a noticeably large proportion being unfamiliar in works of this class. Altogether, although not so complete, of course, as Mr. Fergusson's more elaborate history, it is for that very reason better suited to the wants of young students and of the general public. In fact, it goes far to supply the gap left by Mr. Fergusson's earlier publication, the 'Handbook of Architecture,' now unhappily out of print—a work of more moderate compass than the 'History' that has taken its place, and one in which the space given to outlandish art, unrelated to our modern civilization, was less disproportionate than in the larger work. Herr Rosengarten has observed a juster measure, giving only a dozen pages to India and China, while his account of German art, being somewhat fuller than one meets in English and French works, adds an element of interest and comparative novelty.

With all this in its favor, the book lacks the prime merit of a book: it has no style. That a new book on this topic, and that book a German one, should have the animation and personal charm of Mr. Fergusson's writings, would have been too much to look for. But the art of writing readable English is not a rare accomplishment in England, and one might have hoped that the translator would have proved strong where his original was weakest. The vague semi-philosophical generalizations that disfigure the book owe much of their bathos to the ineptitude of the English in which they are served up. This, for instance, is the way in which Mr. Collett-Sandars conveys his author's views of the Greeks and their civilization:

> "Their poets had a great influence in the formation of their religious economy, which, though based on tradition, was susceptible of many deviations. It adapted and gave a free poetic meaning to the saga of other nations, which contained natural perceptions veiled in a mythic guise. A main element of the Grecian character was moderation, and, at the same time, a bold love of freedom, in conjunction with an instinctive dread of everything impure and unholy, and a childlike reverence for the godlike, the holy, and the lawful. . . . Whilst, therefore, the nations amongst whom religion was in every respect the immediate teacher retained a trace of the incubus in all their intellectual transactions, the Grecian race moved onwards in natural, easy grace."

Of the Corinthian order we find it said that "without being an actual imitation of nature, still the designs of nature are therein artistically conceived and made use of"; and of the German ambition to create a new style, that "all considerations in this direction must necessarily treat of the impracticability of such a scheme (for no different result is possible) rather than of its realization." We think we perceive our author's thought, and are disposed to agree with him, but such language as this seems expressly chosen to conceal it.

If publishers would employ competent persons to rewrite, so far as necessary, the translations it is thought worth while to reprint, they would double the obligations under which they lay the public. As they get the rough draft gratis, so to speak, they could well afford the expense of such revision. A hundred dollars spent in this way upon the work in hand would make a second edition worth just twice as much as the present one.

Shakespeare and the Bible. By James Rees. (Philadelphia: Claxton, Remsen & Haffelfinger. 1876.)—The purpose of this volume, the author tells us, is to show "how much Shakspere was indebted to the Bible for many of his most beautiful passages, and how beneath his hand the gems of old were set anew, and to what extent he made use of his knowledge to aid him in the production of plays." The purpose is a commendable one, and if performed with due care and judgment would doubtless result in a work that would be useful both to the literary and the Biblical student. Mr. Rees labors, too, at his task with good meaning enough, and with considerable minuteness of detail. But, unfortunately, if his purpose be good, his execution is bad; and, in a case like this, goodness of motive is no sufficient atonement for badness of workmanship. The book has altogether too many inaccuracies—inaccuracies both of statement and of quotation. Thus, in reference to the well-known matter about Sir Thomas Lucy, the author says "the poet revenged himself by sticking satirical verses on the knight's park." Of course the allusion is to the ribald lampoon beginning, "A parliament member, a justice of peace," etc. Again, he says that King James, "with his own hand, wrote a letter to Shakspere in return for the compliment paid him in his tragedy of 'Macbeth.'" Now, both of these are mere unauthenticated and unsupported traditions, and as such have been discredited long since by all biographers of the poet. But Mr. Rees puts them down as authentic verities. He also tells us "it is pretty certain that he [Shakspere] visited Venice, Verona, and Florence." This is an odd sort of "certainty." When or how was it ever certified? The most we can say is that there is something between a possibility and a probability that Shakspere travelled in Italy. But probabilities are not certainties; and he who states such things as facts will naturally be distrusted when he states facts that are such indeed. We add a few errors of quotation: Thus, from "King Lear," ii. 4, "All the stored *vengeance* of heaven fall on her *ungrateful* top." The words underscored should be *vengeances* and *ingrateful*. Also, from "All's Well," ii. 1, "So holy writ in *babies* hath judgment shown, when judges have been *babies*." Here, in both places, *babes* is the right word. Also, from "Hamlet," v. 2, "There's a divinity that shapes our ends, rough-hew them *as you* will." The true reading is "rough-hew them *how we* will." Again, Mr. Rees quotes us from "Antony and Cleopatra" the following:

'Reverberations. Revised, with a chapter from my Autobiography. By W. M. W. Call, A.M., Cambridge.' London: Trübner & Co. 1875. 16mo, pp. 199.

"Show you sweet Cæsar's wounds, poor, poor dumb mouths"; also, "And put a tongue in every wound of Cæsar's." Both passages are of course in "Julius Cæsar," iii. 2. Once more, from "King Henry VIII.," ii. 1: "Where you are liberal of your loves and counsels, be sure you *do* not *lose*." It should be, "be sure you *be* not *loose*" We could easily cite a large number of like inaccuracies. Some of them, to be sure, may be printer's errors, but for most of them the author is evidently responsible. Nor is such inexactness by any means a slight matter. We must add one error of a different sort, which shows that the author is not well booked in Shakspere's use of language. He quotes from "Macbeth," iv. 3: "The powers above put on their instruments," and then tells us the meaning is, "gird on their swords." Not so. Here, as commonly in Shakspere, *put on* is *set on*—that is, *instigate* or *incite*; and *instruments* refers to the men who are roused to arms against the tyrant. As for the rest, some parts of the book are not undeserving of commendation; especially, the author displays throughout a praiseworthy reverence for sacred things and sacred names, though he sometimes draw his rules to a degree of stringency that would have sadly cramped Shakspere's powers as a dramatist.

The Antiquities of Israel. By Heinrich Ewald. Translated from the German by Henry Shaen Solly. (Boston: Lockwood, Brooks & Co. 1876.)—Professor Ewald was beyond question one of the greatest Biblical scholars of our age. With him began a new era in the science of Hebrew, and for a thorough understanding of the grammatical character and construction of the language, and of its organic growth, his linguistic writings are almost indispensable. In his commentaries to the prophetical and poetical books of the Old Testament he not only succeeded in elucidating the literal meaning of the ancient Scriptures, but deeply penetrated into their spirit. In his 'History of the People of Israel' he both narrated the events in the life of the Israelitish nation, as they appear upon the surface, and with true ingenuity and a profound and comprehensive learning examined the Biblical documents as to their authenticity, their origin, their chronological order, and so forth; and, descending to the very lowest springs of the national life, he laid bare, or tried to lay bare, the invisible spiritual forces, and their workings, of which the outward events were but the visible consequences. On the other hand, in his 'Antiquities' he drew a living picture of the peculiar civilization and of the permanent institutions and stationary conditions of the Jewish people as they existed, in his view, at the time of the transition from the theocracy to the monarchy and for centuries afterwards. Unlike many other archæologists before him, the Göttingen professor did not divide Hebrew antiquities into a sacred and a secular part, but preferred to conceive of and to treat Israel's life in its entirety, as one outgrowth of the fundamental religious ideas which tinctured everything, whether belonging to the political, the juridical, the domestic, or to any other side of the national existence. As David ben Simra, a Rabbi of the sixteenth century, in taking his stand against Maimonides, Kreskas, Albo, and others, insisted that no attempt ought to be made to lay down certain doctrines of Judaism as fundamental, because in Judaism, as he said, everything is fundamental, so Ewald maintained that *all* the facts in the life of Israel should be considered as sacred and as organically connected together by the God-idea of the people and by their idea of righteousness. The first edition of the German original of the 'Antiquities' appeared as early as 1848; yet the book has not become antiquated, but repeated editions have had to be issued. Mr. Solly deserves thanks for reproducing the work in an English garb.

The Doctrine of Addai, the Apostle. Now first edited in a complete form in the original Syriac, with an English translation and notes. By George Phillips, D.D. (London: Trübner & Co. 1876. English part: pp. xvi. and 52; Syriac text: pp. 53.)—According to a statement in the New Testament (Luke x. 1) Christ chose, besides the twelve apostles, seventy esoteric disciples, and ordained them to the office of the ministry. Addai is said to have been one of them. He came to Edessa, as it is reported in the document before us, upon the request of King Abgar, and miraculously cured the king of a disease from which he had been suffering for a long time. This miracle of Addai, together with other great deeds, and the success of his labors as an evangelist, are recorded in this book. At the conclusion of it we find it stated that Labubna, the king's scribe, "wrote these things of Addai, the apostle," and that the account was placed among the records and deposited in the archives of Edessa. Mr. Phillips, the editor, inclines to the opinion that in the main 'The Doctrine of Addai' is genuine, that its origin dates back to the first century, and that it is older than many parts of the New Testament. Whether this view is correct or not cannot be examined in these columns. It must, however, be admitted that the document is one of the earliest productions of the Syrian Church. For, aside from all internal evidence, Eusebius, who wrote in the third century, devoted a chapter of his Ecclesiastical History to Abgar and to the planting of the church at Edessa by Addai, and it is more than probable that he had this writing before him when he wrote the thirteenth chapter of the first book of his history. The great antiquity of this document, which is now published for the first time in its entirety, after a manuscript belonging to the Imperial Library of St. Petersburg (the edition by the late Dr. Cureton was based upon a very imperfect manuscript preserved in the British Museum), invests it with considerable interest for the theologian as well as for the historian and the linguist.

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BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*
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Annual Register, 1875. New Series	(Rivingtons)
Burnand (J. C.), To Buddlecombe and Back	(Roberts "rothers) $1 00
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Gladden (Rev. W.), Working People	(Lockwood, Brooks & Co.) 1 75
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Hale (Rev. E.), Fall of the Stuarts. 1678-1697	(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.) 1 00
Hammond (Dr. W. A.), Spiritualism and Nervous Derangement	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 2 25
Journal of Social Science, May, 1876, swd	(A. Williams & Co.)
Lange (Prof. J. P.), Critical, Doctrinal, and Homiletical Commentary	(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.)
Maxwell (Cecil), Story of Three Sisters	(Henry Holt & Co.) 1 25
Mivart (St. G.), Lessons from Nature	(D. Appleton & Co.)
Orthodox Minister, Is "Eternal" Punishment Endless?	(Lockwood, Brooks & Co.) 1 00
Rayne (Mrs. M. L.), Against Fate: A True Story	(W. S. Keen, Cooke & Co.)
Reid (Christian), The Land of the Sky	(D. Appleton & Co.)
Skinner (J. J.), Principles of Approximate Computations	(Henry Holt & Co.)
Tarbox (J. N.), Life of Israel Putnam	(Lockwood, Brooks & Co.) 2 50
Talcott (Mrs. Goodwin), The Fortunes of Miss Follen	(D. Appleton & Co.)
The Mountains: A Collection of Poems	(Roberts Brothers) 1 25
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 8, 1876.

The Week.

THE enquiry into Mr. Blaine's transactions in the Northern Pacific and Little Rock and Fort Smith stocks and bonds took a singular turn last week, in the appearance on the scene of a witness from Boston named Mulligan, who had, through his connection with Mr. Fisher, one of Mr. Blaine's friends in that city, become cognizant of these transactions, or some of them. The witness's testimony was not important on the first day; but on the second he appeared before the Committee and said Mr. Blaine had obtained from him a packet of fifteen of his (Blaine's) letters, which contained important corroborative evidence, on a promise to return them, which promise he had, after vain pleadings with the witness not to produce them, broken, and retained the letters. Mulligan even alleged that Blaine had said that the production of the letters would ruin him and his wife and children, and threatened to commit suicide if they were produced before the Committee, and offered to get the witness a consulship. The ruin and suicide part of the story Blaine denied, but admitted the consulship part, as jocose, however; he declared the letters were strictly private, but perfectly innocent and creditable, and had nothing to do with the matter under investigation, yet refused to produce them, though he agreed to let the Committee read them under pledge of secresy. The Committee declined to examine them in this way, and Mr. Blaine then submitted them to two "eminent counsel," Messrs. Jeremiah Black and Matthew Carpenter, who, after deeply scrutinizing them, advised Blaine not to give them up.

On this, Mr. Blaine, seeing that the letters must sooner or later come out, and knowing Mulligan had made a memorandum of their contents, produced the letters in the House, and had them read by the clerk, making a running explanation of their contents, declaring that he had been treated with gross unfairness by the Investigating Committee, that the chairman had suppressed a despatch from Josiah Caldwell exonerating him from all share in the $64,000 transaction with the Union Pacific, and making what he called an appeal from the Committee to 44,000,000 American people. This bold move took the Democrats completely by surprise, and they failed to take any notice of the fact that Mr. Blaine was not entitled to the floor at all, or that the motion he made to have the Judiciary Committee report the facts about the telegram was entirely out of order. Mr. Knott, the chairman, was obliged to admit that he had received a despatch from Caldwell, and the Democrats only recovered their senses in time to prevent a vote on Mr. Blaine's resolution and to refer it to the Committee which it was intended to censure. The apparent success, however, which Mr. Blaine won is, unless we are greatly mistaken, more than spoiled by the character of the letters he produced. Some of these relate to business affairs not having anything to do with the present investigation, but all of them show that as Speaker of the House he was deeply involved in railroads always in need of legislation, while one or two look more like direct corruption than anything else. It appears from one of the two letters dated October 4, 1869, that in the March session of that year (Mr. Blaine's first term as Speaker) a bill renewing the land-grant to the State of Arkansas for the Little Rock road came up, and an attempt was made to saddle the bill with a fatal amendment not germane to its purpose. According to Mr. Blaine's letter, "Root and the other members from Arkansas, who were doing their best for their own bill, were in despair," and quite naturally, for, says Mr. Blaine, "it was well known," if the attempt had succeeded, "the whole thing would have gone on the table (in the Senate) and slept the sleep of death." Root came to Blaine and asked what he could do, and Blaine got him out of the scrape by sending his own page to General Logan, and telling the latter to make the point that the amendment was not germane. This was done, the point was sustained by Mr. Blaine, and the bill at once passed. In this way the land-grant, which was the basis for the subsequent speculation, was secured. Almost immediately afterward (June 29), we find Mr. Blaine writing to Warren Fisher, "Your offer to admit me to a participation in the new railroad enterprise is in every respect as generous as I could expect or desire," and suggesting that, if Caldwell desires to dispose of an interest in it, he should "make the proposition definite"; and making the following offer of services, the nature of which may be inferred: "I do not feel that I shall prove a deadhead in the enterprise, if I once embark in it. I see various channels in which I know I can be useful." The negotiations with the Little Rock road now began, and it is evident that Caldwell did not do all that Blaine expected, for on October 4 he writes the letter to Warren Fisher, giving the history of the passage of the land-grant act by his assistance, and suggesting to Fisher to tell the story to Caldwell, and point out to him that he (Blaine) had, without knowing it at the time, done him "a great favor." Not satisfied with this, he writes another letter on the same subject on the same day, in which he refers to Fisher's advice to him "to make as much as I [Mr. Blaine] fairly can" out of the "arrangement," and replies that it would be only "natural" for him to do his "utmost to this end." As these letters contain the real history of the transaction, it is interesting to turn to Mr. Blaine's explanation on the floor of the House a month ago, and see how far the two agree. He there represented that the Little Rock "Company derived its life, franchise, and value wholly from the State of Arkansas." It now appears that in 1869 he represented to the projectors of the road that the land-grant was due to the Congressional act of that year and to his own exertions in their behalf. It appears also that he was "let into" the road immediately after these exertions, so that his first statement, that he invested in the securities as he might in any others, is completely exploded. In fact, the letters are a very damaging exposure.

Under these circumstances, the shouting of his friends over his "pluck" and his chastisement of the Democrats is amazing. His newspaper defenders talk as if he were a criminal on trial, who is perfectly justified in any audacious move by which he can escape the penitentiary—the fact being that he is a candidate for the Presidency of the United States, who has been working hard for the nomination, and whose integrity has never been impeached until now, and that what the public want to know is not whether he ought to be in the penitentiary, but whether he is, as he ought to be, a person so stainless and so far above reproach that the chief-magistracy of this great nation, with its vast powers, may, in a time of great corruption and disorder, be safely committed to his hands. From this point of view, his deep sense of the privacy of private letters, and his unwillingness to let the world read a harmless and honorable business correspondence, and his eager committal of his honor to the custody of Messrs. Black and Carpenter, followed by his cool production, as proofs of his innocence, of evidence directly to the contrary, wear the appearance of sorry farce. There appears to be no question that he sold Little Rock and Fort Smith bonds on commission, and this suggests the enquiry whether he was not selling the Northern Pacific "interest" on commission too.

The Reform Club of this city, which comprises all the best Republicans in it, has held a meeting and appointed a very strong

delegation to go to Cincinnati and present an address to the Convention, and to work for the nomination of Bristow. The address sets forth that this State is the real "battle-ground of the canvass"; that the people want the Republican party to remain in power only on condition that the promises of specie payment and civil-service reform made in 1872 shall be fulfilled; that the first has only resulted in a further pledge to resume in 1879, and that the other promise, "after some beneficent experiments," has been "openly, wilfully, and totally broken by Congress and the President"; that the long delay in resuming specie payments keeps the business of the country depressed; and that the neglect to reform the civil service exposes the country to a greater peril, and has, in this State, resulted in the formation of an "odious and intolerant oligarchy" of office-holders which "menaces the very system of our Government." The address declares the belief of the Club that a great majority of the people distrust the Democrats, but, at the same time, predicts that if the Convention neglects to prove by its platform and nominations that the "flagrant decay of official faith and integrity which has occurred during the present Federal Administration is not the fault of the Republican party itself, but of unfaithful servants," the Democrats will carry the election; demands the nomination of candidates "whose lives afford a more trustworthy pledge than the resolutions of any convention" that they will be real reformers; insists that the "sacred pledge" of resumption in 1879 shall be carried out; that the appointing power shall be taken from Congress and restored to the Executive, and terms of office made dependent upon honesty and capacity.

An enormous quantity of evidence has been taken as to Secretary Robeson by the Naval Investigating Committee, the sum and substance of which is as follows: When Mr. Robeson entered public life in 1869, he was a poor man, not having $20,000 in the world, and no means of support except a small country practice as a lawyer. At about the same time he entered into relations of a confidential character with the firm of A. G. Cattell & Co., engaged in the "grain and flour commission" business, with a capital of about $30,000, no profits, and having no connection with the navy. It appears from the evidence of the Cattells themselves that their commission business, since Mr. Robeson came into office, has consisted almost entirely of levying heavy percentages on all the contracts with the Navy Department, the contractors paying the money because of the Cattells' supposed influence with the Secretary. It also appears that there have been large money transactions between them and the Secretary, whose bank deposits have swollen from almost nothing when he went into the Treasury to the sum of $319,000 deposited with three separate banking-houses between April 4, 1872, and April 4, 1876; that Mr. Robeson's property at Long Branch was paid for by E. G. Cattell; that he gave Mr. Robeson $3,000, which is entered under the mysterious head of "gratuity account"; that Mrs. Robeson made private purchases of one of the contractors whom the Cattells bled, the contractors taking off a certain percentage from the face of the bills paid by Robeson; that the book-keeping of the firm is so confused as to be unintelligible, and papers of importance have been destroyed, while sums as large as $180,000 are entered in a lump, without reference to the items composing them. The Cattells, of course, deny that Robeson was in any way privy to their "commission business," but this is almost incredible.

The dead-lock on the appropriations between the two Houses of Congress still looks threatening, and there are only three weeks left before the beginning of a new fiscal year in which to remove the difficulty. This really arises not from the necessity of the case, because the Republicans in the Senate are willing enough to make reasonable reductions in the estimates, but from the anxiety of the Democrats that the reductions shall appear to have been caused by a burning Democratic thirst for reform and a truly anti-Republican zeal for economy. Mr. Randall, who at the beginning of the session announced that the expenses were to be cut down $40,000,000, has lately been giving out that a terrible discrepancy is going to show itself at the end of the current year between last year's estimates of receipts and the actual income of the Treasury. But the best authorities make this deficiency only five or six millions. The Senate has voted to keep the President's salary at $50,000 a year, and has also passed a bill for the return of the Japanese indemnity, providing, curiously enough, that the principal of the fund shall be returned, but the accumulations of interest retained by the United States. On what principle this is done it is hard to say, and will probably be still harder to explain to the Japanese, inasmuch as our returning the principal is a distinct recognition of our liability for the accumulations of the fund, as Mr. Edmunds insisted during the debate. The House has passed the Army Reduction Bill, and a new attempt to repeal the Resumption Act has failed, owing to an adverse opinion of the chair on a point of order, the ruling being sustained by the House. On Tuesday, however, by a vote of 115 to 97, the House amended its rules in favor of the Committee on Banking and Currency, empowering it to report any bill relating to the currency at any time. This measure was adopted in the Democratic caucus, and it means that the soft-money men will make a successful attempt to repeal the Resumption Act, so far as the House can do it, before the meeting of the St. Louis Convention.

The minority report of the Senate Committee on the Pacific Railroads brings out the imbecility and impotence of the Government in its dealings with them more clearly than the report of the majority. The sum and substance of the minority's argument is that the Government has no security for its loan, that principles of common honesty and respect for vested rights forbid it to alter its agreement with the roads contained in the original statutes, and, therefore, it will do well to make the best arrangement with the Companies it can. There is no single point in the history of the contest between the Government and the roads in which the former has not been ignominiously defeated, no act passed by Congress which has not thoroughly undermined the public interests, and no lawsuit arisen in which the terms of the contract have not turned out to be so favorable to the Companies that it might as well have been enacted by them instead of by their Congressional tools. Nominally, the security of the United States for the $64,000,000 advanced to the lines was, first, a mortgage of the property, second, a lien of 5 per cent. of the net earnings, and, third, half the Government transportation money. Actually, the mortgage turns out to be a second mortgage, and the interest on it, instead of being payable, as all other mortgage interest is, semi-annually, is payable (this has been decided by the Supreme Court) on the maturity of the bonds, when the Companies conclusively prove they shall not have the money to pay it with; and this leaves the 5 per cent. of earnings and half the transportation money as the totally inadequate sources for the accumulation of a fund which in twenty or thirty years ought to amount to $150,000,000. There has not been the slightest pretence of any attempt on the part of the Companies to accumulate a fund for the payment of the money advanced by the Government, and everybody knows that a great part of the money so advanced was, at least in the case of the Union Pacific road, not used in building the line, but corruptly distributed as "dividends" among the stockholders of a parasitic corporation, composed of the proprietors of the road and a number of Congressmen, who pocketed the money as their wages for conniving at the swindle.

Captain J. B. Eads, who is building the jetties at the mouth of the Mississippi, has become involved in an unfortunate and unnecessary dispute with Major Howell, of the United States Engineers, who was, with General Humphreys, one of the advocates of the Fort St. Philip Canal. The grant obtained by Captain Eads from the Government (one of the least objectionable that ever passed through Congress) stipulates that nothing is to be paid him unless he succeeds in securing twenty feet of water through the South Pass to the Gulf within the specified time. Now, Captain Eads declares that the work is going on in the most encouraging manner, that he has already got sixteen feet, so that the

largest coasting steamers have been sent to sea over the bar, "on which scarcely eight feet of water could be found last year." Major Howell, on the other hand, declares in a published letter that there are only twelve feet of water at the South Pass, that the "nucleus of a new bar" exists in front of the jetties, that a shoal is making out to this nucleus, and that in short the jetties are doing no good. Against all this Captain Eads brings certificates from his engineers that Major Howell's statements are unfounded, and he protests against his enterprise being embarrassed by officers having no immediate connection with the work, and has written a letter to the Secretary of War, begging that any further interference on the part of such officers be prevented, and that instructions be issued to the inspecting officer authorized by the Jetty Act to furnish him directly with any information as to the result of the work he may need, and that he be ordered to report to the Secretary of War instead of to the Chief of Engineers. Whether this is desirable or not we do not know; but it is certainly a great mistake to allow engineer officers in the employment of General Humphreys, who is known to have no faith in the jetty system, to write letters to the newspapers ridiculing the experiment when the department of the service to which they belong stands in a judicial attitude to the undertaking. This, at any rate, ought to be stopped.

The Committee appointed by the Bar Association to investigate the charges against Mr. Charles O'Conor—if there can be said to be charges where the only person interested declines to make any, and expresses a feeling of profound gratitude to the person accused—has made a report completely exonerating Mr. O'Conor; declaring him to have acted throughout the Forrest case with a delicate sense of professional honor, to have taken no improper or excessive fees—in fact, to have taken very moderate fees—and to have never given anybody any right to suppose that he intended acting gratuitously.

Money continues to pile up in the New York banks, and they now hold a surplus reserve of $16,500,000, which is about $500,000 less than the surplus reserve held a year ago, and about $5,000,000 less than that held at the beginning of June, 1874. The only anxiety which money-lenders have, as to the next ninety days, is how to employ their money without risk at 3 to 4 per cent. At the Stock Exchange the week has witnessed an advance in securities, bonds, and stocks, and this while there have been further reductions in the rates of the trunk-line railroads and the telegraph companies. The railroads which mine as well as carry coal have, in order to sustain their securities, agreed to diminish production for sixty days—a step which evokes hostility from every branch of industry that uses coal, as well as from the great body of small consumers. Owing to the gravity of the political complications in Europe the foreign markets for securities have drooped, with the result of stiffening the price of gold here. The range of our paper "dollar," measured by the gold standard, was, during the week, from .8898 to .8869.

Abdul Aziz has been kind enough to his nephew and successor to take himself off by opening his veins with a pair of scissors—a fact to which nineteen physicians, of different nationalities, have testified in writing, but which, we presume, many people, remembering the old Turkish customs, will hesitate about believing. At all events, the way is thus made somewhat plainer for Murad, who has not yet been recognized by the Great Powers, but probably will be now without delay. Abdul Aziz appears to have been hoarding great sums of money, besides his frightful outlay on his harem and palaces. These leaks will now be stopped, the civil list probably fixed at a moderate sum, and the harem abolished—a reform which the reformers ought, above all things, to insist upon. In fact, it would not be unreasonable for the Great Powers to refuse to recognize a polygamous monarch as their equal. We have endeavored elsewhere to give some reasons for believing that Murad will turn out no better than his uncle, and that the Ottoman Empire is in its last days. What most excites public curiosity at this moment is the part England is going to play in the mêlée. The general belief is that she will resist any attempt at aggrandizement on the part of Russia; that Germany will probably not be sorry to have her take this position; and that somehow the imbroglio will end to the advantage of Austria.

Lord Stratford de Redcliffe, who was for so many years English Minister at Constantinople, and for the greater part of his stay exercised paramount influence in the counsels of the Sultan, and has been celebrated by Kinglake in the History of the Crimean War as "the Great Eltchi," has sent a plan of Turkish salvation to the London *Times*, in which, after tracing the decline of Turkey since the abortive attack of Solyman on Vienna, he proposes equality before the law; the admission of all, both Christians and Turks, into the army; the admission of the members of the two creeds, in equal numbers, to the Council of State and all other secular councils; the general recognition of religious freedom; the infliction of punishment or forfeiture by due process of law only; the establishment of a board of trade containing a fair proportion of foreigners; and the embodiment of all these reforms in a convention between the Sultan and the Western Powers, the execution of them to be superintended by a mixed responsible Commission. There is nothing very new in this scheme; what is remarkable about it is that it emanates from perhaps the most hopeful and powerful friend the Turks have ever had, and one who knows the secret of their strength and weakness better than perhaps any other living statesman. That such a man should propose that the Western Powers should assume part of the task of governing Turkey, is a sure sign that things are in a bad way.

The Khedive has issued a decree in support of his credit providing for the organization of a Supreme Council of the Treasury, containing ten members—five foreigners and five natives. The first section, which will be composed of three foreigners, will have the inspection of the central treasury and the supervision of its accounts, and the whole Council have apparently unlimited powers of enquiry into the finances of the state, and the right to examine and amend the budget submitted to it by the Minister of Finance at the close of every financial year. The task of organizing the Council is committed to Signor Scialoja, a member of the Italian Senate, and an able financier. There can be no doubt of the value of this arrangement as a means of restoring Egyptian credit, but it furnishes another curious illustration of the way in which the semi-barbarous states are passing, through their economical necessities, under the control of the great commercial Powers.

In Spain the question of religious toleration seems in a fair way of being settled, the Cortes having, as we said some weeks ago, adopted Article 11 of the Constitution, and the Papal Legate, Mgr. Simeoni, having taken his departure in disgust. The question of the Biscayan and Navarrese *fueros* is more difficult to manage. The delegates who went down to Madrid to negotiate with Señor Canovas were inexorable in their refusal to come under the common law, but he would hear of no compromise, and probably by this time the duties in those provinces have been raised from 6 per cent. to 27 per cent. as in the rest of Spain, the free trade in tobacco is gone, and they will have to supply conscripts to the army. The question whether they will submit without resistance has been causing much anxiety, but the probability is that their exhaustion in the service of Don Carlos will leave them no alternative. The discussion of the budget has brought out charges of gross corruption in the management of the Treasury since 1869, and a commission of enquiry consisting of twenty-one members has been appointed. We have little doubt the disorders of the last seven years have given plenty of occasion for peculation and fraud, and that our own corruptionists will be in a few months telling us joyously, "Why, these things occur everywhere, only in monarchical countries they are covered up. Look at England in the days of Walpole, look at the Duke de Saldanha, and look at Spain. The fact is that our press, etc., etc."

MR. BLAINE'S APOLOGISTS.

THE fact that Mr. Blaine is a candidate for the Presidency is leading some respectable newspapers into defences of him which are likely to do a good deal of mischief with regard to things much more important than his or any man's reputation. One does not need to form any opinion about the guilt or innocence of his dealings in stocks and bonds in order to be fully satisfied that he was at least very imprudent, and has placed himself in positions which lay him open to grave suspicion—and this, in a public man of his pretensions, is a very serious matter, and is not to be met or disposed of by denunciations of "scandal-mongers" and wild asseverations that he has done nothing wrong, or nothing more than "every citizen has a right to do." Some of those who are indulging in this sort of talk on Mr. Blaine's behalf only indulge in it because his reputation is part of the party capital, but then it helps to blunt the moral sense of the community and to make bad and dangerous precedents. We must at this crisis keep up our standards of official propriety, no matter who suffers by it. The rules which govern the conduct of men in public life are of enormous importance; the number of candidates we have for the Presidency is of very little. We may add, too, that this is not the time for wholesale abuse of "tale-bearers" and "slanderers," or for holy indignation over these assaults on the characters of our public men. We know of nothing, we repeat, and nothing has come to light during the past year, to relieve our politicians from the necessity of answering charges. Several of them have been successfully accused of corruption in one form or another, and we all perceive that there is so much corruption abroad that nobody is now above suspicion, and it is a necessary condition of reform that no accusation should be treated as too improbable for examination. Each case has, in the present condition of affairs, to be examined on its merits, without any preliminary rolling of eyes or holding up of the hands over the prevailing love of defamation. The crisis is too serious for cant of any kind. When we consider that the present Chairman of the Senate Committee on Foreign Affairs has once been proved guilty of corruption, and had to leave the Cabinet on account of it; that the late Secretary and Assistant-Secretary of the Treasury have had to retire from public life for corruption, or connivance at corrupt practices, and the late Secretary of the Interior shared the same fate; that the President's Private Secretary has had to resign his office for a similar reason; that a late Vice-President retired under suspicion of taking money, and lying about it; that the late Secretary of War is under indictment for corruption; that the President's brother has confessed to trading in offices given him by the President; that $25,000 of a railroad corruption fund was traced to the pockets of the International Commissioner sent to Europe by the Centennial Commission; and that the late Minister to England has been convicted of lending his name to fraudulent speculators—we cannot help feeling amazed at the uproar which some people are making about the widespread readiness to believe evil about public men. There is nothing wonderful about it. It is natural, and it may be made useful. It is not an outbreak of envy, hatred, or malice. It is the wholesome vigilance of a master who has found that his servants have been robbing him; and it ought to last until every one against whom aught can be said has proved himself above reproach. It assails nobody who is not in office or seeking office; any man who chooses can avoid these investigations by retiring into private life and staying there. Moreover, it is usually ascribed to an "unscrupulous" or "unbridled" press. But why so? Most of the "statesmen" who have been recently brought to grief by exposure were not first assailed by the press or hunted down by it. Cameron fell before Congressional investigation; so did Richardson; so did Sawyer; so did Belknap; so did Colfax. Delano was slain by a college professor; Orville Grant criminated himself; Babcock was laid low by the Grand Jury and the District Attorney. The *Nation* has pursued Schenck since 1872, but he was finally brought to justice by a Congressional enquiry. In fact, it is difficult to say who the innocent victims of newspaper assaults are. We have asked repeatedly to have one of them named, but have never succeeded in getting any reply. There have been charges made against many persons by newspapers, it is true, but who is the upright man who has suffered by them? Mr. E. P. Smith, of the Indian Commission, figured in this rôle for a while, until he fell into Professor Marsh's hands, who remorselessly tore off the disguise. There is no clean-handed person in public life who cannot defy the press or disregard it. It may, if he is sensitive, destroy his comfort for a day or two, but this is the worst he has to fear from it. His character and, let us add, his reputation are beyond its power.

Mr. Blaine, therefore, is entitled to no privileges or consideration as a martyr. He is undergoing no examination that is not legitimate and reasonable. His accusers have given no sign of special malevolence towards him, and the public is not unduly inquisitive about his affairs. The American people have a right to know for certain whether a man who, at this great crisis in the history of the Government, offers himself for the highest office in the state, has prostituted any office he has filled, or betrayed any public trust reposed in him, or has been mixed up in any of the corrupt dealings between speculators and politicians which have been so prominent a feature in our domestic affairs during the last ten years. The process of finding this out may not be pleasant or savory either for the individual or the public, but we are sure it is wholesome; and we must protest, therefore, against the newspapers helping any candidate to escape enquiry under cover of irrelevant denunciation of all accusations whatever.

It ought not to be forgotten, and we see that Mr. Blaine himself has not forgotten it, that the position of a legislator towards persons who are calling, or are likely to call, for the exercise of his powers for their private benefit, is essentially a judicial position. He has to decide between them and the public. His first duty is, therefore, not to accept favors from them, or put himself under any obligations to them, or become interested in the success of their enterprises. If it be said that this rule would cut a member of Congress off from a great many good and innocent investments, we answer that it would no doubt, but that this is one of the inconveniences of public life which men who like public life ought to be prepared to face, and which nobody who cares more for money than for legislation is compelled to undergo. In other words, a member of Congress, or a foreign minister, or a judge, or the President, has not "the same right as any other citizen to invest his money where he pleases." He may invest it in ways that would bring his public duty into conflict with his private interest; and even if he was sure that his conscience would triumph over his interest, he has no right to shake the confidence of the people in their government by laying himself open to reasonable, natural, and almost unavoidable suspicion.

Applying all this to Mr. Blaine's lately published letter to Mr. Fisher in connection with his subsequent explanation of it—we shall not now touch on the parole evidence in the enquiry pending at Washington—we find that he, in the first place, acknowledges himself to be engaged in inducing his personal friends to purchase an interest in a land-grant road, which interest, he declares, he "cannot touch" (that is, become possessed of) himself because of his position as a legislator. But, then, the reasons which prevented his becoming a proprietor himself obviously forbade his selling to others. The value of the interest in the Northern Pacific Railroad was in 1870 altogether prospective. When Mr. Blaine, therefore, induced his friends to purchase it on his solicitation and recommendation, he thereby created a strong reason for his desiring that it should prove profitable, and a reason which might fairly be thought likely to affect his integrity as Speaker of the House should the Company come before Congress for further aid. The impropriety of this preliminary step in the transaction is, therefore, as plain as possible, although we are assuming that he received for his sales of bonds no commission from the vendor of the "interest." That Mr.

Blaine himself should not see it, and that papers like the New York *Tribune* and the Boston *Advertiser* should not be able to point it out to him, is little short of alarming. But, then, he adds that "a strange revolution of circumstances" had for a second time given him the "control of an interest." This, again, is calculated to give rise to suspicion. There are only two ways in which the Speaker of the House could "control" an interest in a railroad, by purchase or by gift. Purchase, Mr. Blaine acknowledges, would have been improper, and a gift from the promoters of the road would have been a bribe. What conclusion, then, are we to hold about the "strange revolution of circumstances"? Moreover, the connection of the Speaker of the House with a land-grant road ought not to need secresy. If it is legitimate, it may be made public. Why, therefore, is Mr. Blaine not at liberty to tell from whom he obtained the interest which he proposed to sell to his Boston friends, and why did he request these friends, when "conferring about the matter," to "keep his name quiet"? The *Tribune* tries to dispose of all this on Mr. Blaine's behalf by saying that all that Mr. Blaine did in this whole transaction was to "advise a personal friend to 'go in on the ground floor' and tell him of a chance to do it." But, in point of fact, he offered to show him the door, and open it for him, and pay over the money for him; and, in advising him to "go in on the ground floor," he tacitly bound himself, if the opportunity offered, to make "the ground floor" a pleasant place for his friend to be. The "ground floor" is the slang term in which railroad operators describe the first division of the stock among the projectors and their friends, which is usually made at a very low or nominal rate, the money to build the road being usually provided by the sale of bonds. We do not know of any solid objection that can be made to the transaction where the building of the road is an ordinary commercial undertaking, in which individuals stake their money or credit, and get what profit they can. But in the case of roads like the Pacific lines, built mainly by Government aid, "the ground floor" was not a reputable place. On the contrary, it has been during the last ten years a haunt of gamblers, jobbers, and "confidence men," full of dead men's bones and all uncleanness, to which an upright and public-spirited citizen would be loth either to go himself or advise his friends to go. We are sorry to think that the Speaker of the House should have been there, or have been running about trying to get his friends to enter it, but we are sorrier still to find newspapers on which the public must at this juncture look for light and guidance in the formation of its judgments, trying to get people to believe that there was nothing wrong about it. Mr. Blaine's course is not half as mischievous as that of his apologists.

THE TURKISH REVOLUTION.

THERE is not much probability that the change of Sultans at Constantinople will work any essential change in the situation, though courtesy requires the Great Powers to wait and see before insisting on the acceptance of the Gortchakoff Note, of the contents of which we gave a summary last week. It will probably bring some slight relief to the treasury by furnishing money from the hoards of Abdul Aziz to pay the salaries of the Government employés at the capital, and perhaps to supply something also for the troops; but it is very improbable that it will bring about any serious or permanent reform. This would be true even if the evils from which Turkey is suffering were political merely, and not also social and religious. A fruitful revolution of any sort would hardly be possible with civil war raging in the provinces and the Government bankrupt, and foreign powers more than half ready for a partition of the empire—no matter what the character of the governing class. With the governing class what it is in Turkey, such a revolution may be pronounced wholly out of the question. The hopes which are now cherished about Murad were cherished also about Abdul Aziz, and the first year or two of his reign seemed to justify them, but they are just as sure to be disappointed in the former case as in the latter. The education both of the boys of the imperial family in Turkey and of those of the high officials is utterly destructive of all energy or persistence, and is devoid of all elevating traditions and of all discipline. If men capable of such tasks as the restoration of the Turkish Empire could be bred in the harem, it would make one doubtful whether Western civilization was not in great part based on a delusion. The son of a sultan or of a wealthy pasha is brought up among a crowd of ignorant women, of whom his mother is one, and who, he finds out at a very early age, have been collected by his father for purposes of sensual gratification, and are guarded like cattle. The very first lesson of life which he learns is that the chief advantage of power and riches lies in the opportunity they afford for sloth and licentiousness, and the earliest present he receives from his parents as he approaches manhood is apt to be a female slave, who is euphemistically called "a wife." Of late years, efforts have been made to give to youths bred in a nursery of this sort a French or English education; but we believe we are within the mark when we say that in not one case out of a hundred have they succeeded. The young Turk who is sent abroad, or supplied with French or English tutors, acquires one or two foreign languages, a smattering perhaps of some science and of military tactics—not strategy—and at the same time loses his confidence in his own creed and race. But we doubt if it has been found possible to implant in any of those on whom the experiment has been tried the seeds of high ambition or of great aims, or to create in them any capacity for manly self-denial, or a willingness to submit to any sort of physical or moral discipline. The process of deterioration in the imperial family has been retarded partly by the practice of marrying Circassian women, and partly by the strong fire of religious fanaticism and race-pride which, down almost to our own time, has burnt around the throne, and has been fed by the manly but ferocious simplicity of the Mussulman populace and peasantry. But, within the last forty years, the poison of the harem education has worked with almost unobstructed force. Abdul Medjid was a worn-out young man when he ascended the throne, and dragged out the remainder of his days in a condition of feeble submission to exceptionally able ministers. Abdul Aziz had apparently a stronger constitution, and had a greater appearance of vigor at his accession, but the unsoundness and immaturity of his mental and moral nature showed themselves rapidly when he found himself in possession of power and money. There is no good reason for thinking that Murad will do any better. His antecedents are exactly the same as those of his father and uncle. He has none of the only sure foundation of character, which comes of being bred in an atmosphere of decency and self-restraint. A brave, martial, fanatical, and conquering race, such as the Turks once were, might make such rulers serve their purpose; but a race which repeated defeat and a growing sense of inferiority in war have cowed and made self-distrustful, cannot be saved by substituting one harem-taught youth for another.

The intervention of the Softas—who are a large body of hangers-on of the mosques, nominally students of theology, and candidates for the official positions of a theological character, and are supported in a meagre way out of the ecclesiastical endowments, their name being a corruption of the Greek—has on the surface an appearance of the growth among the Mussulmans of a healthy view of the condition of the empire, inasmuch as they call for a National Council to take part in the government, and for the limitation of the Sultan's civil list and the removal of the treasury from his control. But a council which would satisfy the Mussulmans would never satisfy the Christians; and, indeed, it is difficult to conceive of delegates from two races whose moral and political outlook is so widely different meeting in rational consultation on any political question. But, at all events, whatever value the scheme might have had in more peaceful times, or before Turkey began to borrow money, it is too late now to construct any political machine of the slightest complexity, and no limitation of the Sultan's authority as regards the finances will be effective as long as there is no legislative assembly possessing complete freedom of speech and supported by public opinion. Without these guarantees of economy and accountability, monarchical budgets are apt to be mere farces. Even

in a country as highly civilized as France, the subserviency of the Corps Législatif and the Senate to the Emperor left the executive the practical control of the treasury, and enabled it to treat the appropriations made by the legislature as forms only, to be followed if convenient, but not otherwise. No national council that could be summoned by the Turkish Government at this crisis would have anybody but the Mussulman population behind it, and it is not Mussulman discontent now which is formidable, nor is it Mussulman support which is needed to sustain the Government. Indeed, the Mussulman population, so far from being capable of becoming an instrument of reform, is itself "part of the thing to be reformed," as has been well said of some would-be reformers among ourselves. There is every sign, too, that, in spite of the polite delay for the purpose of seeing what the new Sultan will do, the Western Powers all begin to recognize that the Turkish problem is on the eve of a violent solution of some kind; and there is, since the murder of the consuls in Salonica and the recent alarms at Constantinople, more or less anxious discussion in the European press as to what the Turkish population will do when it finds that it is actually going to lose its political supremacy and sink into equality with, or perhaps inferiority to, the Christians. Some incline to the belief that it will give expression to its despair in the way in which it has so often given vent to its discontent—by massacres of Christians—and that the final overthrow of the Sultan's authority will be marked by frightful atrocities, which will put the lives of Christians in danger all over the empire, even in those places in which they are in a majority, owing to their long habit of submission, their want of familiarity with the use of arms, and their traditional dread of Turkish ferocity. Others, again, believe that the Turkish fanaticism has so far declined that it now would only show itself in resignation, and that it would not excite any resistance to irresistible force, and that the expulsion of the Caliphs from Europe would probably prove a tame and commonplace affair, totally unworthy, as far as picturesqueness goes, of the strange historical episode of which it would form the close. This view is supported by the readiness with which the Mussulmans have submitted to English rule in India and to French rule in Algeria, and are submitting to Russian rule in Central Asia, and with which the Mussulman population has retired from the lost provinces in Europe. But it is, on the other hand, opened to question by the fact that heretofore the losses of Islam have been on its frontiers. It has receded from many countries it once held, and here and there large bodies of Mussulmans have had to make their submission to Christian rulers, but never until now has the Caliph been ousted or compelled to change his capital by infidel arms. It is in this that the bitterness of an abandonment of Constantinople would lie. The Koran and the sword are so intimately connected in the minds of devout Mohammedans—the public Friday prayer is offered by the khatib in all cities which have been acquired by capture with his hand resting on the hilt of a sabre—that they cannot console themselves, as the Christian nations can, for temporal losses by considering them quite consistent with vast spiritual gain. The fall of Constantinople, or the retirement from it of the Sultan, would therefore probably produce throughout the Mussulman world, from Cape Verde to the coast of New Guinea, and from Mozambique to Lithuania, a sensation almost as profound as that which Christendom felt when the news spread that the Eastern Empire had gone down before Mahomet the Second. For all trustworthy observers agree in the opinion that the religious zeal has of late years been growing among Mussulmans everywhere, in spite of their steady loss of political power. With the English masters of India, the Russians of Central Asia, and the French of Algeria, and with Persia, Egypt, and Morocco reduced to the rank of British dependencies, and the Sultan relegated to a remnant of dominion in Asia Minor for the duration of which he would be largely dependent on whatever power held Constantinople, the creed of the Prophet would enter on a new and very interesting phase in its history, and one in which its vitality would be subjected to the severest of all tests.

The latest news at this writing seems to indicate that the situation has really passed beyond the control of the diplomatists, and that the open participation of Servia and Montenegro, and perhaps Greece and Wallachia, in the fray will precipitate the crisis. Of course there will then be nothing left for the three Powers but prompt action. If they suppressed the insurrection, they would be bound to govern in some fashion the revolted provinces. They could not hand them over to Turkey without exercising such supervision of their affairs as would be tantamount to actual administration, and of course any interference at all may cause a burst of despairing fanaticism on the part of the Turks. Then, too, the intentions of England are veiled in mystery. She has refused to join in the Gortchakoff Note, and is making naval preparations in the Mediterranean, which may mean either that she intends to prevent, if she can, the Allies from forcing Turkey's hand, or, what is more probable—for even Disraeli can hardly mean to engage Austria, Germany, and Russia single-handed—to take care that the Suez Canal is not meddled with. In fact, the state of affairs is so complicated that almost any prediction seems plausible.

THE INTERNATIONAL EXHIBITION.—III.

BRITISH PAINTINGS.—II.

PHILADELPHIA, June 5, 1876.

CONTEMPORARY British art is less known to the people of this country than old Egyptian, or Etruscan, or, we might say, Cypriote and Mexican. The English engravers are popular, but the sculptors and painters are more strange to us than those of China and Japan. In the years just preceding the war, Mr. Gambart several times sent over his agents, Mr. Frodsham and Mr. Crofts, with invoices of British pictures for sale; they did not sell, and are now forgotten, while Mr. Gambart has not resumed the attempt, and the exhibition-pictures in Philadelphia strike with all the rudeness of novelty. This, of course, as regards those art-amateurs who are not travellers. The surprise is, it must be owned, a shock. A whole system of color is suddenly revealed which, to the eye trained in Continental methods and the long tradition of the schools, is exceedingly crude and aggressive; the arts by which texture and surface may be given are so generally ignored that no sort of effort seems to be made to translate quality. "Purist" painters go on turning out landscape after landscape and still-life after still-life, each of which is mere enumeration, apparently perfectly secure in self-respect so long as enumeration is made faithfully and statistically; they will paint, evidently from nature, sky after sky and foreground after foreground, without ever seeming to have observed that the peculiarity of the light in the sky is its vibrating effect on the eye, or that foreground objects are massed and subordinated when the vision is directed to the natural point of sight. These singularities, defined in a word, impart, when extended to a whole school of painting, a minute and variegated trouble. Hardly a picture is exhibited which, to the eye habituated to explore in painting its master-charm—quality and tone—does not impart a wound. Among these works which distress so much while they so strongly interest, are seen those paintings of tone-masters which have been acclimated in England, and whose authors have been made at home there with true and generous hospitality—Dutchmen like Alma Tadema, or Americans like Boughton or Whistler. Mr. Tadema's pictures are now criticised with very high appreciation in the London journals, though it was not observed that they met with quite such distinguished approval during the long years when their author exhibited in Paris. They are, to leave their archæological qualities aside for a moment, usually masterpieces of quality; their research of textures often reaches the verge of trickiness. They hang among the native English pictures like exponents of an undreamed-of culture, smiting right and left with the most humiliating force of contrast. Even the works of Mr. Boughton, a man of more limited range than some Englishmen, shine delightfully among the British canvases, because he expresses quality and has acquired style; his "God Speed" and "Going to Seek his Fortune" (the latter strayed among the American pictures, as the great "Gilbert Stuart" has strayed among the English) would not be so conspicuous for merit among a culled American series of pictures as they are here; his skies are not overpoweringly luminous beside Mr. McEntee's skies, his figures are not more distinguished than some of Mr. Hunt's or some of Mr. Johnson's; but in an English exhibition Mr. Boughton's works certainly do glow with a noticeable light

among their neighbors. It is because Mr. Boughton attacks his subjects as problems in the art of painting; the peculiarities of this art are what he grapples with and tries to conquer; he never uses a canvas without making it a field for the exercise of the craft and mystery of painting. This habit, which would seem obviously proper, and which fortunately is not so very rare in our own school as it is in England, would really seem to be the last thing that a British oil-color artist takes account of. In scores of canvases here we find a decent attention paid to design, or the qualities that shine in an engraving or a photograph; we find a respectable attention paid to the sculptural qualities of form, posture, and anatomy; we find a warm, sympathetic attention paid to the quality of drama, the way in which an anecdote is put; but to oil-painting, the special effects within its competency, and the triumphs which it has wrested from its sister arts, we see the most amazing indifference. This gives us the most peculiar feelings in encountering the subjects made familiar to everybody by engravings. In the case of these we are confounded to find that, as between the artist and his engraver, the engraver has positively said everything for him that he had to say at all; there is nothing in color, nothing in brushing, nothing in quality, nothing in his vehicles, values, and tones, that the painter had a mission for, or about which he had a message to deliver. The work seems to have been conceived in his mind as a monochrome—that is, an engraving; the qualities beside that make it an oil-picture seem to have been thrown in with fatigue, and weigh down the work with deformity. These works, it is to be noted, are the works of men of consideration, artists of great inventive and constructive power, whose fame, as extended by the arts of engraving and printing, is justly great. It is amazing beyond expression to see men of this importance deliberately addicting themselves for whole lifetimes to an art in which they are evident failures or abortions—an art which does not come into true being until it receives its complement in the engraver's burin—like those gases which cannot be made luminous until common air is mixed with them, or, in a stricter comparison, like a gas which only becomes visible when some of its components are extracted, leaving its *chiaroscuro* qualities to act alone. One would say: Why not be logical, and cling to work in light and shade, rather than waste existence in the path of oil-painting, which national temperament has strewn with so many griefs for them?

The British exposition, then—certainly an assemblage of the national élite, and numbering almost twice as many as the British section at Paris, and almost thrice as many as with the same nationality at Vienna—shows a strange, wilful attention to only two or three out of the many qualities comprised in what Herr Klesmer has taught us to call *plastik* (though we must own, by the bye, that when we find Herr Klesmer pronouncing with the same orotund confidence opinions on *plastik*, in which his nation are the blindworms of Europe, and opinions on music, in which they are the leaders, we falter in faith towards Herr Klesmer). The interest we feel in the British show of paintings, so large, rich, and adequate as it is, is found to be entangled by almost every excellence but *painting* excellence; and this is proved not only gradually, by comparison with other painting sections, but instantly, by means of the pictures by men elsewhere educated imprisoned there by accident.

Of those artists who are considered always to have *painted up* to the complementary art of engraving, Landseer is the best known; yet here, strange to say, Sir Edwin shines not as a mere feeder to the burin, but as a true painter. The exhibition of his works is far finer than was made for Paris, where only the picture of the modern Amazon sitting on her overthrown horse was displayed—one of the weakest of his works, beyond redemption even by the engraver. In the present exhibition the famous animal-painter really shines at his very best. "The Sick Monkey" is a singularly beautiful work, good in tone, agreeable in color, and as if painted in another world from the unfortunate "*Jument Domptée*," which slew the artist so effectually at Paris; the power of bringing out noble expression by the bare, stark force of truthfulness in a type of face usually abandoned to burlesque is here a real and great power; the introduction of a selfish and greedy, grasping monkey to contrast the abnegation of the mother-ape is perhaps a little too Landseerish, but the figure builds up the composition. The hide-texture is felicitous, without being an instance of that over-felicity of Landseer's which often made him express mere hair-oil and combed silk. The other pictures include a portrait of Lord Ashburton, two life-sized sketches of lions in action, and a concession to Landseer's bad angel in a group of apes dressed or acting as men. This last is an agreeable folly enough, only objectionable as a finger-post to the artist's downward road, on which he wasted so much good art and overstrained invention; it contains a background group of a dowager-ape warning her heiress-ape against the charms of the travelled mounseer-monkey, which it is impossible to look at without losing gravity.

It is not necessary to make a catalogue of the pictures obviously painted to be mended out by the art of the engraver, and looking red and naked without that assistance. They stare from every part of every wall. It is a more gracious task to signalize some of the many works of high artistic interest. Noble conception is the unfailing sign of the progressing labors of Mr. Leighton. This artist exhibited at Paris in 1867 an unfortunate study called "Heures Précieuses," recognized by everybody as a simple portrait of Angélo, the model who poses for "têtes d'expression"; he was bending over a spinnet, and was painted rather vacuously and sentimentally, in a style similar to M. Merle's or M. Bouguereau's style, or a little inferior. The author now comes forward with three pictures, the "Eastern Slinger," "Summer Moon," and "Jew's House in Damascus." The painting, as pure painting, is still a little lower than that of MM. Merle and Bouguereau, but the conceptions have that unmistakable something that indicates the man of wide culture, genuine poesy, and penetrating strength. The "Jew's House" is particularly original, and tender and sweet in color; it is populated by figures of women, each figure an exquisite statuette; one, of a ripe Jewess holding a flower-pot, is a lovely invention. In this picture there is little or no composition; the human beings are studded around in a tableau showing just about as much arrangement and grouping as were characteristic probably of the stage in Shakspere's day. Singularly enough, this awkwardness or hardiness pleases in the case of Mr. Leighton, who is addicted to over-posturing and arrangement. His "Summer Moon" reminds one of the Parthenon Fates, and seems to promise more intensity and depth of sentiment than it is found to contain; it is a statuesque pair of poses, and nothing more; and it contains a purple patch of drapery which, if Mr. Leighton was in bondage to a dealer, as Bouguereau and Merle are to Goupil, instead of at the head of a genre in a wealthy land, would have made him go back to his studies like a chidden schoolboy, for repentance and alteration. The "Slinger," like the last-named picture, suggests a statue, this time Michael Angelo's David. One is rather puzzled at all this pomp of attitude and relief, preparing the mind for an intensely solemn Biblical subject, expended on a mere study of ethnology; in the same way that the figures of the "Summer Moon" cast themselves down upon their marble couch with a deeply tragical or epical air, preparing us for the most solemn situations of the Greek drama, whereas they have not even names, and are meant to be idyllic. To reserve his power in exact accord with the situation will be a last grace for Mr. Leighton's stately pencil to learn. Mr. Armitage is represented by his picture of "Chicago," in the lap of Britannia and America, and by his "Julian the Apostate at a Conference of Sectarians." Here is a painter who, like his instructor Delaroche, may well give half his honorarium to the engraver, for the engraver confers upon his compositions all the life they have. The ripe scorn of a cultured sceptic like Julian, brought to contrast with the narrow bigotry of schoolmen, would be a fine subject for a great artist, but it finds in him an inferior and illustrative artist, unable to give a higher expression to his philosopher than Thackeray gave to his Lord Steyne between the Anglican and Catholic priests. The color in both subjects has the national opacity and want of color; but, indeed, Delaroche was but a poor instructor in this respect. The almost universal hardness, however—the leading the eye to a dead wall every moment, and bringing it up there with a quick check and without escape—is what we must get used to betimes in the British section, for to let it pain us too much is to lose the pleasure of some very genuine qualities. We may pause a moment, though, before the "Morning among the Granite Boulders" of Mr. John Brett, excited to unusual discomfort by a pale stone sky of that inexorable and impenetrable quality Mlle. Bonheur so often afflicts us with; and remembering that this artist's remark, that "vulgarity is one of the forms of death," sank deeply once into the being of Mr. Ruskin, we may fairly ask Mr. Brett to apply his consciousness to the dead pencilling of this pale and ponderous welkin, and ask himself if lifelessness is not one of the forms of vulgarity. Mr. Brett seeks new methods and surprising procedures; he has been known to paint a landscape diagonally from corner to corner, finishing as he went along; in this picture he gives us some well-moulded pebbles, with water-wear and blue reflection upon them; but a marine in which we cannot breathe is not agreeable, unless to the fishes.

E. S.

CORONERS AND PUBLIC PROSECUTORS.

LONDON, May 23, 1876.

PUBLIC interest at the present time is divided pretty equally between the return of the Prince of Wales from India and the mysterious death of the late Mr. Bravo, a rising young barrister in the prime of a vigorous

life, who died in his own house in the neighborhood of London about a month ago under suspicious circumstances. Both these subjects of interest may be productive of results in the immediate future. The return of the Prince has already had a stimulating effect upon the depressed industries of London, and fashionable shopkeepers and tradesmen in the metropolis who were in despair over the badness of the times, have begun to raise their drooping heads under the active presence of royalty, just as the cowslips and the lilacs which were shrivelled up under seven consecutive weeks of a blighting east wind have begun to show symptoms of vitality under the soothing influence of the southwest wind and the active, not to say impetuous, torrents of rain which fell here yesterday. The results, therefore, to be expected from the first subject of public interest have already begun to show themselves, but the utmost that can be looked for from it is the temporary improvement in the material welfare of perhaps a hundred thousand inhabitants of this large metropolitan society—an important matter in its way, but hardly worth all the bustle that they are making over it. The results which may spring from the death of Mr. Bravo are of wider application, because out of the proceedings in connection with it we shall probably have a modification in the office of Coroner, and the organization of a much-needed and often-promised reform in the institution for the whole country of a Public Prosecutor. It is therefore to the latter rather than the former incident that I propose to call your attention. The Prince of Wales we have always with us, but it is of rare occurrence that people whom you meet every day are so deeply engrossed by a suspicious death as they are at present in such of the circumstances as have transpired regarding the death of this young man.

"Mr. Bravo, a barrister of about thirty years of age, married last December the wealthy widow of a Captain Ricardo, a young officer in the Guards, who died abroad, a short time after his marriage, somewhat suddenly. Mrs. Ricardo (*née* Campbell) was by birth and extraction a native of Australia. Mr. and Mrs. Bravo lived together in a large country-house called the Priory, and belonging to Mrs. Bravo, some little way out of London. They were rich, and their lives were ordered very much as rich people's lives generally are ordered in this country. Mr. Bravo carried on his profession, and was popular and well thought of on the Home Circuit which he attended. He was a happy, healthy man, with everything around him to make life pleasant, and he was recently married to a lady to whom he is believed to have been attached. His lot was one which many men might, and some men probably did, envy. Along with Mr. and Mrs. Bravo a widow lady, called Mrs. Cox, resided. She came originally from Jamaica, and occupied, and had occupied for four years previous to Mr. Bravo's marriage, the position of half housekeeper, half companion to Mrs. Ricardo. Arrangements, however, had been made for her return to Jamaica when Mr. Bravo's death occurred. These three people with the usual establishment of servants lived together at the Priory, a castellated mansion standing in its own grounds, which you pass on the way from the West End of London to the Crystal Palace at Sydenham. On Tuesday, the 18th of April, they dined together at the Priory on Mr. Bravo's return from his afternoon's ride. The dinner consisted of soup and fish, which Mr. Bravo did not eat, a leg of lamb of which he did eat, eggs and spinach and anchovy toast, which he did not eat, and a bottle of Burgundy, half of which he drank, and which neither of the ladies tasted. For some time recently, but since his marriage, he had had occasional attacks of sickness from some unexplained cause, and these attacks may explain the moderate amount of dinner which he took. After dinner Mr. Bravo and the ladies went to their rooms, and immediately afterwards Mr. Bravo opened his bedroom door, called his wife by name, and asked for hot water. Mrs. Bravo does not appear to have responded, but Mrs. Cox at once came to him and ordered hot water and mustard, which he drank. Doctors were sent for, and although they at first treated him for syncope, they soon ascertained that he had taken poison, and subsequent analysis has proved beyond all doubt that he was poisoned by antimony—a considerable quantity of antimony having been found in several organs of his body, indicating that the process of antimonial poisoning had been gradual. He recovered consciousness before his death, which occurred upon Friday, the 21st, the third day after his seizure, and although he was able to speak to the doctors and even to make his will, which he did in favor of his wife, he gave no explanation of the cause of his death, and no explanation has yet been discovered. It does not appear from the evidence which has up to this time been laid before the public that Mrs. Bravo visited her husband from the time of his seizure till his death ; but since the inquest her solicitors in her name have widely advertised the offer of £500 reward to any one who will throw light upon the manner in which the antimony was procured.

In almost any other civilized country in the world, when such a train of circumstances occurred, it is reasonable to suppose that some enquiry would have taken place, conducted by officials appointed by and responsible to the Crown, and trained to investigate and weigh evidence. I am not sufficiently familiar with the criminal procedure in America to say what steps you would have taken, but I am certain that a judicial enquiry of some sort would have been held by competent and responsible officials. In Germany, in France, in Holland, in Belgium, and even across the border in Scotland, the whole organization at the disposal of the Public Prosecutor would at once have been put in motion. But what takes place in England ? There is no Public Prosecutor and no organization for the judicial discovery of crime. The Attorney-General occasionally acts as Public Prosecutor, and through the Home Office he can set the detective force of the police in operation. But the Attorney-General's action in such matters is optional and intermittent, the rule being that the individual who has been criminally wronged, and not the state, must prosecute, and that the prosecution must be conducted, not as it is in France and Scotland, after the manner of an inquisition, but of a litigation. Supplementary to this haphazard arrangement, or want of arrangement, there is in every county or district of a county an official called a coroner. The office of coroner has the recommendation of antiquity in its favor, and nothing else. It is of Saxon origin, and there is authentic mention of the institution in an original charter of King Athelstan in 905 A.D. The coroner is elected for life by the ratepayers of his district, and he is paid a good salary out of the county rates. In most cases he is a medical man who has studied the arts of popularity with more success than those of medicine, or he is a small country attorney who has failed in the higher paths of his profession. He is irremovable except in flagrant cases of misbehavior or incapacity, when the Lord Chancellor may intervene, and he is irresponsible. This is the official in England who is charged with the investigation of crime, and he can act only in cases of violent or sudden death, and even then in such cases only in which the body has been found. If he cannot act, there is no authority who can examine witnesses until a suspected person has been actually arrested and brought before a magistrate. When a sudden death has occurred, it is notified to the coroner, and he summons a jury of twelve men, whose verdict must be unanimous, and holds an inquest. This inquest must be held by the coroner of the district in which the body shall be "lying dead," and it generally takes place at a public-house or some place of public resort, to avoid the imputation of secresy.

In the present case, the latter precaution was overlooked. The coroner of the district in which Mr. Bravo died received an unsigned letter, to the effect that Mrs. Bravo desired that the inquest might be held in the Priory. In accordance with this letter, by whom written it does not appear, Mr. Carter, the coroner, summoned a jury which consisted of a butcher, a builder, a corn-dealer, a saddler, a rate-collector, a brewer, a furniture-dealer, a plumber, a bricklayer, and three gardeners, and he and this jury met together in Mrs. Bravo's house and there held their inquest. It was of the most perfunctory character. Two, at least, of the medical men who attended Mr. Bravo were not called ; Mrs. Bravo was not called ; contradictory evidence on vital points was given, and no attempt was made to explain or reconcile the contradictions ; the provision of the law which enacts that the statements of witnesses must be read over to and signed by them was disregarded ; and although the verdict of the jury was to the precise effect that Mr. Bravo had died "from the effects of a poison—antimony," no effort was made to discover how or by whom the antimony was procured, and how, or by whom, or where it was administered Even the obvious enquiry as to what had become of the remains of the bottle of Burgundy of which Mr. Bravo had partaken was not pressed, and from that day to this nothing has been ascertained regarding it. There were no reporters present at the inquest, and the whole business was so huddled away in a corner that if it had not been for a chance notice of it getting into one of the metropolitan papers, and for the fact that the deceased had a couple of barrister friends who suspected foul play and determined to have it sifted, the public would have heard nothing of it, and a case that almost recalls the horrors of the Borgias would have escaped without investigation.

Attention has, however, been directed to it, and it has seized upon the imagination of the well-to-do classes resident in London. Everything that can now lead to the discovery of the crime, because crime it undoubtedly is, will be done. The matter has been mentioned in the House of Commons, and the Home Secretary has announced that it has been placed in the hands of the law-officers of the Crown, who are investigating it. But it is too late. More than a month has elapsed since Mr. Bravo's death, and his murderer or murderers, whoever they may be, have had ample time to destroy every trace of the instruments by which they murdered him. All

sorts of rumors are abroad and every conceivable suspicion is mooted, and a great deal of curious information as to the antecedents of the suspected persons has been got together. But it seems highly improbable that the crime will be brought home to any one.

If this should be so, a serious miscarriage of justice will have occurred—and that miscarriage is directly due to the absurdity of the institution of coroner. Last year the institution was held up to ridicule and to public execration, owing to the excessive zeal of one of the coroners of Middlesex. When Sir Charles Lyell, the eminent geologist, died, his death was certified by one of the leading physicians of the day to have been caused by heart disease. There was no suspicion or suggestion that he had died from any but natural causes, and the case so certified was one in which the coroner was not called upon to interfere. The official, however, was new to his duties, and perversely obstinate. He insisted, against the remonstrances of the physician and the family of the deceased, on holding an inquest, and actually caused the coffin to be broken open in order that the jury, in fulfilment of the letter of the law, might see the body. For this he was rebuked by the Home Secretary and the Lord Chancellor and condemned by the public. The present case is of a different character. In Sir Charles Lyell's case the coroner seems to have considered it his duty to distrust the facts certified and to disregard the feelings of the family of the deceased. In Mr. Bravo's case the coroner seems to have acted on the opposite principle. His object seems to have been to make things comfortable all round for the family of the deceased, and to have regarded the interests of justice as subordinate to his own convenience. If nothing else was before us than these two cases, where two coroners acted on diametrically opposite principles, there would be enough to condemn the institution of coroner. But almost every day, from all parts of England, tales come up of the inadequacy and absurdity of the institution. Notice has been given to-day in the House of Commons, by an independent member on the Ministerial side, that he will call attention to the office of coroner on an early day. The debate cannot but be productive of good; and if the failure of justice in the present case should have the effect of stimulating the Ministry to remedy a crying abuse and carry out a much-needed reform, the humiliating experiences of the past four weeks will not have been undergone in vain.

Notes.

HENRY HOLT & CO. are about to issue a series of 'Condensed Classics,' beginning with 'Ivanhoe,' 'Our Mutual Friend,' and the 'Last Days of Pompeii.' Instead of letting the reader skip for himself in the unabridged work, the skipping will be done for him by Mr. Rossiter Johnson, whose task is to be regarded not as a literary improvement of the originals, but "as a species of dramatization" of them.——A hitherto unpublished article by the late Chauncey Wright, giving a popular explanation (for those who understand botany) of the mathematical nature of phyllotaxis, is printed in the *American Naturalist* for June.——Mr. Sabin has received copies of a 'Catalogue des Livres rares et précieux composant le cabinet de M. . . .,' to be sold in Paris on the 17th inst. The anonymous owner of this collection is, we believe, a well-known New Yorker, but he has undoubtedly chosen the best market for his wares, which embrace many first editions of the French classics, Aldines and Elzevirs, manuscripts adorned with miniatures, works on vellum, etc., etc.——The latest numbers of 'Die Gesetzgebung des deutschen Reiches' relate to the constitution of the German mint and the penal provisions of the postal-service law (New York: E. Steiger).——An interesting contribution to the geology of the Rocky Mountains is presented by the reports of Messrs. G. K. Gilbert, E. E. Howell, and A. R. Marvine, on districts in Utah and Arizona examined by them when attached to U. S. Engineer explorations under Lieut. Wheeler in 1871–2–3. Although their authors state that they have been somewhat hurriedly made, they are much more systematized, and the information contained in them is better digested and more available, than the majority of the so-called geological reports which have been distributed by the Government during late years. Mr. Gilbert's article on the region of the Great Salt Lake will be found of interest even to the untechnical reader.

—J. H. Coates & Co., Philadelphia, have been made the American agents of the Rev. Alexander B. Grosart, who is preparing to print privately, for subscribers only, new editions of the complete works of the poets Edmund Spenser and Samuel Daniel, and heretofore wholly unpublished portions of the Towneley MSS. illustrating Lancashire and Yorkshire family history. In editing Spenser and Daniel, Mr. Grosart will have the more or less intimate co-operation of a number of eminent scholars and critics, such as W. Aldis Wright, E. W. Gosse, F. T. Palgrave, Prof. Edward Dowden, Prof. Henry Morley, Prof. Ward of Owens College, Aubrey de Vere, Prof. Child of Harvard, etc., etc. For his text of Spenser he will take the last published in the poet's lifetime, noting the variations of the earlier issues. A new life of Spenser, and a glossarial index, will still further enrich the edition, and the large-paper copies will contain steel portraits of Spenser, Sir Philip Sidney, and Sir Walter Raleigh—the last from an original never before engraved. The whole work will fill eight volumes, in three sizes—two octavo and one quarto. Daniel's works, also in prose and verse, will fill four volumes, uniform with the preceding, the text being his brother's 'Whole Workes of Samvel Daniel, Esquire, in Poetrie' (4to 1623). The Towneley MSS. selected are 'The Spending of the Money of Robert Nowell,' of Reade Hall, Lancashire, brother of Dean Nowell, being a book kept for, and with corrections and insertions by, the latter (1561–1580); and a collection of English Jacobite songs and ballads. The Nowell volume is full of American family names, including Washington; some of them to be found at the present day in this country only. Part of the "Spending" was given to "poore scholeres," among whom at Oxford Richard Hooker, and at Cambridge Edmund Spenser, are found. But it is for the curious and valuable light which the "Spending" throws on the domestic usages of the time that this publication especially commends itself. All of Mr. Grosart's works, it is needless to say, will be elegantly printed, and of the two first mentioned there will in all probability be no rival edition for many years to come. American subscriptions must be received by Messrs. Coates not later than July 1 to ensure being accepted.

—A typographical error in our article last week on T. W. Park needs to be pointed out for the sake of verbal accuracy. On page 347, line 22 from the bottom of the first column, Stewart is represented as writing Lyon that "they have worked the mined up *to* 80 in England by the ore they have sent, and the manner of sending it, so that I have no doubt of a sale from five to eight millions." This should have read: "they have worked the mine up so in England, etc., that I have no doubt, etc."

—Nothing marks so obviously the sure grasp which the Massachusetts Board of Health has upon the State as the increasing fulness and costliness of its annual Reports. The seventh is before us—a thick blue-book of nearly 600 pages, literally stuffed with maps, diagrams, and other illustrations, several of the maps being of large size and folded. That which faces the title-page is an index to the river basins of Massachusetts, showing which of them have been and which remain to be studied by the Board's experts, with a view to solving the problems of sewerage and water-supply now pressing upon every large town along these water-courses. The Report, accordingly, mainly consists of a special report on the pollution of rivers; the water-supply, drainage, and sewerage of the State from the sanitary point of view; and the disposal of sewage. The cost of making this, including a trip of the Board's Secretary to Europe, exceeded $8,000, and was met by a special appropriation. To say that the result is worth the outlay is to give but a faint idea of the value of it. Besides the local description of the several basins, there is an account, by Dr. Folsom, of foreign systems of utilizing sewage which may stand as a complete summary of theory and actual experience on the subject, and should make this Report as eagerly sought after outside of Massachusetts as it is by those to whom it is directly addressed. Other valuable papers having a general applicability are Dr. Bowditch's "Sanitary Hints"; Mr. Philbrick's "Defects in House Drainage, and their Remedies"; one on an epidemic disorder caused by the use of impure ice; and, above all, the report on the "registration of prevalent diseases" attempted by the Board last year. This experiment was unique in the history of preventive medicine, and is said to have "surpassed the expectations of many who were interested in its trial." One hundred and ninety-four physicians voluntarily forwarded each week to the Board's registrar a postal-card with a printed form on the back, recording the prevalence and intensity of some fifteen specified diseases. These returns were classified and computed according to the districts from which they came, and every week the data thus derived were published in the Boston papers, the bulletins reading very much like the signal-service weather reports. In fact, the Board estimates that if large areas were included in the field of observation, there might be bulletins issued by a central authority giving "timely warning of the rise and spread of zymotic affections. . . . . Indeed, it is not too much to predict that 'probabilities' may yet be cast with some degree of precision, as we advance in our knowledge concerning epidemics." On the whole, we regard the initiation of this system as perhaps the greatest service which the Board has yet ren-

dered Massachusetts or the country. Yet the roll of its beneficent achievements is already long, as any one may learn from the 'Summary' of its Reports just compiled by Dr. W. L. Richardson. Several of the papers in the seventh Report have been printed separately; for instance, Mr Philbrick's, and Dr. Nichols's on the contamination of drinking-water by means of impure ice.

—The *Atlantic* for June contains an instalment of Mrs. Kemble's Gossip more than usually entertaining, and an article by Mr. Howells, describing a summer among the Shakers, written in a more sympathetic vein than the criticism of the world's people commonly runs in. Mr. T. B. Aldrich contributes the most noticeable verses, in an attempt (as near successful as any attempt of the kind could be) to express the feeling which everybody who has even the germ of an imagination must be familiar with—that of waking from sleep with a poem on the end of the tongue which yet eludes every effort of the memory to recall it. The phenomenon probably takes different forms in different people, and at different times in the same person; the poetry in some cases vanishing entirely, in others leaving behind it little but a recollection of the rhythm, or again of the closing syllable of a line or two, which are sadly apt to prove, when repeated in the garish light of day, and critically considered, little more or less than arrant nonsense. With persons of a strongly poetical temperament, perhaps poetry dreamt in this way remains true poetry, fit for the publishers. There are certainly recorded instances—though how well vouched for they may be is another thing—of important mental operations being performed in sleep, but these have generally been operations of a non-imaginative sort. The treasures, however, which people bring back with them from dreamland are in most cases of the sort which Mr. Aldrich describes in the lines he calls "Unsung," which we quote as they stand, the three verses being inseparable, though we think they would have been improved by the suppression of the rather forced comparisons in the first verse:

> "As sweet as the breath that goes
> From the lips of the white rose,
> As weird as the elfin lights
> That glimmer of frosty nights,
> As wild as the winds that tear
> The curled red leaf in the air,
> Is the song I have never sung.
>
> "In slumber, a hundred times
> I've said the enchanted rhymes,
> But ere I open my eyes
> This ghost of a poem flies;
> Of the interfluent strains
> Not even a note remains;
> I know by my pulses' beat
> It was something wild and sweet,
> And my heart is strangely stirred
> By an unremembered word!
>
> "I strive but I strive in vain,
> To recall the lost refrain.
> On some miraculous day
> Perhaps it will come and stay;
> In some unimagined Spring
> I may find my voice, and sing
> The song I have never sung."

—In the course of an article on Charlotte Cushman in *Scribner's*, Mr. J. D. Stockton discusses a subject which is oftener written than thought about—the "Decline of the Drama." According to Mr. Stockton, the drama is no longer "the great intellectual force it was"; "its decline is proved by the dearth of great modern plays"; notwithstanding many attempts at revival, made by "some of the greatest minds of the last hundred years," they have all ended in failure; the cause of the decline is not in men, but in the "progress of man." Three hundred years ago learning was rare, the press was unborn, and the drama, more than any other form of expression, "answered the wants and uttered the aspirations of humanity." "Philosophy was for philosophers, but the stage was for the living, active, busy world." Now, journalism and the novel have both invaded the arena once exclusively occupied by the stage, and painters of character like Scott, Fielding, Smollett, Dickens, and Thackeray, write novels instead of dramas from the necessities of the times in which they live, while newspapers have brought within the reach of all, as a substitute for the play, the daily exciting drama of contemporaneous history. Besides this, books, schools, and newspapers have destroyed the illusions of the stage. This is a favorite theory, and it certainly has the merit of explaining, at least in part, the facts. But it is open to a great many objections, the first of which is that it is grounded only upon the experience of a single people, and that during a very brief space of time; and even this small episode in the history of the drama is incorrectly stated. The English drama has not been running down hill ever since Shakspere's time, but had a flourishing renovation of vigor as late as Sheridan's. Undoubtedly, there has been a lamentable falling-off since then in England, but the continued vitality of the drama in such countries as France and Germany certainly might incline us to doubt whether so old an art was going to disappear altogether before modern improvement. The novel and the newspaper, too, do not take the place of the drama, in any proper sense of the word. The pleasure derived from a literary characterization and from literary dialogue, no matter how well done, is wholly different in kind from the pleasure derived from seeing characters bodily assumed and parts acted, and it is difficult to see how one can ever take the place of the other, any more than literature could supply the place of painting. One great difficulty with the drama in the last hundred years is, we believe, more the result of the great social changes which have been introduced into life by the democratic movement than anything else. Everybody knows that the first requisite for the stage is strongly-marked types, which can be easily recognized. The soldier, the judge, the gentleman, the nobleman, the courtier, and the king and queen must all have well-defined characteristics which enable the spectator (not the reader) to recognize them at once. Any influence which tends to wipe out the visible distinctions between such classes, and to make one man like another, is bad for the stage, just as distinctly as all progress towards uniformity of costume is bad for painting. The democratic movement during the last hundred years in England and in this country has been constantly tending to produce this result, and to make all classes and conditions of men more and more alike in manner, in dress, in intelligence, and in their code of morality. All this may be very good for the people, but it is very bad for the stage; and in this country it has reached such a point that outside of low comedy and burlesque, in which such characters as the Hon. Bardwell Slote and Col. Mulberry Sellers are still possible, it is not easy to say where to look for types at all. The process has not gone so far in other countries as in this; but in every country it has had its effect on the drama.

—The writer of the "Nebulæ" in the *Galaxy* discusses this month the appearance of the new silver coin, and confesses that it is "not as handsome as it ought to be, as it might be, or even as it once was."

"It does us no credit as an exhibition of our skill in designing, in die-sinking, or coining. Why is it that we have the ugliest money of all civilized nations? . . . . Our silver coins do not even look like money. They have rather the appearance of tokens or mean medals. One reason of this is that the design is so inartistic and so insignificant. That young woman sitting on nothing in particular, wearing nothing to speak of, looking over her shoulder at nothing imaginable, and bearing in her left hand something that looks like a broomstick with a woollen night-cap on it—what is she doing there? what is the meaning of her? She is Liberty, we are told, and there is a label to that effect across a shield at her right, her need of which is not in any way manifest. But she might as well be anything else as Liberty; and at the first glance she looks much more like a spinster in her smock, with a distaff in her hand. Such a figure has no proper place upon a coin. On the reverse, the eagle has the contrary fault of being too natural, too much like a real eagle. In numismatic art animals have conventional forms, which are far more pleasing and effective than the most careful and exact imitation of nature can be. Compare one of our silver coins with those of Great Britain, France, or Germany, and see how mean, slight, flimsy, inartistic, and unmoney-like it looks. Our coins of forty or fifty years ago were much better in every respect, and looked much more like money, the reason being that they bore a head of Liberty which was bold, clear, and well-defined in comparison with the weak thing that the mint has given us for the last thirty years or so. The eagle, too, although erring on the side of naturalness, was more suited in design to coinage. But still better were the coins struck at the end of the last century and the beginning of this one. The eagle was a real heraldic eagle, the head of Liberty had more character, and the whole work was bolder and better in every way."

The *Galaxy* then goes on to ask whether we could, in this hundredth year of our national existence, do a better thing to mark the time than give real character and significance to our coinage; and suggests that the eagle and Liberty of the present system be replaced by two heads, "the appropriateness of which upon our coins—and, indeed, almost their right to be there—would be felt by every American, and not only so, but recognized by the whole world"—the heads of Washington and Franklin. The article finally commends the subject to the attention of Congress, and expresses the hope that some member may be found who will take it up and "bring it before the people." Popular agitation is not, however, likely to be the means of bringing about reforms of this kind, which depend primarily upon the willingness of the administrative branch of the Government to use the highest skill and best taste in matters which relate to art. That our coinage is not the brightest feather in our national cap is not to be denied; but the causes which make our coins ugly are closely related to those which make our postage-stamps (although these have heads on them) also ugly, and to those which, working on a larger scale, lately produced Mr. Mullett's National School of Architecture.

—The April number of the *American Law Review* contains an article by O. W. Holmes, jr., entitled "Primitive Notions in Modern Law," which appears to be well worthy of the attention of the philosophical student. There are many cases, as all lawyers know, where one is held legally liable to answer in damages for accidents causing harm to others, although no foresight on his part could have foreseen or have prevented them. For instance, a man builds a house upon his own land, which falls and does damage to his neighbor; one has a vicious animal, which escapes and does like damage; one's servant, while driving his carriage carelessly, runs over a foot-passenger. In all these cases the man is liable. It is usually said that he is liable for his negligence; for negligently building his house; for negligently keeping the animal; for negligence in employing an unskilful driver. But when he answers, "I am not a carpenter; I know nothing about building houses; I must have a shelter from the weather or die; if I had built the house myself it would not have stood an hour; I therefore made the most diligent enquiry possible, and employed the carpenter recommended to me as the fittest by those upon whose opinion I had every reason to rely," the answer is ready: "A ruinous house is a nuisance, and you are liable for a nuisance absolutely and in all events." When he says, "A bull is a necessary thing; without bulls there could be neither beef nor milk; my bull, terrified by a clap of thunder, broke a plough-chain and two barn-doors and gored his attendant before he let him escape," the answer is: "He who keeps a bull keeps him at his peril." When he says, "But my driver is not an unskilful or careless driver; he can drive a circus band-wagon, and never in his life before did a careless act," the answer is: "A master is always liable for the negligence of his servant." Bentham, who has done more for the philosophy of the law than all other English writers combined, puts the liability in these cases wholly upon the ground of expediency. By the law of England, any animal or inanimate object causing the death of a man was forfeited as a deodand. If a horse kicked a man, and death resulted, the horse was forfeited. There is a case in the Year Books where a vessel was forfeited because a person fell from it and was drowned. The weapon with which a murder was committed was forfeited. These forfeitures were a part of the king's revenue, which he was accustomed to grant as franchises to the lords of manors. They were therefore exacted with the utmost rigor. In maritime law, in many cases, a vessel is bound to the extent of her value to make good damage caused by her, although her owners are wholly free from fault, and although the law puts no personal liability upon them. For an intelligent understanding of the maritime law of the present day, even, it is necessary to regard the vessel as a living person having rights and duties of her own.

—The justification of such rules of law is that they work well in practice. From the time of the earliest maritime codes, the commerce of all maritime countries has been carried on under them. Mr. Holmes attempts to show historically that these presumptions of negligence and these considerations of policy upon which the liability in all the cases mentioned above is at the present day placed, are not the considerations in which that liability originated, but that the liability "sprang from the much more primitive notion that liability attached directly to the thing doing the damage." Savage races and children have a belief in the animation of all nature, and among grown civilized people, to quote Mr. Grote, "the force of momentary passion will often suffice to supersede the acquired habit, and even an intelligent man may be impelled, in a moment of agonizing pain, to kick or beat the lifeless object from which he has suffered." At first, in the case of damage done, the offending thing was delivered up to be destroyed; later, it was awarded to the injured party as damages, which was the extent of the liability; and afterwards the liability was extended to the owner of the thing. While the law was in the transitive period, a servant was a slave and a slave was a chattel; the slave was surrendered to be the slave of the injured person. Mr. Holmes supports his position, which he puts forth very modestly more as a conjecture than as a fact, by references to the early Athenian, Roman, Jewish, and to the Salic law, and also to the old English Ordinances. We think his position is correct; the proofs, a few of which only he was enabled to glance at in a magazine article, might be easily accumulated, now that he has shown what is to be sought for, so as to swell a volume. How but by Mr. Holmes's idea can we explain the trial by judicial process and the criminal punishment of animals, which was frequent in France until within a period of two hundred and fifty years?

—The *American Architect* for May 27 prints a not very lucid translation from a German writer, J. Langl, who discusses the well-worn question of the motive of the curvatures in the horizontal parts of the Greek temples, notably in the stylobate and entablature of the Parthenon. Assuming, as if it were not the very thing in dispute, that the curves were designed by the Greeks as "optical corrections," Herr Langl contents himself with attempting to analyze the nature and source of the optical illusions which they sought to overcome. He argues, if we understand him, that experience teaches us to apply a constant correction to the presentation by the retina of parallel straight lines as converging curves; that with these curves coincide those due to perspective, by which parallel straight lines "appear, in their prolongation towards the infinite, as curved lines concave towards the horizon"; that from force of habit the latter are absorbed in the former, and hence the illusion. "The lines no longer appear straight, but seem curved in the opposite direction. Nothing, then, but a swelling of the lines in the direction of the perspective curve—thus, as it were, aiding, intensifying the perspective—can neutralize the illusion by another illusion." What is noticeable about this explanation is the way in which it reinforces one suggested some years ago by Mr. Stillman, whose photographs of the Parthenon clearly exhibit the convexities under consideration. He conjectured that the Greek architects were more intent on *creating* than correcting optical illusions: that they found the natural curve of perspective inadequate to produce the desired effect of size in their buildings, and that accordingly they exaggerated it by making an artificial curve. Herr Langl observes that "the nearer we approach the eye towards the plane in which parallel straight lines lie, the more steeply will they fall off towards their vanishing-points." The converse of this would be that the more steeply the lines fall off, the nearer we seem to be to the plane in which they lie—*e.g.*, the façade of a temple—and consequently the larger the building appears. Mr. Stillman justified this view of the motive of the convexity by connecting it with another exaggeration of perspective seen in the narrowing of the intercolumnar spaces at both ends of a portico, with the undeniable effect of increasing its apparent length to the eye.

—The Government Archæological Office at Athens, in a bulletin of March 22 (April 3, N. S.), reports the following summary of discoveries at Olympia: Statues and sculptures, 15 large and more than 100 small; inscriptions, 30; bronzes, 540; coins, 136; articles of iron and lead, 130; of pottery, 215; of other materials, as bone and glass, 55. A very old inscription has been found, the elegiac couplet given by Pausanias, 5, 24, 3, as attached to a statue of Zeus, said to have been erected by the Lacedæmonians at the termination of the second Messenian war. The first two words from Pausanias cannot be distinguished on the marble; the remainder appears with two variations, but we are not told what they are. There has been found also the missing portion of the decision of the Milesians on the land in dispute between the Messenians and Lacedæmonians, so that the three documents are complete, the decision, the letter of the Milesians to the authorities of Elis, and their order for the recording of the decision. According to the *Ἀθήναιον*, the report of the Greek Archæological Society, presented Jan. 25, shows that it has expended during the previous eighteen months more than 65,000 drachmas ($11,000), and in the past fifteen years more than 300,000. Excavations have been continued in Athens at the Dipylon and at the Stoa of Attalos, in the interior of Attica, and at Tanagra, Thebes, Thisbe, Taxiarchæ, Dendra, Sparta, Corone, and Corinth. There is published also an inscription in 188 lines found last August in Lebadeia, relating to a proposed completion of the temple of Zeus the King, mentioned by Pausanias, 9, 39, 4, as still half-finished. The inscription is of Roman times, apparently B.C., and is remarkable for having more than thirty words which are not in the lexicons, mostly easy compounds. The December number of the same magazine publishes some Greek documents of the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, now preserved in the library of the monastery at Patmos: one relates to Eustratios of Nicæ, calling in certain condemned treatises of his; another is a register of ecclesiastical lands in Patmos, signed and sealed by "the servant of our mighty and holy sovereign and king, registrar of Rhodes and the surrounding islands and of the Cyclades, Leon Euskammarios." A facsimile of his signature is given which wonderfully resembles Arabic writing.

BAIN AND RENOUVIER.*

PHILOSOPHY and psychology are such difficult studies that most of us may be said to read *in* the works of philosophers rather than to read them. We like, as it were, physically to rub our minds against the abstract problems in their pages; we enjoy the glimpses we get of their solution; but we *grasp* nothing but the concrete illustrations by the way and the explanations of details the author may give us. Accordingly, the more

* 'The Emotions and the Will. By Alexander Bain, LL.D.' Third edition [largely altered]. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1876.
'Essais de Critique générale par Charles Renouvier.' Second édition, revue et considérablement augmentée. Premier Essai: Logique générale et formelle. 3 vols. 12mo. Deuxième Essai: Psychologie rationelle. 3 vols. 18mo. Paris: Aux Bureaux de la *Critique Philosophique*. 1875.

fertile a philosopher is in these, the more popular he will become. The two philosophers of indubitably the widest influence in England and America since Mill's death are Messrs. Bain and Spencer, who have little in common except the tendency to explain things by physical reasons as much as possible, and this abundance of illustrative fact; whilst Mr. Hodgson, a writer in our opinion vastly more thorough and original than either, is unread and unknown because in his books the concatenation of the thoughts is everything, and the illustrative instances subordinate. The thoroughness of the descriptive part of Bain's treatises, and the truly admirable sagacity of many of the psychological analyses and reductions they contain, has made them deservedly classical. It seems hardly worth while to devote our space to giving an account of the third edition of one of them, for every one interested in psychology must read the originals themselves. We propose, therefore, merely to use Mr. Bain for the purpose of giving greater relief to the merits of a French philosopher, Renouvier, who seems as yet unknown to English readers, but who has given to the philosophy which Bain represents a form in our opinion far more clear, perfect, and consistent than has been attained by any English writer.

For Bain is not only a psychologist proper, does not merely describe mental facts as items in the inventory of nature, but also speculates about nature as a whole. The fault we find in him in this capacity is his fragmentariness and consequent inconsistency. Fragmentariness—the willingness to settle only so much of a subject at a time as is practically needful—has become such a tradition in the history of the British mind, that philosophers who, like Spencer, are thoroughly systematic and constructive in their form, are viewed with suspicion and dislike on that very account by many minds of Anglo-Saxon type. This is surely a vicious extreme, for the very impulse to which philosophies owe their being is the craving for a consistent completeness; and every powerful attempt to rear a thorough system of thought has an intellectual *style* about it which is, æsthetically considered, to say the least, far nobler than the slouchy dumping of materials to which Mr. Bain treats us.

The most important of these fragmentary British contributions to philosophy are the criticisms and negations called nominalism and nihilism. Together they form the positivism, empiricism, or phenomenalism which within a certain sphere are so congenial to the Anglo-Saxon mind. They assert that nothing has reality except actual particular facts. Such noumenal substances as matter, nature, power, are admitted alike by metaphysics and by popular philosophy or common sense; but criticism scrutinizes them only to proclaim that they are absolutely void of meaning except as names descriptive of particular phenomena. Describe *these* completely, and you have named all there is. If the particulars will happen just so each time, the assumption of a "substance" to produce them is mere image-worship—a fifth wheel to a coach. Accordingly, the school of Mill and Bain regard the world as a mere sum of separate phenomena or representations which habitually group themselves into certain orders, with which we grow more or less familiar, and which consequently seem more or less rational and necessary. To account for the particular habits of grouping, or "laws" of nature and of mind, is on this theory the next problem. The English school has always tried more or less to evade this part of the subject, and, reducing the principles of grouping to as small a number as possible (*e.g.*, space and causality to time), it has treated what remained in a hazy sort of manner, as not worthy of much attention anyhow. M. Renouvier's polemic against the metaphysical notions of Substance, of Infinite in existence, and of abstract ideas seems to us more powerful than anything which has been written in English; but he differs from his English allies in giving as great an emphasis to the laws of grouping as to the phenomena grouped. The laws are for him equally with the phenomena absolute and distinct. In fact, a "phenomenon" apart from its group, law, or function is an inconceivable nonentity.

But his great point of divergence from Bain and Mill lies in his treatment of the problem of Freedom, and here, it seems to us, is shown the advantage of a systematically-thought philosophy over one fragmentarily fed from heterogeneous sources. We have no space to discuss the sources of the English prejudice in favor of psychical determinism. Every reader of Mill's 'Autobiography' will remember the striking passage in which he narrates the hypochondria which this doctrine produced in his youthful mind. It is the strongest proof of the essentially pious character of that mind that this inherited belief was clung to in spite of its not being logically called for by the rest of Mill's philosophic creed. For if any man may believe in free-will it is surely one who repudiates the notion of an infinite pre-existing substance from which "the remediless flux of existence" proceeds, and who denies that there is any real coerciveness in the relation of cause to effect. Both these denials were Mill's. M. Renouvier most justly insists that the only logical enemy of free-will is the doctrine of Substance or Pantheism. Spencer, for example, with his 'Unknowable,' is bound in honor to oppose it; but the opposition of Bain, who seems to hold to the ultimate distinctness of each phenomenon, and the ultimate inexplicability of their order of succession, can only be regarded as a caprice.

Renouvier at a stroke clears the question of a cloud of quibbles by stating it in simple phenomenal terms. For him it is merely a question as to the ambiguity of certain futures, those human acts, namely, which are preceded by *deliberation*. What are the phenomena here? A representation arises in a mind, but ere it can discharge itself into a train of action, it is inhibited by another which confronts it. This, on the point of discharging itself, is again checked by the first, which returns with a reinforced intensity, and so for a time the pendulum swings to and fro, till finally one or the other representation recurs with such a degree of reinforcement that the tumult ceases, and an act, a decision for the future, or the arrest of a passionate impulse takes place. This stable survival of one representation is called a volition. The whole question of its predetermination relates to the intensity of the degree of reinforcement with which the triumphant representation recurs. As a matter of fact, in critical cases (which are the only cases bearing on the question) this intensity is utterly unknown beforehand. Is it potentially and essentially a knowable quantity? If *not*, our acts are in certain cases original commencements of series of phenomena, whose realization excludes other series which were previously possible. If *so*, they form part of an adamantine and eternal uniformity. But who shall decide? The argumentation of Bain that as a matter of fact men always do expect each other to act with predictable uniformity is—*sat venia verbo*—rubbish. It could never be urged by one who was not already on other grounds prejudiced in favor of determinism. In one of his earliest works, Helmholtz, who as well as any living man may claim to give voice to the scientific spirit, says that when the proximate causes of phenomena are alterable themselves, we must seek further for a cause of their alteration, and so on till we reach an unalterable principle.

"Now, whether [he continues], in reality, all events are to be carried back to such causes, whether nature be fully explicable, or whether changes occur in it which do not fall under the law of necessary causality, and *do* consequently belong to the realm of freedom or spontaneity, cannot now be decided. It is, at all events, clear that a science whose object it is to understand nature must start with the assumption of her intelligibility, and conclude and enquire according to this assumption until it at last is forced by irrefutable facts to the admission of its own limitations."

The "assumption" of a fixed law in natural science is thus, according to this authority, an intellectual *postulate*, just as the assumption of an ultimate law of indetermination might be a moral postulate in treating of certain human deliberations. Is each assumption true in its sphere, or is determinism universal? Since no man can decide empirically, must one remain for ever uncertain, or shall one anticipate evidence and boldly choose one's side? Apart from the fact that doubt is practically impossible in certain cases which touch the conduct of life, doubt itself is an active state, one of voluntary inhibition or suspense. So that whichever plan one adopts, one's state is the result of other factors than pure receptivity of intelligence. The entire nature of the man, intellectual, affective, and volitional, is (whether avowedly or not) exhibited in the theoretic attitude he takes in such a question as this. And this leads M. Renouvier to a most vigorous and original discussion of the ultimate grounds of certitude, of belief *in general*, from which he returns to make his decision about this particular point. All yard-stick criteria of certitude have failed. Mr. Spencer's "inconceivability of the opposite" breaks down from the practical impossibility of unanimity in any given case. When the Philosopher of Evolution says we *ought* to find the opposite of his First Principles inconceivable and dubs us "*pseudo*" thinkers if we do not, he simply begs the question and appeals to the authority of his personal insight as against ours. Now, says Renouvier, such an appeal is at bottom inevitable so soon as we leave the narrow standing-point of the present moment in consciousness (pyrrhonism). This latter alone is the *aliquid inconcussum* philosophers have sought; but it is barren. Beyond it everywhere is doubt.

"The radical sign of will, the essential mark of that achieved development which makes man capable of speculating on all things and raises him to his dignity of an independent and autonomous being, is the possibility of doubt. . . . The ignorant man doubts little, the fool still less, the madman not at all. . . . Certitude is not and cannot be an absolute condition. It is, what is too often forgotten, a state and an act of man . . . a state in which he posits his consciousness, such as it is, and stands by it. Properly speaking, there is no certitude; all there is is men who are certain. . . . Certitude is thus nothing but belief . . . a moral attitude."

Thus in every wide theoretical conclusion we must seem more or less arbitrarily to *choose* our side. Of course the choice may at bottom be

predetermined in each case, but also it may not. This brings us back to our theoretical dilemma about freedom, concerning which we must now bow to the necessity of making a choice; for suspense itself would be a choice, and a most practical one, since by it we should forfeit the possible benefits of boldly espousing a possible truth. If this *be* a moral world, there are cases in which any indecision about its being so must be death to the soul. Now, if our choice is predetermined, there is an end of the matter; whether predetermined to the truth of fatality or the delusion of liberty, is all one for us. But if our choice is truly free, then the only possible way of getting at that truth is by the exercise of the freedom which it implies. Here the act of belief and the object of belief coalesce, and the very essential logic of the situation demands that we wait not for any outward sign, but, with the possibility of doubting open to us, voluntarily take the alternative of faith. Renouvier boldly avows the full conditions under which alone we can be right if freedom is true, and says: "Let our liberty pronounce on its own real existence." It and necessity being alike indemonstrable by any quasi-material process, must be *postulated* if taken at all.

"I prefer to affirm my liberty and to affirm it by means of my liberty. . . . My moral and practical certitude begins *logically* by the certitude of my freedom, just as *practically* my freedom has always had to intervene in the constitution of my speculative certitude."

Others need not decide in the same way, but let them confess, if their way is determinism, that unless they deduce it *à priori* from the existence of a metaphysical substance, they *choose* it just as our author chooses his way, because on the whole they prefer it. This fact is usually unconsciously smuggled out of sight; but, concealed or expressed, it debars either side from protesting on grounds of logical method, or form of procedure, against the other. The protest must come from extra-logical considerations; and the ultimate decision of which side is right and which wrong shall only be reached *ambulando* or at the final integration of things, if at all. Of course, freedom thus carried into the very heart of our theoretic activity becomes the corner-stone of our author's philosophy, and by its use he thinks "the minimum of faith produces the maximum of result."

RECENT NOVELS.*

THERE is a certain smartness about 'Achsah: A New England Life-Study' which may make it popular in those rustic communities where living examples of the models portrayed in its pages are to be found. The author, whose *nom de plume* is Rev. Peter Pennot, is possibly not so much a clergyman himself as an admirer of those clergymen who are not averse to the national exercise of driving fast trotters, and who also leaven the rigid routine of orthodoxy by seasonable worldly jesting; as an inhabitant of Boston, he is not impossibly one of the congregation which forms the Sunday audience at the Boston Theatre, listening to a prominent preacher who is at present without a church of his own. These conjectures are perhaps allowable, in view of the warm praise given a clergyman of that sort, who, however, is not so lucky in charming one person of the book as he is in addressing a large multitude. This person, the heroine, Achsah, is a country girl, the daughter of Deacon Sterne. These are her early impressions of her father:

"Mrs. Sterne had full control of Achsah's education. She had first taught her to look upon her father with reverence. She came into his presence with awe, and left it with a sense of relief. As a child, she often kissed her father, but with much the same feeling as she would have kissed a bronze statue. She sat on his knee with much the same sense of comfort that she would have sat upon a tombstone. She thought of him always as of a tall man in sombre-hued clothes, whom she, in common with the world, knew as Deacon Sterne. She never thought of him as 'my father.'"

This deacon is the best-drawn character of the book; his cunning, hypocrisy, and meanness make him just such an amusing caricature of certain Yankee faults as would seem the unvarnished truth say to Mr. Robert Toombs or Mr. Jefferson Davis. He bears the mark of being drawn from life by a very bitter enemy, who does not always hold his hand when he is expressing his scorn. The hero, Owen Rood, who accumulates money by writing magazine articles—one of them on Luther!—is a creature of the imagination rather than of flesh and blood. His troubles are of a familiar sort, and are easily cleared away as we approach the end of the story. What is good in all this is the account of the unadulterated New England people; less good is the romantic part, and the plot is too light to bear the superstructure.

'A New Godiva' shows considerable ingenuity in its construction; it has a plot of such complexity that it might well have fitted out a dozen ordinary novels; but the author's weakness is his indistinct drawing of his people. Sir Arthur Deverell signs deeds without reading them, consequently he is more surprised than the reader of average intelligence can be when he hears he has become a pauper. He immediately drops out of the ken of all his former friends, takes another name, and comes as near dying from starvation and insufficient care as is possible. Meanwhile, his wife saves him from perishing by earning some money in a way of which he does not approve when he comes to hear of it later, and there is still much misery; but finally peace shines on a reunited household. The book is full of incident, and we have found it readable in spite of the inconsistency of some of the characters, who find it hard to live up to the plot that encompasses them.

Quite as intricate is the story of 'A Family Secret,' which has, moreover, the merit of giving good pictures of Southern life at just about the end of the war. It does not open very well, as it seems to promise a greater display of local pride and local sentimentality than would be considered admirable in other parts of the world. A number of haughty Virginians and other adherents of the Lost Cause come on the stage, and are set in brilliant contrast with the characteristic Yankee, Æneas Tadpole, who is almost as life-like as his name, and who has already frequently appeared in fiction, his earliest avatar being in the name of Uriah Heep. This degenerate Æneas is afraid of horses, he is inattentive to personal cleanliness, he pronounces "half" "harf," he is a blackmailer—in short, he justifies his surname rather than that given him in baptism; and, finally, after being discovered in his nefarious practices, he is last heard of as "the popular pastor of one of the largest and most influential churches of Boston." But even he is a shadowy villain by the side of Julian Harfleur, who, in his way, is a domestic Nero; he stops at no crime. It would require a long paragraph to summarize the various misdeeds of these two villains; what is better is the way in which Southern life is portrayed, with admiration tempered by the perception of what is ridiculous. For instance, when the knights at a "tournament" were choosing names before the tilt, "'The Black Prince' was objected to at first by our worthy major, on the ground that it would be derogatory to the dignity of the occasion, and likely to propagate incendiary ideas, for any one to appear in the character of a 'nigger'; but when the matter was explained to him he withdrew his objections, merely insisting that the hero of Crecy and Poitiers should be announced as the 'Prince in Black.'" Jesting of this sort, and on such a subject, is something new in novels written south of Mason and Dixon's line.

Mr. Thomas Hardy calls his last novel, 'The Hand of Ethelberta,' "a comedy in chapters," and this sub-title defines the book well, and indicates what constitutes its merit, namely, that it is amusing throughout, while it reveals its main fault, the feeling of unreality which it leaves behind. The heroine, whose hand is sought by many men, is the daughter of a butler. She had been educated for a governess, had been married by a young man of good family who very soon afterwards died, leaving her a young widow in good society, which is ignorant of the secret of her birth. She is far from ignoring her humble relations, although she is careful not to thrust any superfluous information about herself and her belongings upon the great world. This, it will be seen, is a condition of things that gives the writer an excellent chance to introduce a variety of amusing scenes, and it is a chance he by no means neglects. Ethelberta is a charming creature who bears a strong likeness to Bathsheba in 'Far from the Madding Crowd,' and to her whose pranks are narrated in 'Under the Greenwood Tree,' which still remains, in our opinion, Mr. Hardy's best novel. She presents a singular combination of good and bad qualities, but what is represented as one of her main virtues—her desire to make a good marriage in order to aid her family—leaves the romantic reader cold, and when at the end of the book she accomplishes this, one turns from the book with something like disgust. Up to that point, however, one is constantly interested; the double part Ethelberta has to play keeps the reader in a constant twitter of anxiety, and the talk of all the characters is very entertaining. One of Mr. Hardy's most admirable qualities, and one that sets him very high among writers of novels, is his boundless invention; he never simply says a thing happened and trusts to that to make a satisfactory impression on the reader; he represents the thing happening, he brings in a scene showing us in what manner it happened, what A, B, and C did, and what they all said. Hence, almost as vividly as on the stage, we see Ethelberta coquetting with her admirers, struggling with difficult questions of domestic economy, and forming plans for the future, and her lovers talking about her in despair,

* 'Achsah: A New England Life-Study. By Rev. Peter Pennot.' Illustrated. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 1876.
'A New Godiva. By Stanley Hope.' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1876.
'A Family Secret: A Novel. By "Elzey Hay" (Fanny Andrews).' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1876.
'The Hand of Ethelberta. By Thomas Hardy, author of 'Far from the Madding Crowd,' etc.' Leisure Hour Series. New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1876.

trying to win her good graces, etc., etc.—the list is endless. Take, for example, the last chapter, in which the interest of the reader is concentrated about Knollsea—how well the different emotions of those who are all hastening there are represented, how diverting is the account of their talk and actions! Except for the conclusion, we should have little to criticise in this production of Mr. Hardy's; and, as it is, his admirers will still be glad to hear—whenever they do hear—that he is writing a new story.

The appearance at this time of a new novel by the author of 'The Wide, Wide World' could not possibly create as much excitement as it would have done twenty years ago, and certainly at no period in the world's history could 'Wych Hazel' have been so much admired as its famous predecessor. When a German or Frenchman says anything about American fiction, it is pretty apt to be the case that his reading has been confined to 'The Wide, Wide World'; but if he undertakes to fill out his knowledge by adding this last novel to his list, he will find one great difficulty in his way, and that is the extraordinary style in which the book is written. The pert, epigrammatic speeches of the characters are almost unintelligible; they are like the sentences of people who try to condense a great deal into the ten words of a telegraphic message. Here, for instance, is the heroine's conversation with her guardian in a stage-coach. He had supposed her guilty of purloining a kitten from the house where she had been dining—

"But presently, lifting one corner of her basket-lid, Wych Hazel drew forth a radiant spray of roses, and laid them penitently upon the averted line of her guardian's coat-sleeve.

"'Where did you get that?' he said. 'You had better put it in the basket, my dear; it will stand a better chance to keep fresh.'

"'Do you prefer pinks, sir?—or here are bachelor's buttons—'

"'They seem rather common things to me,' said Mr. Falkirk, slowly, yet with a somewhat pacified brow. There was no kitten in the basket!

"'I hadn't the heart to bring puss, as we were going to Catskill,' whispered Miss Hazel.

"'We!' ejaculated Mr. Falkirk.

"'Nominative case, first person plural, sir!'

"'And what's the definition of an adverb?'

"'Something which qualifies your suffering—*n'est-ce pas*, Mr. Falkirk?'

"'Certainly, by its primary action upon your doing, Miss Hazel. We are going to Chickaree.'"

The whole novel is written in this vein of condensed sprightliness, which at times is as hard reading as a book of Latin inscriptions. There is a love-story told in the same way, and interspersed with occasional flings at the follies of society, which generally come from the lips of the hero, a young man of twenty-five, who objects to dancing the German.

Meanwhile, what does Mrs. Bloomfield Moore in her novel, 'On Dangerous Ground,' make of American society? "It had been the desire of the life" of her heroine, Agatha Lee, "to have a Platonic friendship." It had been, apparently, the desire of all the other women's lives to have warmer feelings, Aristotelian possibly, for a great many men. Mrs. Grey goes out on the cliffs at Newport and lets Frank Mortimer kiss her hair—her hair which, it is insinuated, is as false as her heart. The next morning Mortimer asks Agatha to marry him, but she had been watching him the night before, and for that reason and others she refuses his offer. Mrs. Tracey, who had already been in love with her sister-in-law's husband, and had married Mr. Tracey out of pique, is caught by her husband being violently kissed by Paul Howard, so that Mr. Tracey, who has himself fallen in love with Agatha, gets a divorce, for of course no picture of American life could be complete without a divorce. When free, Mrs. Tracey marries Frank Mortimer. Howard consoles himself with flirting so violently with a Mrs. Matthews that her husband has to interfere, and finally to shoot Howard in a duel. Miss Penn marries Mr. Atherton, and runs away with Mr. Jenkins to live in a hut near Naples. Mortimer, after his wife's death, marries Mrs. Grey; in fact, all these people tie themselves, snake fashion, into inextricably confusing knots. It is hardly necessary to add that Agatha, after a long correspondence with Mr. Tracey, in which he at once ignobly shirks his part by making his letter consist of nothing but a familiar quotation, finally marries him. Fortunately, the novel stops here, and we have no further information given us about her probable elopements, separations, etc. Newport, Philadelphia, and various cities of Europe are the scenes of these unamusing frivolities; but Philadelphia is the favorite spot, for "one may travel over the world and return without finding another town or city where the suppers can vie with those given at Philadelphia balls; and though one should pursue researches for more charming women or for girls with more beauty equally far, they will return to give the palm to the Quaker City." The design which has inspired the heaping together of these unsavory incidents is the reformation of society, to show "the folly and the danger of 'platonic attachments'" and "the wickedness of flirting"; but, with all respect for the excellence of the author's intentions, it may well be doubted whether she furthers their accomplishment by the means she has chosen, for certainly the impression the reader is likely to receive is that of the glaring vulgarity of all these people rather than that of Spartan virtue. Still, whether bad or good in its tendencies, the novel is too unimportant to need much discussion.

'Wych Hazel. By Susan and Anna Warner, authors of 'Wide, Wide World,' 'Queechy,' etc., etc.' New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1876.

'On Dangerous Ground; or, Agatha's Friendship: A Romance of American Society. By Mrs. Bloomfield H. Moore.' International Series. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates. 1876.

A Paragraph History of the United States, etc. With brief Notes on Contemporaneous Events. Chronologically arranged.—*A Paragraph History of the American Revolution.—Revolutionary Times.* Sketches of our Country, its People, and their Ways one hundred years ago. By Edward Abbott. (Boston: Roberts Bros. 1875-76.)—These three pocket volumes will rank with the most useful as well as most handy of Centennial publications. The first two are alike in plan, but the 'History of the Revolution' is skilfully illustrated with cuts of Revolutionary antiquities, and with campaign sketch-maps which more pretentious histories often lack. The notes on contemporaneous events are in Italic type, room being made for them at one side within the body of each paragraph. They take a liberal range, and, if not always what one might have expected, they are never trivial. We incline to think the mode of their insertion distracting, as the mind is taxed to associate a consecutive series of events, having for the most part a causal connection, with isolated facts taken almost at random from other series. As an instance of this we may cite the paragraph for 1681, the date of William Penn's grant, the contemporaneous event being "First penny-post set up in London and its suburbs." One might associate these unrelated facts by means of the (unintentional) pun, but otherwise it were difficult. It would seem preferable to have grouped the synchronisms in periods, and to have ranged them either at the beginning of a chapter or at the bottom of the page.

Where there is so much condensation, and where recognized authorities are confessedly followed without any attempt at independent criticism, fault-finding of course becomes easy. We venture upon a few criticisms with a view to perfecting that which is already so good. And first we note, without censure, in the 'United States,' that the voyage of Verrazzani is admitted without hesitation, and that there is no hint that the legend of Goffe at Hadley has been called in question. What is not quite excusable is the statement on p. 32 that Washington's father "traced his English ancestry back to the twelfth century." It ought to be notorious by this time that Washington's pedigree cannot be traced (nor did he himself pretend that it could) beyond his great-grandfather, the emigrant. Mr. Abbott's 'Revolution' is noticeably moderate in tone, and fair to all the colonies in representing their several parts in the great movement. Nevertheless, Rhode Island might complain that such important events as the occupation of Newport by the British and its evacuation have neither a paragraph nor so much as a line devoted to them, in spite of the connection of our French allies with the latter incident. Newport, as it happens, is again slighted in 'Revolutionary Times.' On page 14 Mr. Abbott is naming, after some old map, the chief cities in the order of their importance (in 1776). Providence ranks fifth, while Newport is not mentioned at all. On p. 41 he says: "Newport had been eclipsed by Providence, whose population was now about 5,000." By the Rhode Island census of 1774, however, Providence reckoned but 655 families (4,321 inhabitants), while Newport had 1,590 families (9,208 inhabitants). Before the British occupation, therefore (December, 1776), Providence had probably less than half the population of its sister capital; but in the next three years the commercial prospects of Newport were ruined, and it was half deserted. Its princely Jews never returned. 'Revolutionary Times,' though well put together and extremely interesting, has more the air of a made book than has either of its predecessors. A sign of this is the appearance in the closing chapter of the slang refrain of "Punch in the presence of the passenjare," which it had been better taste to relegate to the limbo of other passing fashions. Still another mark of haste is the imperfect entries in a select list of books to consult, which is given at the end of the volume. Thus we find: "Old New England Traits. *Lunt.* Boston: —" when it could scarcely have required a half-hour's search to verify the imprint as follows: "New York: Hurd & Houghton. 1873." As Mr. Abbott warns his readers that many of the books he names are excessively rare, they might easily be misled by such a blank as this. So, too, in the case of Schroeder's 'Life and Times of Washington' there is no uncertainty about the date either on account of age or

rarity; and in place of a double blank, "New York, 1857-61" should be inserted in another edition.

But if we were to say more we should give the impression that this little series is not (what it is) a very welcome and even charming addition to our literature, individual in character, and in general entirely trustworthy.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 15, 1876.

The Week.

As the nomination of the Republican Convention will probably have been made before this paper reaches the great body of our readers, ordinary prudence, if nothing else, forbids our uttering any predictions or engaging in any calculation of chances. To record the way the candidates have "developed strength" or "weakened" during the week, or the signs of new combinations or alliances that have shown themselves, or to describe clubs of solid, substantial citizens and of mere "shouters" who have gone out to promote the fortunes of their favorites, or the extraordinary displays of devotion which have been called forth by the discovery of something disreputable about a candidate, would for the same reason be a waste of labor. The Convention excites great interest, such as has not been witnessed in the case of any similar body since 1860, and the result will probably have in various ways an influence on the future of the Government second only in importance to that of the Convention which nominated Mr. Lincoln.

The process of "vindicating" Mr. Blaine has been continued by himself and one or two friendly newspapers through the week. He made a savage attack in the House on the Judiciary Committee for not having produced a telegraphic despatch sent to them from "London" by Caldwell exonerating him (Blaine) in the matter of the $64,000 Little Rock and Fort Smith bonds, and made a great uproar about it. His obvious aim was to produce the impression that the Committee was violently prejudiced against him, and that if the Caldwell despatch had been published it would have set him all right with the country. But the Committee had as yet said nothing about him. They had not reported on him, or done anything except listen to evidence against him furnished by his own friends and associates, and it was this evidence which was damaging him if anything was. No proof of the state of mind of the Committee was therefore relevant. It made no difference how they felt. Moreover, the Caldwell despatch, if published, could have done him no good; its retention, therefore, even if malicious, did him no harm. Caldwell is a disreputable person, one of the small army of jobbers and speculators who have during the past fifteen years been corrupting our politics and ruining our credit. There is little doubt that he is now keeping out of the country to avoid examination in the pending investigations. It was, therefore, not unnatural to pocket a despatch from him until enquiries had been made about the worthy man's whereabouts, and certainly excusable to treat it as having no importance as evidence. The point about the presence of "two rebel generals" on the Sub-Committee had just as little bearing on the matter in dispute. It might do in the Court of General Sessions, but we must again remind Mr. Blaine that he is not a criminal on trial; he is a gentleman in high public station who is trying to convince the American people that while in office he did nothing either dishonorable or suspicious. We may add also, that the fact of Mr. Tarbox's having on one occasion got a copy of Mr. Blaine's financial speech before it was delivered, hardly touches the issue.

The course of the newspapers friendly to Mr. Blaine has been sufficiently absurd and extravagant to recall the old days of the impeachment of Andrew Johnson. They talked as if his ability to assail and overwhelm the Committee, bully the House and Speaker, settled the whole matter, and that he need say no more about his operations in stocks and bonds, and as if the applause of the crowd in the galleries expressed the verdict of the country. The fact is that Mr. Blaine's victory over the Committee, such as it was, settled nothing whatever, and the report of it and of his wrangles with the Speaker has been read by sober-minded men with pain and regret. It was an unseemly exhibition, in which Butler ought to have figured. The reporters, however, seem to have been thrown into ecstasies by it, and in one or two cases became so besotted as to announce that Blaine was all right now, and that all that the American people sought in a Presidential candidate was that he should be "plucky" and "audacious," and a good "fighting man," and should be able to "muzzle" or "overwhelm" Proctor Knott. The general and correct impression is, however, that what the American people seeks now in a candidate above all things is that he should be honorable, disinterested, above reproach; that he should keep good company, and have always kept it; and that if a wealthy man, he should have acquired his fortune in some open way, or way that will bear minute and public description. As to the "pluck" and "audacity," "smartness" and "fighting qualities," they are not, apart from other things, particularly attractive. They can be found in great abundance among the faro-bankers in this city, and Ben Butler has them in even a higher degree than Mr. Blaine.

A peculiar disease, which affects moral perception somewhat as strabismus is supposed to affect ordinary vision, appears to have broken out among some of our public educators. Not long ago, President White, of Cornell, happened to look in the direction of Conkling and beheld a saint and a hero; and now Professor Townsend, of the Boston University, exhibits an analogous moral distortion. In an address before the graduating class of the theological school of the University last Wednesday, he took for his subject the heroic element in Christian character as illustrated in the life of John the Baptist, and in the course of his remarks, according to newspaper report, "while citing examples of heroism, he referred to the coolness with which Mr. Blaine had faced and routed for the second time the riff-raff of secession on the floor of Congress"—an allusion which, we are further informed, was "warmly applauded," showing that the speaker probably exhibited considerable warmth of manner while making the reference. We can readily understand that the active politicians who are Mr. Blaine's supporters may admire his pluck or his "cheek" or his shrewdness; that his recent performance may be to them a glowing illustration of political ingenuity and daring; but that a prominent divine, in an address before a collection of young ministers, should refer to a man who is evidently doing all that he can to divert attention from the fact that he has been engaged in discreditable stock-jobbing operations, as an illustration of Christian heroism, we should once have thought impossible. Ordinary strabismus is a matter of little importance, and can be cured usually by a slight and comparatively painless operation; but this moral infirmity, especially in the case of some of those who have recently manifested symptoms of it, is a terribly serious affair. It showed itself among the ministers about Boston once before in the case of Butler, and it starts a good many plain people on lines of thought, which are not always profitable, touching the connection between theology and morals—a subject which now comes up with painful frequency.

At a time when unblemished reputations are getting to be so scarce in public life, it is cause for general rejoicing that the House Committee on Expenditures has made a unanimous report completely exonerating Speaker Kerr in the matter of the charge, brought against him by one Harney, of having sold a commission in the army to a man named Green. Mr. Kerr's character has always stood so high that people were naturally shocked to hear him accused of having sold his good name for so small an amount, even in these days, when politics have become so largely a branch of speculative business. When he came to answer, his

very probity and disinterestedness stood in his way, for it was naturally asked, why did he go out of his own district to nominate Green for the commission if his motives were not corrupt? It turned out, however, that Harney was a scamp, and that Mr. Kerr went out of his district because no one in it applied for or seemed to wish for the appointment, and because Green, who did apply, was well recommended. The charge, however, paltry as it was, seems to have had the effect of aggravating Mr. Kerr's malady, and he has had to leave Washington in a condition which makes his resumption of his duties in the House very unlikely. Mr. Blaine also has had an attack of illness which spread consternation among his supporters, and was doubtless due to the strain on his nerves caused by his late troubles, but which, happily, has proved not to be serious, though attended with five hours of unconsciousness.

The House, by permitting the Committee on Banking and Currency to report a Currency Bill at any time it pleases, has made it certain that a bill repealing the Resumption Act will be shortly passed by the House. Two agencies operate to produce this result: One is the belief of the Democratic inflationists, which is shared to some extent by the Republican semi-inflationists, that it is the fear that resumption is coming which now depresses business or prevents its revival. The other is the dislike of the same parties to the national banks, and their desire to have all the bank circulation withdrawn and greenbacks substituted for it, instead of the process which is now going on of the substitution of greenbacks for bank-bills. The weak point about the Resumption Bill is that it does not secure contraction on so large a scale as to render resumption easy when the time comes. Since its passage in January, 1875, the volume of the greenbacks has only been reduced by about $12,000,000, that of the banks by only about $17,000,000. At the rate of say $8,000,000 a year of reduction, the outstanding greenback circulation in 1879 would be still $350,000,000, which in addition to the bank circulation is a large amount to undertake to deal with as provided by the Act—that is to say, by the use of surplus revenue not otherwise appropriated and by the sale of bonds.

There is a Committee of Congress, we believe, sitting at this moment to discuss a plan for providing a permanent tribunal of international arbitration. There is at the same time a bill before the House, reported by the majority of the Judiciary Committee, providing for the all but complete disregard of the terms of the award made by the Geneva Tribunal, and the distribution of the balance of the indemnity on new rules, originally suggested, we believe, by Butler. We have recently tried to characterize this scheme in the way it deserves. We hardly expect that anybody's opinion will produce much effect on the transaction, but we cannot avoid saying a word of discouragement to the Committee which is considering the question of international arbitration. What we have to say on that matter is this—that, in the opinion of the honest portion of the civilized world, the proposal by Congress of any such plan will, in the presence of the bill of the Judiciary Committee, be considered a huge joke, and in some respects an insulting one; that the principle of arbitration has received a blow from the conduct of the United States in the *Alabama* matter which it will probably not get over in fifty years or one hundred years; and that the old-fashioned plan of settling disputes by armed force has, for the same reason, secured a greatly increased hold on the minds of statesmen and of the people of Christendom, which, of course, makes the maintenance of vast armaments easier. We hope, therefore, that for decency's sake the Committee will be discharged at once from the further consideration of the matter. It is impossible not to see in the whole affair an illustration of the fact that a considerable number of men get into every Congress whose morality seems conterminous with positive law, and who, therefore, have no scruple in perpetrating any fraud for which they cannot suffer legal punishment. Legislation affords them in certain fields abundant opportunities for the gratification of their dishonest propensities, and they are constantly on the lookout for some swindle which they can carry through neatly and expeditiously. Butler is the head of this school of politicians, but he has many disciples who are in all respects worthy of him, who, when they find themselves in a place where they can cheat somebody, or pass bad money on somebody without fear of the police, fairly jump with joy. They remind one of the Irishman who, on hearing a Universalist's account of his religious belief, exclaimed: "Well, if I believed that, divil another day's work I'd ivir do; I'd just stale an' rob, an' rob an' stale."

The "American Alliance" has issued a call for a "National Conference" at Philadelphia on the 4th of July, "for the purpose of acting upon nominations for President and Vice-President of the United States, upon the principles advocated by the American Alliance," and to recommend the substitution of a popular vote for President for the present Electoral College. The Alliance is in favor of such legislation as may be necessary for "putting a check upon the wholesale manufacture of citizenship from the foreign material that flocks to our land"; declares that the ignorance and rawness of the foreign voter make him an easy prey to scheming politicians; that by his aid "the halls of Congress and State legislatures have been disgraced," and seats secured by unfit persons, whose proper place would often have been "entirely different institutions." The Alliance recommends that only Americans born be elected to official positions of high trust and responsibility, favors the Bible in the public schools, and declares that the time has come for an "American balance of power" in this country. This call has, like all the other attempts to rouse a native-American and anti-Catholic furor, fallen flat, the reason being, as we take it, that the public sees very clearly through the pretence that the disorder and corruption against which we are now struggling come from the foreign population or the Pope. The most imposing rascals the country has produced, men like Tweed, Fisk, Gould, or Ben. Butler, who have done more to corrupt the politics of the country than all the Popes put together, are not foreigners, but native-American citizens, and some of the worst of them come from parts of the country where American traditions and blood have been least mixed with any foreign strain. If a list were made of the names of persons whose success in politics has been followed by most distress, humiliation, and shame on the part of the public, and by most loss of the country's good name, the greater part of it would be found to be made up of native Americans, who began their career under the influence of the "Bible in the Schools," and whose supporters in all their wickedness have been zealous Protestants and stern denouncers of the baleful influence of the foreign vote. If we must choose between the Boss and the Pope, let us by all means have the Pope.

The conviction of George Lord, one of the leading members of the Canal Ring, will be another feather in Mr. Tilden's cap, and a very showy one. When he began the crusade against the Ring, and obtained an elaborate exposure of their frauds, some of the Republican papers who could not bear the sight of a Democratic Reformer cried out: "This is all very fine, but does Mr. Tilden offer any plan for the management of the canals hereafter? No; not one word does he say on this subject. Then, brethren, we leave you, in view of this fact, to draw your own conclusions as to what all this reforming fuss amounts to." As time went on, and the exposures continued, and it became necessary to say something else, they exclaimed: "Sammy is very active and glib in exposing frauds; but, brethren, has he yet brought one criminal to justice? Now that he has caught the thieves, why does he not try them? We venture to predict he will do nothing of the kind, and that no fraudulent Canal men will ever be punished as long as it depends on this cunning and hardened politician." Now that the work of punishing them has fairly begun, that the very chief of the Ring, the wealthiest, most respectable, and most pious and

charitable, has been found guilty and will probably go to the penitentiary for a term of years, we presume we shall be told that Tilden is shocked, and that his subordinates have been too zealous; but there can be no doubt about the effect on public opinion. In these days, a man who sends corruptionists to jail counts inevitably for more than men who have to explain that their own connection with corruptionists was harmless.

The price of silver in London has fallen to 51¼d. per ounce, the lowest price on record. This makes the gold value of the silver dollar which Mr. Sherman proposes to re-establish, and which is to contain 412.8 grains, less than 87¼ cents (.8720). The United States note for one dollar has ranged during the week between 88⅛ cents (.8849) and 88⅞ cents (.8889). Congress has done nothing during the week respecting the silver dollar, but Mr. Sherman has succeeded in having a day set apart later in the month for the consideration of the bill relating to it. The House has passed two bills, the first directing the issue of $10,000,000 of the subsidiary silver coin now in the Treasury for United States legal-tender notes, the latter to be held for the redemption of fractional notes as they come in. This bill is simply to relieve the stringency of the small-change market; and, now that we are in for the silver experiment, is a good measure. The second is known as the Randall Bill, and authorizes the Treasury to buy $20,000,000 more silver bullion, in lots of $1,000,000, and to coin the same and pay it out in ordinary Treasury disbursements. The part of the bill which provided for the exchange of this additional $20,000,000 subsidiary silver for United States notes was stricken out; so that the bill adds $20,000,000 to the currency furnished by the Treasury—in other words, inflates the currency by so much.

A telegraphic summary of the correspondence between Mr. Fish and Lord Derby, as published by the British Foreign Office, has reached this country, from which it appears that Lord Derby was led to suppose from a remark of Mr. Hoffman, the American chargé d'affaires, that the present deadlock could be got over by the negotiation of an additional article to the existing Treaty, providing against the trial of persons for other offences than those for which they are surrendered. He accordingly telegraphed to Sir Edward Thornton authorizing him to sign such an article, but was speedily informed by Mr. Fish that this was all a mistake—that the United States would not agree to any such article, though willing to make a new and enlarged treaty. Whereupon Lord Derby expressed his regret, and said that there was no prospect of England's agreeing to any treaty which should disregard the Act of 1870, though she was willing to meet Mr. Fish's wishes by abandoning the proposal that the police magistrate should decide whether the offence for which a prisoner was claimed was political or only criminal. At present, it must be admitted the prospects of extradition look rather gloomy, for Mr. Fish has no power to make such a treaty as the British Act of 1870 requires, and in the excitement of a Presidential canvass Congress is hardly likely to give it him. The robbers and forgers will doubtless govern themselves accordingly. Mr. Fish's despatches are generally treated by the English press as demolishing Lord Derby's position, and adding one more to the list of the Tory blunders.

The details of the proceedings taken by the stockholders of the Lisbon Tramway Co. against Albert Grant and others, for fraud in putting that concern on the market, in which the defendants have allowed judgment to go against them by default, have come out by the last mails, and show that the operation was in all its main features exactly like the Emma Mine. A firm of contractors, named Clark & Punchard, in return for his getting them the contract, agreed to pay Grant out of the money received on it $300,000 to start with, and $290,000 more in cash or paid-up shares of the company, and were to accept a "put" of 4,200 shares at par at Grant's discretion. Besides this they were to pay the Duke de Saldanha $30,000 in cash and $80,000 in paid-up shares for getting the charter of the road. The directors of the Company were then "qualified" in the usual manner by the promoters by gifts of shares or money from the contractors, and they at once entered into a contract with Clark & Punchard for the construction of the road for the enormous sum of $1,540,000. In fact, Grant keeps in his books a "D. Q. account" (directors' qualifications). Clark & Punchard and Grant then drew the prospectus, and Grant began "floating" the shares in the way Trenor W. Park knows about, and bought "favorable notices" in nearly all the leading papers by small payments to the money writers; and when a considerable quantity of shares had been taken by the public somebody went or was sent out to Lisbon, and found that the proposed line could not be constructed, owing to "the steepness of the gradients and the narrowness of the roadway." There was much quarrelling and uproar after this, naturally enough, and after a futile attempt to find another route for the track the swindled shareholders went into court, and Grant will probably have to pay up. The dear Duke de Saldanha, being an ambassador and having the approval of his own conscience, will probably keep what he has got, but will have to go home.

The Budget Committee of the present French Assembly, from which some novelties were expected owing to M. Gambetta's being placed at its head, has, after careful deliberation, come to the conclusion that it can make no change of the slightest importance in the expenditure. The net revenue amounts to, in round numbers, $480,000,000. Out of this has to be taken inevitably $275,000,000 for the army and navy and the interest on the public debt, leaving only $205,000,000 for all the other expenses of the state, including education, and the Committee have concluded that these cannot be cut down. Twenty thousand dollars has been granted to send artisans and agriculturists to the Philadelphia Exposition, and five thousand dollars for sending schoolmasters. M. Marcère, who was M. Ricard's assistant, and has succeeded him in the Ministry of the Interior, is winning golden opinions, and gave the Assembly recently an account of the mode in which the Government was dealing with the question of the appointment of the mayors, of which we spoke a fortnight ago. All mayors appointed by the late Government from among persons not members of the municipal councils have been requested to resign, and those who have not resigned have been suspended, and the election of their successors will now be left to the municipal councils. M. Marcère explained that the Government, unlike its predecessor, sought in the mayors neither friends nor enemies, but good citizens, able to unite under the Republic; and the Republic it sought "to make wise, not violent, beloved by all and accessible to all"—sentiments which drew forth hearty applause even from the Left.

The news from Turkey is important. The new Sultan and his advisers have agreed of their own accord to grant the armistice to the insurgents demanded by the Gortchakoff Note, and probably the other concessions also. The Note has accordingly not been presented, and probably will not be for the present. Whether the insurgents will accept the armistice, or whether peace can grow out of it as long as Turkey makes no provision for the superintendence of any reforms she may grant by the representatives of the Christian Powers, is doubtful. The three Powers, at all events, are disposed to give her a chance, and the Servians, who were all ready to cross the frontier with an army of about 100,000 men, under the command of a Russian general, have got a hint from St. Petersburg that they must keep quiet, and Turkey is to ask them courteously, not menacingly, and probably with a view to a correspondence, what is the meaning of their armaments. That this disposition to let things lie for the present is somewhat due to England's refusal to adhere to the Note, there is little question. The specific ground of her objection has been made known, and was that the close of the Note clearly pointed to armed intervention in case its proposals were refused, and for this she was not prepared as long as the objects and mode of intervention were not distinctly defined.

CIVIL-SERVICE DIFFICULTIES.

THE debate in the Senate on the civil service on Monday week was a performance which is well worthy of the careful attention of the public. People will find by perusing the speeches that, as might have been expected, the members of that body, with one or two exceptions, either do not perceive that the civil service needs reformation, or, if they perceive it, are not willing to say in what the reformation should consist—which is, of course, an excellent way of preventing any change whatever from taking place. The evils of the present system have been so much discussed and are so well known that we do not propose to enter into them in detail. We presume there is hardly a voter in the country who is not familiar with some of them. But the question whether we shall have any change is a vital one, of hardly less interest and importance to the American people than that which was occupying their fathers one hundred years ago. The future of the Government is likely to be fully as much affected by our manner of dealing with this as it was by the manner of the men of 1776 in dealing with the question of independence. And what puzzled people now, as what puzzled them then, is not what ought to be done, but how to do it. The obstacles in the way of doing anything are few in number, but it must be admitted that they are formidable.

The first one is somewhat similar to the leading obstacle in the way of a return to specie payments—viz., the loss by people of all recollection, or even tradition, of any better state of things, and a consequent difficulty on their part in conceiving of any better state of things as attainable. In 1776, every country in Europe had just such a civil service as we have now—that is, one in which the appointments were used principally to reward the favorites and followers of leading politicians, and only subordinately to secure the administration of the laws; and if it had been suggested to an English or French or Italian statesman that this was all wrong, and that the government employés should be selected and managed solely with reference to the public interest, he would have replied very much as Mr. Logan or Mr. Conkling would now reply. In England, the offices were used to secure votes precisely as they are now used here; that is to say, the Minister gave the control of the places to members of Parliament in order to secure their votes, and the member of Parliament gave them to his "workers" and constituents in order to secure his re-election. One of the novelties—indeed, the greatest novelty—which the American Revolution introduced into the modern world was a government conducted on business principles—that is, a government whose officers were selected without reference to anything but their fitness, paid the market price for their labor, and retained as long as they were useful. Until the accession of Bonaparte to the supreme power in France (that is, until about twenty years after our Revolution) ours was the only government in the Western world which was managed in this way—that is, as a merchant manages his counting-house; and this was due to the fact that the people had no recollection or experience of a government managed in any other way. They got their ideas of political business from their private business. The affairs of the town and county were, from the necessities of the case, carried on much in the same way as the citizens carried on the affairs of their farms and stores, with the same attention to character and to accountability and efficiency, and the same consideration of the wants and weaknesses of human nature. The attempts of the British Government to create and fill offices for other purposes than the public service were resented as acts of tyranny, and were mentioned in the Declaration of Independence as one of the causes of the Revolution.

How this tradition of the similarity of political business to private business, of the business character of the relation between the officer and the State which hires him, died out among us; and how the reorganization of the civil service on business principles in Europe has been one of the great features of the work of political reform which has been going on there ever since the close of the Napoleonic wars in 1815, are things with which most students of recent history are familiar. The fact is, however, that a very large proportion of our public has actually forgotten that the United States once occupied the position on this question which England and France occupy to-day, and that we have, after one hundred years of management of our own affairs, provided ourselves with administrative machinery in nearly every respect closely resembling that with which Lord North carried on the British Government and before which Turgot succumbed. In fact, there is hardly an abuse of that time in both those countries which we have not reproduced except the granting of pensions to ministerial and court favorites. Consequently, in arguing for civil-service reform before this generation, one has the air of recommending something far-off, odd, difficult, visionary, and impracticable, like a return to the simplicity of the Spartans or the public spirit of the early Romans. To great numbers of our people, Senator Morton's way of carrying on the Government appears the only practical way. They have no knowledge or remembrance of anything else. They know of no large republic which has carried it on differently.

We must add to this popular difficulty in conceiving of things never seen or known, the growth and complexity of party organizations. These now play a part in the Government of exceeding power and importance. They form the only channels through which public opinion can act effectively on legislation and administration. The management of them, with our present enormous population and vast and spreading inhabited area, is a work of great magnitude, and one of which the office-holders, as the persons most interested, have not unnaturally taken hold; and the present genération is so familiar with *their* management of them that it is hard for it to fancy them being managed by anybody else. It seems to the average citizen of our day that if there were no offices to distribute after election, nobody would "control the primaries," or get up the mass-meetings, or print the ballots, or procure the stump-speakers, or collect money for the campaign expenses. In fact, he can hardly get over the feeling that, excellent a thing as a reformed civil service would doubtless be, in the present state of human nature it would cause the machinery of politics to stand still. It might, he thinks, perhaps establish the kingdom of heaven among us, but it would paralyze earthly government. What is doubt in him is, in the politician proper, sheer disgust. Proposing to "work" at elections without any hope of office sounds very much to him as proposing to play euchre as a mere pastime, with ivory counters, would sound to a professional gambler—that is, harmless but silly.

In considering the difficulties with which the question meets in Congress itself, we have to remember, too, first of all, that even if the members were in any sense the élite of the nation, their action would be seriously trammelled by the fact that they mostly owe their appearance in political life to the civil service as it is, and they can hardly conceive of their getting into political life if it were as we would have it. Their position is very much, to recur to our former parallel, like that of the British members from the rotten boroughs under Lord North in 1776, who could not readily picture to themselves their return by a free popular constituency, and were not disposed to think very badly of a Parliament elected in large part by the nomination of peers or by the votes of thieving municipal corporations, when they themselves were in it. The attempts of our Congressmen to find reasons for not reforming the civil service, such as Mr. Boutwell's plea that, as it is now, it gives young men the means of getting their education as doctors or ministers; or Mr. Sargent's, that it furnishes relief for the deserving poor; or Mr. Morton's, that it brings the talent of the nation into the service of the Government, are probably not based on any serious belief. All of these gentlemen who laugh at all, laugh over this kind of talk in private, and only produce it publicly in a sort of decent eagerness for something that will look like principle and bear the weight of an argument. But it must be said, and ought to be remembered, that no change is to be looked for at the hands of members of Congress which is not forced on them by public opinion. To them the whole agitation is as foolish and chimerical as the desire of the Austrians for a parliament

used to be to Prince Metternich. We shall have the reform when the public really desires and shows plainly that it must have it. But it is not to be denied or overlooked, as we have already said, that, as in the case of specie payments, the public has difficulty in realizing how much it suffers from the existing system, owing to its want of knowledge of any other. There are certain outworks of the abuse, which the abuse itself has created, that must be carried before we can reach the citadel itself—such as the notion that the business of a nation is something different and distinct from that of an individual, and may or ought to be carried on in ways that would ruin an individual; the notion that, if office-holders were not forthcoming to conduct the canvass, elections would be neglected, parties go to pieces, and public opinion be left without adequate means of expression; the notion that, after having collected the taxes for certain business purposes specified by law, the magnitude of the aggregate amount makes it proper to use it indirectly for charitable purposes, by employing helpless or disabled or incompetent persons to do Government work; and, lastly, the notion that a force of permanent Government employés, whose small pay is dependent on annual votes of the legislature, would become a privileged class, feeling contempt for public opinion—a contingency which some people dread as much as if they were not already familiar with it in the persons of the present office-holders, who in every State, headed by the United States senators, form one of the most solid and insolent oligarchies now surviving.

These difficulties are so serious, and will take so much time for their removal, that we cannot help asking the friends of civil-service reform whether they do not think that the time for desultory attacks on the existing system through occasional articles and speeches has gone by, and that it must be assailed by some organization created for the purpose, with its treasury, and its writers and speakers, and all the other machinery of persistent and trained agitation, devoted day by day to the exposure of abuses and the education of the popular mind as to the remedy. The unnoticed scandals of our civil service, as now constituted, are numberless; the arts by which those who profit by them defend themselves against reform are too varied and powerful for any one man or newspaper to be able to make much impression on them; and the question will always be successfully shirked at elections until it is by some means raised to the rank of a "main question." This, we cannot help feeling, in the case of an abuse which has become rooted in our political traditions and habits, and to some extent in our manners and legislation, can only be done by an organization like a party, and, pending the formation of a party or preparatory to it, by an association.

THE RESUMPTION ACT.

THE only great thought in the direction of reform which seems to be agitating the mind of the Democratic party at this moment is the repeal of the Resumption Act of January, 1875. After looking around carefully for two or three years to see what they could do to regenerate the Government, and after one year's enjoyment of the leading share in legislation, they have come to the conclusion, apparently, that the highest service they can render the nation is to provide that it shall not attempt to redeem its notes in January, 1879, as promised last year. They have made it almost certain that they will shortly pass a bill to this effect in the House, and there is a widespread expectation that they will call for the same thing in their platform at St. Louis. It is but charitable to believe, however, that they forget that the Resumption Act is not simply a measure for the regulation of the finances of the Government in a manner to suit its own convenience or discretion. It is, on the contrary, a pledge of the same force and of the same nature as the promise to pay the Government debt in coin, or, indeed, to pay the Government debt in anything; and its repeal will be not a permissible change of plan in a matter of purely domestic interest, such as a determination to stop refunding at a lower rate of interest or to make alterations in the tariff would be, but an act of repudiation of the simplest and clearest description. There ought to be no vagueness or misapprehension in the public mind on this point, for it is a very important one.

The legal-tender notes of the Government were issued under Acts of Congress "on the credit of the United States," and have been held by the Supreme Court to be payable, whenever paid, in gold of a certain weight and fineness. They were, in other words, promises to pay certain sums in coin, though at no fixed date, but it was the accepted understanding that they would be paid as soon as the exigencies of the Government permitted. This absence of any stipulation as to the date of payment has always been a serious injury to the public credit. The want ought to have been supplied at the close of the war. It was the thing to which Mr. Boutwell ought to have first given his attention when General Grant came into office. At that time the country was of one mind about the matter. Democrats as well as Republicans—Democrats much more strongly than Republicans—were of opinion that the greenbacks were ordinary promissory notes, issued in a time of great difficulty, which ought to be redeemed as soon as possible. If the Government, therefore, as soon as the fighting was over and the country settled, had resolutely fixed a day, however remote, at which the legal-tender notes would be taken up in coin, not only would it have infused steadiness and sobriety into the business of the country and cleared the future both for lenders and borrowers, but it would have done something which all parties would have recognized as just and proper. It was, indeed, acknowledged on every side that the persistent refusal of the Government either to pay its notes or say when it would pay them, was a sort of violation of its engagements, or at all events an imperfect fulfilment of them. There were many possible excuses for not paying or beginning to pay immediately after the war; there were none for refusing to fix some date at which payment would eventually begin. The problem was no more difficult with regard to the non-interest-bearing than with regard to the interest-bearing debts. There was no reason why the bonds any more than the greenbacks should be "five-twenties" or "ten-forties." It was perfectly easy to say, in 1865 or in 1868, that in 1876 we would take up twenty or fifty or one hundred millions of our non-interest-bearing notes, and so on at subsequent intervals, until all were redeemed. The failure to do so was a great national scandal even then; it has since become a great national misfortune; and it is one of the many misfortunes which flow from putting feeble and ignorant men in high places.

The mistake was, however, partially rectified by the Act of January, 1875, which directed the Secretary of the Treasury to redeem, on and after the 1st of January, 1879, all United States legal-tender notes then outstanding, in sums of not less than fifty dollars. To provide the means of doing so, he was authorized to use any surplus revenue which might be from time to time lying in the Treasury, and "not otherwise appropriated" (a source from which plainly there is little to be expected), and also to issue and sell, at not less than par in coin, as many of either the five per cent. or the four and a half per cent. bonds authorized by the Refunding Act of July, 1870, as might be necessary for the purpose. This latter provision, we need hardly say, is amply sufficient for the object in view. The Resumption Act, therefore, completes the national pledge to pay the public debt. It names the day when the Treasury will begin to take up the overdue notes, and provides the source from which the means to do so are to be drawn. It is just as solemn and binding a promise as any other that has ever been made with regard to any pecuniary obligation of the Government. It was made by an Act of Congress duly passed and approved by the President, and there is no doubt of its constitutionality. It is not a law imposing duties on citizens of the United States. It is not mandatory as regards anybody except the Secretary of the Treasury. It is a simple undertaking on the part of the American people, made by their lawful representatives, to pay on a day certain a debt long past due; and as such is a contract with every person, native or foreign, who may, in January, 1879, be the holder of a United States note. To carry it out will not impose any immediate hardship on the community. The very

worst it can do in that direction will be to add say $200,000,000 to the public debt, and $10,000,000 or $9,000,000 to the annual charge, which, as the country is now, and with the present rate of reduction of the public debt, would hardly be felt. So that, if we fail to keep our engagement, we shall hardly have the excuse of inconvenience, much less of inability. It will, therefore, be repudiation in a peculiarly gross and repulsive shape, and it will be the first act of the kind committed by the United States, and will, at the opening of the second century of the national existence, put us on a par with Mexico or Guatemala.

There is another point of view in which the matter looks also very serious. A repudiation by one Congress or party of a pledge made to the public creditor by another when in lawful possession of the Government, would of course place the Treasury in a very peculiar position in all its future dealings with the civilized world. One of the marks of the success and stability of a constitutional government carried on by parties, and, indeed, the mark which as much as anything else distinguishes our Government from that of the South-American republics, and distinguishes all highly-civilized from barbarous governments, is the ready recognition by each party as it comes into power of all pledges of the national credit made by its predecessors. No country in Europe has gone through so many revolutions within the present century as France, but the national self-respect and the confidence of the financial world have been preserved through them all, by the fidelity with which each faction has respected the claims of the public creditor arising out of promises of a *de facto* government. Indeed, when once a people descends to the trick of treating the obligations assumed by a party on behalf of the state as only binding as long as that party holds the power, the period of political dissolution and frequent pronunciamientos is not far off, and politician and highway robber soon become convertible terms. Time was when the Democratic party would have thought it foul scorn to give the slightest countenance to such a theory, and there is no American schoolboy who to-day would not smile over it if presented to him in its nakedness. But, somehow, financial questions seem to have the power of befogging even respectable and intelligent men who approach them with little training or reflection, as to the plainest principles of political and even of private morality. The use of the irredeemable paper for so many years as money, though a phenomenon which seems simple enough and easily explicable, has blunted the perceptions and perverted the understanding of hundreds of thousands among us as to whole fields of duty with which public finance has no immediate connection. It has roused among us a prodigious body of latent rascality, and filled numberless ingenious and active minds with schemes for the evasion of plain obligations and for giving an air of right to ancient and undoubted wrong, and making easy and agreeable what the moral constitution of the world has from the beginning made hard and odious. In fact, the moral mischief it has wrought, though less palpable, is deeper and more widespread than the financial, and there could hardly be a better illustration of it than this proposed contribution of the Democrats to the work of "reform."

THE INTERNATIONAL EXHIBITION.—IV.

BRITISH PAINTINGS—THE REALISTS.—III.

PHILADELPHIA, June 10, 1876.

MR. MILLAIS'S "Early Days" is a life-size study of a blonde maid of six years sitting against the garden-wall and nursing her kitten, pale-looking and aristocratic. In such a picture the artist has every chance, for the sympathy of the spectator is sure to meet the work half-way. It is almost impossible to paint a child nursing a kitten without attracting the plaudits of a majority of passers-by. Blest in his subject, one of the most popular in the line of portraiture, the likeness-taker dresses it up in the mob-cap and black-lace mittens which recall at once Reynolds's child-subjects, with their inexhaustible charm. Determining that his little sitter shall make on the mind a like impression with "Penelope Boothby" or "Innocence," the artist rigs her out with the Georgian properties, and exults in the quaint, old-fashioned look she has. There is something almost cruel in victimizing a child to gratify the modern fancy for Eastlake furniture or Hanoverian costume. The cap, which in this case is the merest bric-à-brac, is as merciless an infliction as it would be to decorate a nursery with untouchable Venice glass, and for a certainty no little patrician of this day, however pale and phenomenal, will voluntarily nurse a kitten in mittens. Let us make curiosity-shops of our houses till we are as uncomfortable as modern taste demands, but to dress little helpless children in curios is tyranny. Apart from all this, is the picture one which, from its painting-quality, would attract a beholder who knew nothing about the Millais *cultus* in England? So rapidly does time pass that the rise of this peculiar faith, for a long time the newest thing in art-ritualism, is now looked back to as a historical rather than watched as a contemporaneous event. More than a quarter of a century has elapsed since Millais began to exhibit pictures, with thoughts in them, in the full footlight glare of Maclise's Porte St. Martin pieces. The "Huguenots" and "Ophelia" came out twenty-four years since, and the "Proscribed Royalist" a year later, in 1853. In 1867 the honest Parisians beheld with affright the green Madeleine of "The Eve of St. Agnes" standing by the painted window, as if illuminated by the colored jars of the chemist's shop. Those pictures had all some startling invention or other, while "Early Days," unable to startle, simply keeps even with the tone of good society by means of bric-à-brac. The real trouble is, not that it is shocking, but that it is inoffensive. The little travestied sitter is neither green, nor green-sick, nor crazy, but she is colorless. The kitten, by the bye, is black, and quietly attempts the diabolical; but the artist has forgotten to put any drawing into the figure of this familiar, which is as thin as a piece of smoked glass; so that while the child is ineffective, the grimalkin is flat. The contribution by Mr. Millais, in short, is gentlemanly but not striking. It has long been a question whether the enormous vogue of this artist was based upon an intelligent and healthy dissemination of art-knowledge among the public. It will be hard to take the affirmative until more solid work is produced than "Early Days."

Another purist, Mr. Holman Hunt, contributes a life-sized portrait of himself, painted in oil and exposed under glass. From the large scale, this work is to be compared with model-studies by the artist of natural size, such as "The Afterglow in Egypt," rather than with smaller pieces, such as "Christ in the Temple" or "The Pot of Basil." As in the "Afterglow," the patient covering of a large face and body with miniature-touch is very singular. Here is an artist wreaking on his own plain face and working-clothes the inexorable judgment of his pencil, and dwelling sternly upon the furrow of a wrinkle or a first gray hair. We recollect that, five years ago, the well-known jewel-painter, Desgoffe, being shut out from the Bibliothèque of the Louvre by the siege, imprisoned himself with a looking-glass and painted his own countenance just as if it had been an agate jewel. The result was very similar to Mr. Hunt's self-portrait. Of course, artists of the particularizing habit of eye never succeed in seeing a composition as a whole. The Rabbis in the "Temple" picture contributed their heads to the corners of the composition, like apples to a plate, each face breathing a separate air: so in the present painting, though there is but a single figure, the painter contrives to make every part seem individual and independent. In nature, a figure always connects itself together as a whole, either relieved against or imbedded in a background. Mr. Hunt has indeed imbedded himself in a background, but his limbs and extremities are separate studies, and do not succeed in coming in for the general circulation. The head stares phantom-like as Adamastor over the blue smock-frock, which has an impersonal and solemn breadth, like distant mountains. In the foreground a most carefully painted hand forces itself on the attention, being finished to the very pores, and having an individuality of its own, like a mediæval ivory-carving on a table; yet, patient and Chinese as it is in finish, this vaunted hand is badly painted. The reason is that it is all of one degree of solidity, the laps of skin between the fingers being just as hard as the knuckles. Now, a hand in nature is partly padded and partly hard, and the difference is not only evident to the touch but to the sight, and, therefore, quite within the province of painting to indicate. The hastiest sketch of Raphael's gives perfectly the difference between a joint's firmness and the fluent yieldingness of flesh, and expresses more truth in a minute of labor than Mr. Hunt has done in what has evidently occupied him for months. It would be idle to go into these details, but Mr. Hunt's picture, like all his work, is nothing but details. When he sends us an *ensemble*, the *ensemble* shall be criticised.

Mr. H. Wallis contributes "Across the Common" and the celebrated "Stone-Breaker," which is lent from the collection of Temple Soanes, Esq. It would be curious to point out the difference between the

"Stone-Breaker" and a picture of an old road-mender by Courbet, or his "Interment at Ornans." Both artists are realists of the most determined sincerity, yet the results are as different as day from night. M. Courbet, keen, true, and unconventional as is his eyesight, never forgets that nature cannot compose without making a unity. His figures belong to the air, and the day, and the scene. The English realist, on the other hand, is led quite astray by his habit of penetration. The important statement he has to make is, that freshly-broken stone displays many colors of considerable freshness. He forgets the other fact, that in nature a heap of stone has a dominant color of its own. Dwelling on the colors that may be extracted from stone-fracture, and forgetting everything else, his sight of course becomes morbid, and he forces the hues until they are prismatic; triumphant now, he adds to his broken baubles the figure of the stone-breaker, asleep or dead, and looking like Alnaschar above the shattered glass. The bank on which he leans is patched with bluish-green, like a majolica jar, and a diseased iridescence of yellow breaks over the composition as a sub-tone, while at the base the fragments of variegated rock glint and gleam in a furtive, disturbing manner.

On the whole, the pictures by the *préci ux* Englishmen will be to most spectators a revelation. They are not abundant, being crowded down by the mass of anecdote-pictures; but, so far as they go, they are characteristic. For an eye satiated with official art and regulation melodrama they come in as something noble and refreshing, they are so sincere in attempting to grow straight from the conscience; but their studiousness, however refreshing after the regular drama, has characteristics of awkwardness and self-assertion that are bad for the nerves, and strike like the efforts of the young man at the neighboring window to learn the German flute.

E. S.

A FRENCH DIPLOMAT.

PARIS, May 19, 1876.

THE Marquis of Eyragues was one of the most useful members of the diplomatic body of France under the Restoration and the reign of Louis Philippe. I have been favored with a copy of his personal memoirs, which have not been printed for public circulation, and are only given by the sons of M. d'Eyragues to a small number of friends. I have not often read a more interesting book. I believe that the recollections and impressions of any man, if they are sincere and well expressed, have much interest; but the interest must increase, of course, if that man has always been in contact with important personages and concerned with the most important affairs of Europe. Diplomacy has always in France been a career, like any other; we have always had professional diplomatists, who have been promoted in virtue of fixed rules, though the highest posts have at all times been given irregularly to men of distinction, who occupied them as long as it suited the interests of the country. These heaven-born ambassadors play the part of comets among the ordinary planets and satellites of the diplomatic staff. The Marquis d'Eyragues may be considered as a type of the diplomatic satellite, and, merely as such, it would be rather interesting to study all his movements.

The Marquis d'Eyragues was born on the 1st of January, 1805, at New Orleans. His grandfather had been an *émigré*, who left France with a son fourteen years old. This young man became a cadet in the army of Condé; father and son fought together in the ranks of the Royalists. Madame d'Eyragues belonged to a family who owned an estate in San Domingo. In 1804, the father of M. d'Eyragues, having just been married, went to San Domingo, hoping to realize this estate. The story of the adventures of the young couple in San Domingo would be very long. It is enough to say that they stayed for a time in New Orleans, where our Marquis was born. His father went back to France, entered the army, rose rapidly to be an officer, and took part in all the wars of the Empire. He was attached to Berthier, Prince of Neuchâtel, at the battle of the Moskva, and saw the burning of Moscow; he crossed the Berezina, but was made a prisoner at a short distance from Thorn, whither he was carrying despatches. He only returned to France in 1814, and found his son in a college at Versailles. The boy, born at New Orleans, was then ten years old; he was of delicate health, a good scholar, and of course he did as all the other boys of that time did, prepared himself to enter the army. He was received at Saint-Cyr, but fell so dangerously ill that he was sent for a year to his grandmother, who lived in the warm climate of Provence.

The military career was abandoned. The father of our young man was killed in Spain, when a French army crossed the Pyrenees and marched to Madrid. M. de Damas, who had commanded a division in the Army of Occupation, became Minister of War. He attached young d'Eyragues to his cabinet, and as he was soon afterwards named Minister of Foreign Affairs, d'Eyragues followed him and became an *attaché* at the age of nineteen. He was fortunately a young man of high principles, discreet, well bred; he was admitted to the constant familiarity of the Minister, who allowed him to open all his letters and despatches, as well as those of the Director of the Political Division, who is in our Foreign Office the most important personage after the Minister. His first journey was to Lisbon, where he was merely sent with some decorations for King John VI. and the principal Ministers. He gives a very vivid description of the Queen, who passed at the time for a heroine. This is what M. d'Eyragues says of her: "I was presented to a little woman, very fat, ugly, attired in a ridiculous manner, with a horrible voice, disordered gestures, and an incredible manner of speaking French. She had over her gown two pouches, out of which her hands constantly drew handkerchiefs, snuff-boxes, scissors, *chapelets*, and sugar-plums." Speaking of the King, she repeated several times: "Le Roi est bête." She sometimes asked a chamberlain for words, but the chamberlain was perfectly mute, and only bowed.

The second diplomatic journey of M. d'Eyragues was much more interesting: he was sent to Vienna and overland to Constantinople. In those times such a journey was extremely hard. He crossed the Banat of Temesvar, Transylvania and the mountains which separate Transylvania from Wallachia, in small vehicles dragged by four horses, holding only one person, who sits on straw. He stopped at Bucharest; Wallachia and Moldavia were then a desert. The Turks kept these fine provinces in a state of abject misery, in order that the Russians might not feed their armies off them. "These tactics, though barbarous, were efficacious, as in 1827, two years afterwards, the Russians found they could not cross the Balkan, simply because they could find no provisions. Soon afterwards, in 1828, Marshal Dibitch succeeded in crossing the Balkan in a bold march, but his army was much weakened, and found itself in a most critical position; and if Turkey, under the impulse of a mad terror—and, it must be added, at the instance of the diplomatic corps in Constantinople—had not consented to make peace, if she had simply temporized, the army of Dibitch would probably have been destroyed." The journey over the Balkan and to Constantinople was made on horseback, under the guidance of a Tartar, with a pointed cap of red color and two feet high. The small caravan was composed of four persons and five horses. Six days after leaving Bucharest, "we found ourselves on the shore of the Sea of Marmora; we went up a little hill, and at the distance of six leagues I discovered a confused mass of trees and buildings surmounted by a few minarets; the Tartar looked round to me, and said, 'Stamboul da'—'This is Stamboul.'" M. d'Eyragues saw the old uncivilized Stamboul; he was insulted on his way to the French Embassy by women and children, and annoyed by the wild dogs, who hated an European dress; he saw on the walls of the Seraglio long files of heads of revolted Greeks; he met the *ortas* of the Janissaries; he saw the Sultan go on Friday to the Mosque with an escort of Janissaries, of Bostandjis, of Kaludjis, of black and white Eunuchs, of Pashas, all with Oriental costumes. Nine years afterwards, the Janissaries were gone, and the horrible fez had replaced the turban; the Pashas wore ugly uniforms made in Paris. The return journey was like the first; and M. d'Eyragues was so active that he went in sixteen days from Constantinople to Paris.

M. d'Eyragues was sent afterwards to St. Petersburg, where M. de La Ferronays was then ambassador. He arrived at a most critical period in the Russian capital. The Emperor died on the 30th November, 1825, and the question of the succession kept all minds in suspense. The oldest Grand-Duke, Constantine, had renounced the crown when he married Grudzinska, the daughter of a Polish nobleman, and he was living in Warsaw. Nicholas, the second Grand-Duke, did not wish, moved as he was by a generous spirit, to take advantage of this renunciation, which in his opinion had not been quite free, and he asked the senate and the troops to recognize Constantine as emperor. Constantine, on his side, as soon as he heard of his father's death, sent an aide-de-camp to Nicholas, to congratulate him on his accession to the throne.

Wild rumors were spread in the army, and some regiments rebelled, with cries of "Vive Constantine." Nicholas, who was then receiving the homage of his court, at once asked for his horse, and presented himself alone in front of the revolted troops. His presence produced no effect. The Emperor was then joined by his own regiment of the Guards, and by a battery of artillery. The revolted soldiers were defeated. While this scene was being enacted, the Empress and all the princesses were waiting in court-dress. Nicholas came back, after the short and bloody struggle, un-

hurt, and almost unmoved. It will be easily understood that after such incidents the ceremony of Nicholas's coronation must have presented an exceptional interest. France sent an ambassador extraordinary, in the person of the Duc de Ragusa :

"We started from the Embassy at six o'clock in the morning to go to the Kremlin, in full uniform, and in two magnificent carriages. The first had six horses, attired in French style, with four footmen, in grand livery, at the head of the four horses, and three lackeys behind, and was preceded by a *piqueur* on horseback. In it were the Ambassador, alone on the back seat, and before him the first and second secretaries. Madame de La Ferronays, her daughter Pauline, and myself followed in a second carriage, with four horses. Our cortége crossed the whole city of Moscow, and we were one hour and a half going from the Embassy to the Kremlin. On his side, the Duc de Ragusa, accompanied by his numerous *attachés*, had gone to the Kremlin in two magnificent carriages, with six horses. We found him there, as well as the Duke of Devonshire, who had brought all his carriages from London."

The Church of the Assumption, where the Emperors are crowned, is so small that, besides the princes and the diplomatic body, few people could be allowed to enter it ; but outside of the church, at the foot of its staircase, made famous by the massacre of the Strelitzes, a large amphitheatre had been constructed for the nobility of St. Petersburg and of Moscow. I come at once to the dramatic incident of the coronation :

"Grand-Duke Constantine had arrived unexpectedly the day before from Warsaw, without warning the Emperor. . . . M. de La Ferronays, who knew him well, had been called to him ; as soon as he saw him the Grand-Duke shook hands with him and said, 'Well, you did not expect me. When I heard that, notwithstanding all I had said, it was still rumored, not only among the revolutionists but in higher places, that I had been deprived of the throne, that Nicholas was an usurper, I resolved to come and give, by my presence, a definitive denial to these rumors.'"

He added that Nicholas would make a better Emperor than himself ; he for his part liked the Poles, and was contented with his Polish army—"the finest in Europe." The ceremony was most interesting. At one moment Nicholas took off his sword and confided it to his brother Constantine. The Emperor received the homage of his mother, of his wife.

"Then came the Grand-Duke Constantine, who advanced with a firm pace towards the throne, threw an assured glance over the diplomatic body, as if he wished to provoke its attention, and, kneeling before his brother, paid him his faith and homage. The Emperor made him rise, took him between his arms, and pressed him long to his heart. Tears were flowing on both their faces, and the emotion of the Assembly before this extraordinary scene became almost too painful."

I cannot follow M. d'Eyragues in his various missions. He became secretary at Copenhagen ; he was only twenty-two years old ; his chief was often absent, and left him the difficult task of representing the Government of France. He was experienced beyond his years, and never committed a blunder. The Revolution of 1830 did not interrupt his career ; he was sent to the Hague, and witnessed the efforts of the King of Holland against the diplomacy of all Europe. His despatches became really important, for the Belgian question occupied the world till the end of the London Conference. Prince Talleyrand was so much struck by these despatches that, while he was in London, he asked M. d'Eyragues to correspond directly with him. From that moment he was classed among the professional diplomatists who can do the work, and not serve merely for show. He spent three years in Constantinople, sometimes as chargé d'affaires, and was appointed minister to Carlsruhe, and afterwards to Dresden.

The Revolution of 1848 put an end to his career. As soon as he heard of it he resigned, and went with his family to the little town of Falaise, the birthplace of William the Conqueror. It was in this quiet retreat that he spent the twenty-six last years of his life, looking on events with the eye of a philosopher. Napoleon III. offered him the Senate and a high post in diplomacy. He refused these offers, and always remained faithful to the cause which he had served in his youth and during his manhood. He was ambitious, he was honest ; and his memoirs, written for his family, show that he had not even the desire to attract the attention of the great public after his death. He belonged to a class of diplomats which must become more and more scarce now that the higher posts of the career have ceased to be the rewards of long professional services and have merely become the prizes of political strife.

Correspondence.

MONTENEGRO'S IMPORTANCE TO INSURRECTION IN TURKEY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION :

SIR : In a leading article on "The Prospect of a General War in Europe," in No. 566 of the *Nation*, while you appreciate the grand questions at issue most justly, you have, if I may be allowed to say so, not clearly estimated the mechanism of the movement or the relative value of the various appliances which are being brought to bear in this struggle, which now bids fair (and let us hope not falsely) to be the last appearance of the Grand Turk on the European stage.

That the general peace will be kept we have been assured from Berlin, but under circumstances which imply that the Porte and its dominions are not included in the negotiations. It seems most probable that no European power will now be obliged to take part, but between this and abstract peace in the East the difference will, I apprehend, be found to be immense. The rayah will not be prevented from doing his best to throw off the old yoke, and the critical question now is when the Principalities will be free to intervene. In all Russian diplomatic procedure, the whole of Turkey is included in the Asiatic department, and the preservation of European peace only means that neither Austria nor any other European Government shall be permitted to intervene, while the Principalities shall be free to act as their own interest and inclination lead them.

The only question of vital importance which the late Conference at Berlin could settle was simply this of the freedom of action of the Principalities, the assurance of which will, I feel certain, turn the scale so decisively against Turkey that the struggle cannot even be a long one But in your estimate of such an intervention you put Montenegro out of the question, while all is made to depend on Servia and Roumania. But from Roumania nothing except perhaps pecuniary assistance is expected, its army being notoriously ineffective, and the conquest of Servia alone would probably be no great work for the Turkish army, while Montenegro is really the main hope of the insurrection, and the enemy most dreaded by those of the Turkish commanders who have any experience in Montenegrin warfare. And so far is it from the fact that "a large proportion of her (Montenegro's) fighting men are already engaged" in the war—as you assert—that, while the number of rifles which the Prince can put in the field is 25,000 (including the home guard), the number of Montenegrin volunteers in Herzegovina has never, up to the time that I left there in March, been above 700, and is not now above 1,000. Of this I have various assurances too strong and too independent in their sources to be greatly in danger of error. We have a right to suppose that the Porte has used his best efforts to conquer the Herzegovinian insurgents. We know that troops have been sent even from the Asiatic provinces, and that the élite of the Turkish army have been employed in the fruitless struggle. Yet, if at any time since the beginning of it the 10,000 men whom Montenegro is always ready to send across the frontier had been sent into Herzegovina, that province of Bosnia would have been cleared of Turkish troops in a fortnight, with the exception of the few fortified places. It is very probable that in those battles which took place near the Montenegrin frontier, the people living along the frontier took their rifles and slipped across to the fighting and back again as soon as it was over ; and for this reason the Turkish commanders carefully avoided the frontier in all their operations, and the only cases in which they were obliged to approach it were the movements to relieve Niksics. The Prince of Montenegro had a most difficult task in compelling his people to maintain a neutrality which international law, as understood by civilized nations, would never have demanded of him, because the whole fighting population, if left free to follow its impulse, would have gone into Herzegovina ; and he had not merely to prevent organized expeditions, but to restrain the individual subject—to maintain his control over a population whose noblest occupation and most passionate ambition are to fight Turks. To enable him to do this, there was need of a discipline and moral control of which I venture to say no example can be found out of Montenegro, but also of a partial relaxation of that discipline to prevent an explosion at home.

There is no doubt that so far as the insurrection has gone its great strength has been in the Montenegrin volunteers in it, not from the numerical force, but from the higher character of the organization introduced by them and the moral influence of their presence. There is no more doubt in my mind (and I have had an inside view of the affair since August last) that if at any time Montenegro had sent ten thousand men into the field of hostilities the Turks would have been irretrievably beaten on that side, and that any attempt to avenge themselves on Montenegro by the southern frontier would have been equally put at naught by the fifteen thousand men left for its defence. We have, moreover, good military authority (Herr von Wickede, the German military critic) for believing that Montenegro and Servia would be able to hold their own against any army Turkey could *now* put in the field, even if it were concentrated to attack these two Principalities. But this is so far from being the case that already fifteen thousand men are required for a new insurrection in Bulgaria, and the garrisons in Crete, Epirus, Thessaly, and Albania must be strengthened to meet movements

threatened there, which will certainly be precipitated if the garrisons are withdrawn, and which now wait only for Montenegro to declare itself.

The destiny of the Turkish Empire may possibly be decided without any interference from without except that of Montenegro, the only non-vassal state whose interference is needful. This little remnant of a once great empire, the only fragment of it that has never been brought under subjection to the Turk, and which you leave out of consideration, is therefore really the most important element in the coming *mêlée*, not merely from the strength it can put in the field, but because its warlike prestige is so great amongst all the tribes west and south of it that its declaration of war will be the signal of half-a-dozen movements as formidable as that of Herzegovina.

It is certain that the Russian Government is not ignorant of any fact of importance bearing on this question, and that it perceives that the interference of Europe is not needed to break up the Turkish Empire. It is, I believe, equally beyond doubt that the same Government desires the dissolution of that empire, and that it is due to Russian influence alone that Montenegro and Servia have not interfered long ago ; and for these reasons it seems to me that we are looking in the wrong direction in expecting the fall of the Turkish Empire from outside aggression. Its dissolution will be due simply to the utter failure of the force that has held it together to accomplish that work any longer. The work of Russia since the Crimean war has been simply to restrain inopportune movements, to remove impediments to co-operation between the various elements of the empire, to restrain and direct, until the proper moment, all the aspirations towards independence of the several discontented tribes subject to the Porte, and to release them at that proper moment.

The only opponent of this policy in the councils of Europe to-day is Austria. The Hungarian element in the empire, which is at present the dominant one, understands that the formation of a Slav state at her southern boundary will ultimately draw away the Slav provinces of Austro-Hungary ; and the Hungarians, ready in past years to destroy the empire to secure their independence, are to-day ready to destroy it again rather than give the South-Slavs their freedom either from Turkey or their own rule. It would seem, too, that Austria would willingly risk a war with Russia rather than have the insurrection continue to a successful end, so that this antagonism between Hungary and Russia presents the only probability of war over the dissolution of Turkey. The vacillating tendencies of Vienna, one day subsidizing the insurrection and another crossing the Turkish frontier to kidnap a dangerous insurgent leader, were simply the struggles for ascendancy of the Slav and Hungarian elements, and while Russia had perhaps no objection to Austria leading the Slavs as a Slav power, she could not risk increasing the influence of Hungarian Austria ; so that, when the permanence of the Andrássy cabinet became assured, an immediate divergence between Austria and Russia manifested itself, and that divergence has become greater every day since, up to the holding of the Berlin Conference.

The first consequence of that divergence was the prohibition by Russia of any occupation of the disturbed provinces by Austria. Whatever public profession the Austrian Ministry made, this measure was prepared for with completest provision, and regarded by military Austria as beyond question up to February last, and even now is not by the army considered improbable.

In this juncture the Berlin Conference meets and "secures" the peace of Europe, menaced only by this divergence of the two Eastern empires. Information which I am disposed to regard as well-founded says that Austria, in this case, was convinced by a significant pressure from Germany that European interests would be consulted by allowing the insurgents (with the aid of such friends as they could get to aid them) to settle their account with the Turks without any Austrian interference except on conditions agreeable to Russia, and that the interference of the Principalities would not be considered to justify Austrian interference, the real intention of Germany being to prevent war between her two allies, and at the same time effectually to bar the future aggrandizement of Austria, by the formation of a confederacy of the Balkan provinces which should, at the same time, prevent Russia from acquiring any more territory on that side or getting possession of the mouth of the Danube. That this idea of the "United States of the Balkan" was present in the minds of influential Germans I have a proof in a letter addressed to me by a German friend of high consideration at Berlin on the eve of my starting for Herzegovina, in which this solution was laid down as the only one in accordance with English interests ; and, in the face of all the conflicting interests, it is clearly that which would be least likely to disturb the peace of Europe. The fact that the new accord of the three powers receives the energetic support of Berlin, while Vienna accepted it much against her will, goes to confirm this view of the matter, viz., that the peace of Europe is secured by Russia and Germany compelling Austria to consent to the practical relinquishment of all future annexation from the Turkish empire, Russia, on her part, renouncing any territorial acquisition.

There is an apparent inconsistency in the antagonists, Hungary and Russia, equally opposing Austrian occupation of Bosnia ; but this is explicable by the fact that both oppose the further annexion of Slav provinces by Austria—the Hungarians from fear of being overpowered, and the Russians from fear of losing their interest in the Slav states. Hungary would accept Austrian occupation in the interest of the Porte, and Russia in the interest of the insurgents, but as the Slav party at Vienna look forward to it as a stage towards absorption, both Hungary and Russia oppose it. In the early stages of the insurrection, while the policy of Germany was still veiled, Russia might have given part to Austria as the price of co-operation, but when Germany had come to an understanding with Russia, then concession became needless and was refused. This explains why, until the end of January, Russia made no objection to an Austrian occupation, which was in Ragusa regarded as a matter of course up to that time, and was only in February forbidden by Russia.

To your general conclusion—viz., that the sooner the crash comes in Turkey, the better—all that I saw in Herzegovina and Albania induces me to accord. The only vestige of government remaining in those provinces is the effect of the moral pressure of European functionaries ; beyond their reach, neither justice, liberty, nor protection of life or property can be depended on, and rarely are obtained except by the strong. Not a stone has ever been laid or lifted to further trade or production since the Turks came in. The only good road in Herzegovina was made seven years ago under pressure from Austria, and the bridge to complete it is still unbuilt, though the money has been sent five times from Stamboul to build it.

W. J. STILLMAN.

VENTNOR, ENG., May 26.

Notes.

THE second volume of Prof. E. C. Pickering's 'Elements of Physical Manipulation,' following the first volume at an interval of two or three years, will be published immediately by Hurd & Houghton. — Another professorship in the Johns Hopkins University, that of Natural History, has been filled from England, the chair having been accepted by Dr. H. N. Martin, Fellow and Lecturer of Christ's College, Cambridge, and an active coadjutor of Prof. Huxley's.——The Boylston Medical Committee of Harvard University offered last year a prize of $200 to all comers for the best dissertation on the thesis : "Do women require mental and bodily rest during menstruation, and to what extent ?" The manuscripts were sent in anonymously, and the successful competitor turns out to be Mrs. Dr. Mary Putnam Jacobi of this city, who thus wins professional laurels not for the first time.——The American Philological Association, Prof. Albert Harkness, President, will hold its eighth annual session at the University Building in this city next month, beginning on Tuesday, July 18, at 3 P.M. Members who report to Dr. Howard Crosby, chairman of the Local Committee, before June 20 will have entertainment provided for them. We understand that the Secretary, Prof. Samuel Hart, Trinity College, Hartford, has been notified already of the intended presentation of ten or twelve papers.

—The volume containing an account of the celebration of the last anniversary of the evacuation of Boston by the British army, March 17, 1776, published at the city's expense by A. Williams & Co., is perhaps the handsomest yet of the Centennial series. Not only is the typography excellent in a high degree, but the illustrations and maps are eminently well chosen and valuable. From Sparks's 'Life of Washington' has been borrowed an engraving of the gold medal voted by Congress to the American commander after the expulsion of Howe ; one of the most interesting incidents of the celebration having been the presentation to the city of Boston, by numerous citizens, of the medal in question, obtained by purchase from the descendants of Washington's elder brother Samuel. This relic was jealously guarded from the risks of the late war, and is now deposited in the Public Library, while, as it happens, in the cabinet of the Massachusetts Historical Society may be seen a copy of it in silver, together with silver copies of ten other commemorative gold medals (also struck in Paris by order of the Revolutionary Congress) presented by the French Government to Washington, and hence known as the "Washington Medals." Dr. Ellis has supplemented his oration with a Chronicle of the Siege, full of particulars de-

rived from the newspapers, diaries, private letters, and proclamations of the period, which leave the imagination little to do to picture what went on inside and outside the lines. By a very timely coincidence, Mr. Fonblanque's new 'Life of Burgoyne' appeared this year, and, in spite of all the researches of a century, has thrown important light on many of the principal transactions under Gage. Dr. Ellis makes free use of Burgoyne's letters in his Chronicle.

—J. H. Coates & Co., Philadelphia, have recently issued the second volume of the Comte de Paris's 'History of the Civil War,' including the third and fourth volumes of the French edition. All of the maps, with one or two unimportant exceptions, have been reproduced and in an admirable manner; we can recall no military maps previously printed in this country which are at all comparable with them. The print, paper, and binding are of the same excellent character as in the first volume, and its comparatively small price puts the book within the reach of every one. The labors of the editor (Prof. Coppée) have been principally devoted to the chapter on Finances, in which he has converted the francs into dollars, verified the numbers as far as possible, and added one or two notes in regard to Mr. Chase's Administration; he has also corrected the few minor errors of fact or identity which occur here and there throughout the volume. The Comte de Paris writes with such good judgment and is so completely strengthened in his positions by official documents (as witness his reply to Gen. Johnston's criticisms, p. 766) that perhaps there is little to be added by an editor, who might, however, in one direction have labored to advantage, viz., in converting the metres and kilometres into yards and miles. "A fatiguing march of twenty-two kilometres" does not yet convey an exact meaning to most American minds until they have stopped to solve a small problem in mental arithmetic; the same is true of the maps, where only the metrical scale is given, although any draughtsman could have added the scale of miles in a few minutes. A week's labor would have obviated all this, and we are the more surprised that it was not done, as this same criticism was so universally made on the first English volume. The translation is very good—free enough to read well in English, but still following quite closely the literal meaning of the French. Only occasionally do we find a little inaccuracy, as on p. 664, where we learn that the Indian trust-funds "embraced Government bonds, the interest on which was *paid by* the Indian Bureau." As the interest was paid by the Treasury, one would suppose this to be a misprint for *paid to*, but the original contains the verb "*administrés par*," the obvious translation of which is *disbursed by*. Of the work as a whole, we can only say that it maintains its high character; that the author's good sense is shown in abstaining from long arguments of the controversial features of the war, such as McClellan's removal, Fitz-John Porter's court-martial, Burnside's conduct at Antietam, etc.; that a careful study of official documents confirms its statements of fact with hardly an exception; and that, in short, it has firmly established its position as the standard military history of the Rebellion.

— Some Japanese ceramics and bronzes, exhibited at the Old Chickering Hall, are of unusual interest and value. They are generally modern, having been largely manufactured with the motive of display at the Centennial, but they are a striking exhibition of contemporary Eastern art at its best. There are nearly two hundred objects, mostly large—cloisonné vases like the pair No. 42, and lanterns like 103, being more than five feet high, and approaching Chinese enamel in brilliancy of color. The Satsuma vases 73 are 35½ inches high, painted with the zodiacal signs, and with some other porcelains are much beyond the common. Indeed, the general quality of the keramic collection appears to be higher than that of the pieces borrowed from English collections by Mr. James L. Bowles to illustrate his 'Keramic Art of Japan.' The proprietor, Mr. C. F. Pfoundes, purposes some lectures on Japanese art and letters; for illustrating the latter he has a rare library containing some seven thousand native books, of some of which he has published translations.

—An esteemed correspondent, a Kentuckian, sends us the following protest:

"I have often thought of the stinging little thorns which writers for the daily and weekly press stick into communities or whole sections of a people. In a notice of the poems of George D. Prentice, in your issue of the 1st instant, your writer says: 'In a period and region of low culture, he passed for a wit and poet, and was passable in both capacities.' Now, *culture*, especially either high or low culture, is a relative term, and that is what hurts—for comparisons *are* odious. Measured by Cambridge and Holland House, or by Harvard and Beacon Street, there is very little culture in the world. Relatively to the whole world, the United States may be called a cultured people, though not more so than five or six other nations. Relatively to other States of the Union, Kentucky is a community of fair average culture—a good deal of it being of the homespun order. In any proper sense it is not, and never was, a region of 'low culture.' The people of Kentucky and the entire Southwest appreciated Mr. Prentice at about his par value. As a poet, he was considered sprightly and pleasing, occasionally brilliant or profound—never great; as a witty and slashing political personalist, as an editor of his kind—and the *kind* was both common and popular twenty-five years ago—he was considered by friend and foe as without an equal; and this was true, for he had no equal. Recurring to the 'low culture'—the little thorn that smarts: the people of the *period* and the *region* indicated knew something, not very much, of Homer and Virgil, considerably more of Milton and Young, while their *favorites* (whom they quote and refer to in a manner that would make you doubt where you had landed, if you could go there in a balloon) are Shakspere, Byron, Pope, and Burns. Can it be fairly said that, as judges of poetry and wit, a people reading and *appreciating* such authors as these are a people of *low culture?*"

—Several interesting speeches were made the other day in Boston, at a meeting in Faneuil Hall called for the purpose of urging the city government to take immediate action upon the report of the Park Commissioners in favor of establishing a series of public parks in that city and its suburbs. Boston, it seems, is far behind New York, Chicago, Philadelphia, and other large cities in the matter of public parks, having only 100 acres, or thereabouts, to 1,000 (in round numbers) in New York, 2,000 in Chicago, and 3,000 in Philadelphia. Some statements contained in the speech of Dr. Oliver Wendell Holmes should be circulated as widely as possible, because of the chance that they may do some good during the coming hot weather. Referring to the high annual death-rate of Boston—which is 26.18, against 23.7 for London and 19.3 for Philadelphia—he stated that this death-rate has been shown to be due largely to the excessive mortality among infants and children under five years of age, and that the most fatal of the diseases that assail them is cholera-infantum, which prevails, moreover, almost entirely from June to October, "the weekly record of August and September being that of a pestilence." "The destroying angel carries off the first-born, and oftener still the last-born, out of almost every household in certain districts." The best-known remedy against cholera-infantum, Dr. Holmes states, is fresh air, temporary change of air often effecting a cure "which the apothecary cannot bring about with his drugs though the wisest of physicians had written the prescription." He quoted from several eminent physicians with reference to the restorative effects of fresh air in cholera-infantum. Dr. Bell, of Philadelphia, for instance, speaks of its effects as "strikingly evinced in the relief procured by many hundreds of children every summer in Philadelphia by their simply crossing and recrossing the River Delaware in steamboats once or twice a day." Dr. Holmes adds:

"The narrow and crowded streets of the northern slope of Beacon Hill and a wide region extending northward from it are inhabited by the very class most exposed to cholera-infantum and diseases of that nature. Having lived for many years in Charles Street, I had occasion to learn the incomparable comfort and delight to be got in a hot summer's day, when the wind is from the southwest, by turning the corner of Charles and Cambridge Streets and getting into the current of air cooled by passing over the water. Some of the poor mothers with sick children had found out where to bring them for relief, and I often thought if there were an open green filling up that corner with shade-trees and seats, what a priceless sanatorium it would be to all that suffering quarter of the city."

Dr. Holmes, of course, was speaking of the necessity for the establishment of public parks in Boston; but what is said of the effect of fresh air upon cholera-infantum should be borne in mind by rich and poor alike during the heated period.

—The death of George Sand, which took place last Thursday at Nohant, will probably be made the occasion of much writing about the most important literary work done in France during the last forty years, for this eminent author was, with the single exception of Victor Hugo, the last survivor of those who, although hardly as allies, have made modern French literature brilliant. Amantine-Lucile Aurore Dudevant, *née* Dupin, was born at Paris in 1804. On her father's side, by a chain of almost unbroken illegitimacy, she was descended from Maurice de Saxe, the natural son of Augustus II., King of Poland. Her mother had been the mistress of a wealthy general, whom she left for love of Dupin, a young lieutenant, to whose support she had already contributed from the general's funds. Shortly before this daughter's birth the two were married. The father died soon afterwards, leaving his daughter to the care of his wife and his mother. The child ran wild for some time, and was the cause of many quarrels between these two guardians, who, however, were not entirely different, for the story is told of the grandmother that, fearing that a brother of George Sand's by another father was not perfectly grounded in his catechism at the time when his confirmation was desirable, she plied with wine the priest who was to conduct the examination, and on that evening he, the newly confirmed lad, the sexton, and the maid-servant all

rolled together under the table. From these surroundings George Sand was sent to a convent for three years (1817–1820), and at one time she was anxious to become a nun, but her doubts forbade that, and when they were allayed she turned her attention to constructing a theatre for the entertainment of her schoolmates. When she returned home after the death of her grandmother, she found life with her mother insupportable, and in despair she married M. Dudevant, the natural son of a French colonel. This was in September, 1822. She bore him two children, one son, Maurice, of more or less note as an author, and a daughter, Solange, who married Clesinger, the sculptor, from whom she was afterwards divorced. In 1831, George Sand and her husband agreed upon a quiet separation, according to which she was to live half the year in Paris with her daughter and the other half at Nohant. Since her means of support in Paris were scanty, she tried to eke them out by translating, painting pictures on cigar-cases, etc., and, soon making a bold flight, she published her first novel, 'Rose et Blanche,' in conjunction with one of her many new friends, Jules Sandeau, a young man of twenty-one. This was also the time at which she put on men's dress in order to have greater freedom in studying "life." Boots especially pleased her. "I cannot describe," she said, "the delight they gave me. I should have liked to sleep in them; I ran from one end of the city to the other, , . . I went out in all weathers, and nobody noticed my disguise." Her first novel was soon followed by others: by 'Indiana,' with which she first assumed her *nom de plume* of "George Sand"—"Jules Sand" was the pseudonym she and Sandeau adopted for their joint authorship—by 'Valentine' and by 'Lélia.' In 1834, she visited Italy with Alfred de Musset, and her connection with him inspired many of her later novels. In 1836, she was legally separated from her husband. For eight years she had a *liaison* with Chopin, whose influence, as well as that of Madame Viardot, is to be detected in 'Consuelo,' which is perhaps the best known of her novels. The social questions that agitated France left their mark on her writings, as in 'Le Péché de M. Antoine,' etc. During these last years she has been a most industrious writer; her latest novel, 'Flamarande,' was but recently completed in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, for which periodical she has written for many years. This is not the place to give a summary of her qualities or of the impression her writings leave. Of her wonderful genius there can be no doubt; her method of telling a story is beyond all praise, but as to the stories themselves opinions will not be so unanimous. She was always at odds with society and often with those rudimentary principles which distinguish civilization from barbarism, and indeed from the mode of life of the beasts that perish. She had an inexhaustible curiosity concerning forbidden matters which perpetually blotted even her best work. She defined herself with considerable accuracy in a letter written to Sainte-Beuve in the year 1833 concerning Jouffroy, whom he had offered to introduce to her; in it she said that Jouffroy would say of cannibalism that it never occurred to any one to eat human flesh, Sainte-Beuve would say that there are people who ask if such a thing is not possible, while as for herself she felt inclined to ask, why should one not eat it?

JOHN QUINCY ADAMS IN THE HOUSE.*

ON the 4th of March, 1831, Mr. Adams returned to public life as member of the House of Representatives of the United States, bringing with him his lifelong habits of conscientious industry. He was always in his place, always attentive to the business before the House, and always ready to justify his vote. In the knowledge required for wise legislation he had no superior, and in parliamentary tactics hardly an equal. It was a solemn moment when this ex-Minister, ex-Commissioner, ex-Senator, ex-Secretary of State, and ex-President resumed his place in the public councils. We shall not attempt to follow him step by step through the details of his Congressional career: his history is the history of the country; and all that we can do in a survey like this is to call attention to the characteristic traits of the statesman and the man. Let us also remember that he was more than once called upon to defend, as a Representative, principles and measures which he had enforced as President.

To his great regret, he was made chairman of the Committee on Manufactures. He asked to be excused from it as a subject with the details of which he was not familiar, but was told that the question of Union was involved in the question of a modification of the tariff, and that his influence was counted upon to reconcile the Eastern States to it. On being appointed on a committee to investigate the affairs of the United States Bank, he again asked to be excused from serving on the Committee on Manufactures—a request which called forth a debate which the papers of the day called "most extraordinary." "The present condition of the country," said Mr. Cambreleng, "and of the public mind demanded the intelligence, industry, and patriotism for which Mr. Adams was distinguished. The authority of his name was of infinite importance." Mr. Barbour followed in a like strain. "The member from Massachusetts," said he, "with whom I have been associated in the Committee on Manufactures, has not only fulfilled all his duties with eminent ability in the Committee, but in a spirit and temper that demanded grateful acknowledgments and excited the highest admiration." He concluded with an appeal to Mr. Adams, "as a patriot, a statesman, and philanthropist, as well as an American, feeling the full force of his duties, and touched by all their incentive to lofty action, to forbear his request." Mr. Drayton also eulogistically declared that "amidst all the rancor of political parties with which our country has been distracted, and from which, unhappily, we are not now exempt, it has always been admitted that no individual was more eminently endowed with those intellectual and moral qualities which entitle their possessor to the respect of the community, and to entire confidence in the purity of his motives, than Mr. Adams."

When we remember the parts which these three men bore in unseating Mr. Adams and making General Jackson President, we may well join the editor of *Niles's Weekly Register* in calling these speeches "most extraordinary." They may be considered, also, as a recognition of what was due to Mr. Adams's remarkable career, which, in their calmer moments, even his bitterest opponents did not hesitate to acknowledge. More than once, when debate grew warm and argument was lost in passion, he was appealed to to interpose between the contestants, and seldom failed to bring the discussion back to its starting-point by a clear statement of general principles or a happy illustration from his wide field of observation and reading. One more instance of this recognition we must give. Warren R. Davis, of South Carolina, was speaking. "I could only hear part of what he said. What I did hear, and what he said with great feeling, was this. Turning toward me, he said: 'Well do I remember the enthusiastic zeal with which we reproached the administration of that gentleman, and the ardor and vehemence with which we labored to bring in another. For the share that I had in these transactions, and it was not a small one, *I hope God will forgive me, for I shall never forgive myself.*' These were his identical words."

Mr. Adams was never a fluent speaker in his own opinion. All of his speeches were carefully studied in advance, and every part of his argument elaborately woven. Of language he had a full if not an easy flow; but it was only when the vein in his forehead began to swell that the torrent came.

It would be gross injustice to speak of Mr. Adams as a disappointed man, yet he sometimes writes de pondently. Thus, on the 9th July, 1834, he writes:

"Rode over and visited Mr. John Bailey at Dorchester, and had with him two hours of conversation. There is at present a great calm in the political world, and no prospects upon which I can dwell with satisfaction. The system of administration for the government of the Union is radically and, I believe, irretrievably vitiated—vitiated at the fountain. The succession to the Presidency absorbs all the national interests, and the electioneering contests are becoming merely venal. My hopes of the long continuance of this Union are extinct. The people must go the way of all the world, and split up into an uncertain number of rival communities, enemies in war, in peace friends. Were it otherwise, and were the future destinies of the nation to be as prosperous and as glorious as they have been hitherto, my lease of life is so near its close that I should live to witness little of it. My own system of administration, which was to make the national domain the inexhaustible fund for progressive and unceasing internal improving, has failed. Systematically renounced and denounced by the present Administration, it has been undisguisedly abandoned by H. Clay, ingloriously deserted by J. C. Calhoun, and silently given up by D. Webster. These are the opposition aspirants to the Presidential succession, not one of them having a system of administration which he would now dare to avow, and at this time scarcely linked together by the brittle chain of common opposition to the unprincipled absurdities of the present incumbent."

He expresses the same doubts in an interview with Mr. Yeardon, editor of the Charleston *Courier*:

"He (Yeardon) said, too, that at the next session of the Legislature the Nullification party would call a convention of the people, and thereby procure an amendment to the constitution of the State prescribing the test-oath, to establish the State authorities as the only sovereign powers in this Union. And he alluded to the apprehension always prevalent in the South that the people of the North have a perpetual propensity to promote the abolition of slavery in the South. This ghost, I believe, will haunt them till they bring it up in reality. I said I no longer had the same confidence in the long duration of the Union that I once had; but did not say why."

* 'Memoirs of John Quincy Adams. By his son, Charles Francis Adams.' Vols. IX.-X. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1875-1876.

It is interesting to see what he thinks of Mr. Webster's chances for the Presidency in 1834:

"He said that, to his certain knowledge, Mr. Webster had indulged not only the hope but the expectation of being a successful candidate for the Presidency at the ensuing election.

"I said I had heard so, but could not believe it, holding his sagacity and penetration in higher esteem than to be accessible to so much delusion."

The 7th of March, 1835, contains a striking passage:

"The position which I now occupy before the public resembles much that which I held in 1807 and 1808. The forced unanimous vote in the House on Monday evening last in favor of my resolution is the exact counterpart of the forced town-meeting called by the Federalists in Boston upon the affair of the *Chesapeake*, after they had refused calling one at my request, and of the forced resolutions then adopted; for which they took ample vengeance of me afterwards. My conduct then expelled me from the Senate of the United States, as it has excluded me from it now It afterwards sent me for eight years on important missions in Europe, made me eight years Secretary of State, and four years President. I have not life before me for such another career now, and, with the same ordeal to pass through, I have nothing before me but the prospect of a desperate struggle and political ruin. I shall not live to see, as before, the day of reparation. The French Chamber of Deputies will reject the bill for paying the five millions of dollars stipulated by the treaty; some rash and foolish act of President Jackson will follow; and if the two countries be saved from war it seems as if it could only be by a special interposition of Providence. The Presidential succession has mingled itself with all the important transactions of the recent session of Congress, broken up the Administration party, and laid the foundation for an entirely new organization of parties at the next session. Standing alone as I do, disconnected from all parties, and having at the recent session taken upon the French question a stand so conspicuous, so desperately contested, so triumphant in its result, and so sure to combine against me *all* the candidates for the Presidency, what can save me from destruction at the next session, if the French quarrel should continue, but an unseen protecting power? Be thou faithful unto death."

He looks anxiously to the next session and the part he will be compelled to take in its debates. "In the leisure moments of the day, and to compose as much as possible the agitation of my feelings, I wrote, in the form of a draft of a speech, an argument against the Patronage Retrenchment Bill concocted in the Senate at their late session between Calhoun, Clay, and Webster. This is another of the subjects upon which I expect, if I have life and health at the next session of Congress, to be called to act a most laborious, painful, and perilous part. I am preparing an argument against the bill for consideration." "I have examined this subject with much attention," he writes, on the 25th of March, "but not yet so thoroughly as I ought, before committing myself to the desperate chance of encountering all these giants." But he is not satisfied with his draft, although it would fill eleven columns of the *National Intelligencer*, and take between three and four hours in the delivery. "Upon reading it over, I find it is without method and in a great measure without point—a desultory discussion upon the debate in the first Congress on the President's power of removal from executive offices, with a severe and cutting review of Daniel Webster's speech in the Senate in favor of the bill. That speech is indeed so shallow, so unprincipled, and so subversive of all constitutional doctrine, that I could not possibly treat it with respect; but this is not wise." His researches lead him to Hobbes and Swift for the true meaning of the word "executive"; but he does not find it in either of them.

"This afternoon," he says, "the *Telegraph* contained J. C. Calhoun's last speech on his Patronage Bill, as shallow as Webster's, and much more dogmatical. There are plausible arguments in both, but not one that is sound. After reading that of Calhoun, and analyzing the mainstay of his argument, I found it ended in empty sophistry. His conclusion impudently overstretched his premises. I began this evening a reply to his speech, which employed me till near eleven o'clock."

"I finished this morning the remarks on J. C. Calhoun's speech on his Patronage Bill as additional to mine, and now, on reviewing my own, I find it like a tape-worm, without beginning or end, all desultory. I want patience to write it over again and methodize it.

"There is a great defect running through all the argument in reply to the speeches of Calhoun and Webster—it is contemptuous and disdainful, which I could not help. Calhoun's tone is so self-sufficient and overbearing, and Webster's reasoning so utterly ignorant or unprincipled, that they provoked my temper, and I answer them with cutting sarcasm. The use of this weapon is seldom politic. In the present case it would certainly not be so. I should write my speech over again, to say in mild, courteous, and inoffensive language what I have said in consuming caustic. I can make no use of my speech as now written, and yet it contains matter to grind up into dust Calhoun's and Webster's speeches, and also Calhoun's Patronage report."

There is nothing in the Memoirs which places Mr. Adams's thorough intellectual training in a more interesting light than the history of his preparation for this speech.

Among the carefully-drawn portraits of these volumes, the most interesting is that of Judge Marshall:

"John Marshall, Chief-Justice of the United States, died at Philadelphia last Monday, the fourth instant. He was one of the most eminent men that this country has ever produced. He has held this appointment thirty-five years. It was the last act of my father's Administration, and one of the most important services rendered by him to his country. All constitutional governments are flexible things; and as the Supreme Judicial Court is the tribunal of last resort for the construction of the Constitution and the laws, the office of Chief-Justice of that Court is a station of the highest trust, of the deepest responsibility, and of influence far more extensive than that of the President of the United States. John Marshall was a Federalist of the Washington school. The associate judges from the time of his appointment have generally been taken from the Democratic or Jeffersonian party. Not one of them, excepting Story, has been a man of great ability. Several of them have been men of strong prejudices, warm passions, and contracted minds—one of them occasionally insane. Marshall, by the ascendancy of his genius, by the amenity of his deportment, and by the imperturbable command of his temper, has given a permanent and systematic character to the decisions of the Court, and settled many great constitutional questions favorably to the continuance of the Union. Marshall has cemented the Union which the crafty and Quixotic democracy of Jefferson had a perpetual tendency to dissolve. Jefferson hated and dreaded him. Marshall kept Jefferson much under the curb—sometimes, as perhaps in the case of Aaron Burr's conspiracy, too much so; but Marshall's mind was far better regulated than that of Jefferson. It is much to be feared that a successor will be appointed of a very different character."

Amongst the calls upon Mr. Adams's time were the invitations to deliver addresses before literary and scientific societies. Some of these he accepted, but soon found it necessary to give a general refusal. To the invitation of the American Institute of New York, he writes:

"Should I undertake to deliver the address, it would be expected of me, and I should myself hardly be justified in undertaking it but with intention of presenting the subject under new and different views; and my own opinion was that the great difficulty under which the manufacturing interest of the country labors is a political combination of the South and the West against it. The slaveholders of the South have bought the co-operation of the Western country by the bribe of the Western lands; abandoning to the new Western States their own proportion of this public property, and aiding them in the design of grasping all the lands into their own hands. Thomas H. Benton was the author of this system, which he brought forward as a substitute for the American system of Mr. Clay, and to supplant him as the leading statesman of the West. Mr. Clay, by his tariff compromise with Mr. Calhoun, abandoned his own American system. At the same time he brought forward a plan for distributing among all the States of the Union the proceeds of the sales of the public lands. His bill for that purpose passed both Houses of Congress, but was vetoed by President Jackson, who, in his annual message of December, 1832, formally recommended that all the public lands should be gratuitously given away to individual adventurers and to the States in which the lands are situated.

"Now if, at this time, on the eve of a Presidential election, I should, in a public address to the American Institute, disclose this state of things, and comment upon it, as I should feel it my duty to do, it would probably produce great excitement and irritation—would be charged with having a political bearing, and subject me to the imputation of tampering with the election."

TWO COUNTY HISTORIES.*

TWO hundred years ago this very year, the Wabbaquasset country, through which ran the trail, known as the Connecticut Path, leading to Hartford and New Haven, was left vacant by the mild-mannered aborigines. They were involved in the tumult of King Philip's war, and at its close in 1676 they were either destroyed or hopelessly dispersed. With them, nevertheless, begins the true history of Windham County, for in 1670 they were visited by Indian missionaries, trained at Natick, Mass., and in 1674 by the Apostle Eliot himself; with fruits which were immediately swept away by the Narragansett outbreak. But the secondary consequences of this religious endeavor were that Eliot's town of Roxbury became interested in the colonization of the deserted region (then regarded as part of Massachusetts), and in 1684 sent out pioneers and surveyors, including such familiar Roxbury names as Dudley, Stoughton, Pyncheon, and Gore. The settlement thus formed at what is now Woodstock (then called by the planters New Roxbury) continued to have the pecuniary and moral support of the mother town until, in 1716, the infant colony, having outgrown its dependence, the relation became irksome and was broken off, not without some feeling, but on the whole with a good grace, on Roxbury's part. The separation of Woodstock from Massachusetts was accomplished much later (1747–1755), the town taking the initiative and being backed by the General Assembly of Connecticut, on grounds which have been thought little creditable to that body, and which were certainly technical.

* 'History of Windham County, Conn. By Ellen D. Larned.' Vol. I., 1600–1760. New York: J. Sabin & Sons. 1874. 8vo. pp. xi.–582.
'History and Directory of Yates County [N. Y.] By Stafford C. Cleveland, Editor of the *Yates County Chronicle*.' Vol. I. Penn Yan, N. Y. 1873. Pp. xxiii.–766.

It is curiously symptomatic of the Massachusetts character that, when Woodstock's revolt began to look serious, the first assertion of authority was ostensibly on behalf of public education. "Shortcomings in supporting schools had hitherto received indulgence, but now Woodstock was presented before the grand jurors of Worcester County 'for having more than a hundred families and not supporting a grammar school,' and summoned by warrant to account for her remissness"; but the Massachusetts authority was openly "contemned." To tell the truth, Woodstock had been less worthy of reproach in this matter than had Windham, a purely Connecticut settlement with a more auspicious and comfortable beginning. Instruction was provided for as early as 1690; "in 1704, the first school-house was built on the common, near the meeting-house," and in 1710 two new ones were ordered, the selectmen having been directed "to obtain a suitable person or persons to keep a school or schools to teach children to read, write, and cypher, till the first of March; after that by a woman or women" (presumably not "suitable persons"). Later on, however, the building of a meeting-house so taxed the resources of the town that they were kept "from having schools as the law provided," and were reduced "to one schoolmaster, alternating monthly for four months between the north and northeast school-houses."

Religion was, in fact, the main interest of these Puritan colonists. The "public works" enjoined upon them by Roxbury ran thus—"viz., meeting-house, minister's house, mill, bridges, etc."; and their first act on arriving out was to choose seven men "to stake highways needful for the present settlement, and a lot for the minister, and consider of land convenient for the planters to settle on, and for a convenient place for a meeting-house to stand on." One of these seven was Henry Bowen, sen., a man of presumed piety, but who does not figure as a premium pew-holder at the first allotment of seats in 1721. What part, if any, he took in the troubles with the minister, Mr. Dwight, does not appear; it was after his death that that blunt-spoken and eccentric divine, having submitted to an advisory council called to hear the differences between him and his congregation, and to "essay in accommodation between them," hotly refused "to come into proposals for calling a [mutual] council." Sooner or later in Woodstock and in her sister towns there was a squabble over the location of the meeting-house, in which the geographical centre, the centre of population, and the centre of convenient accessibility had each their partisans. But these, though conducted with heat and often ending in bitterness and disaffection, were insignificant compared with the dissensions to which Part III. of this History is devoted, and which formed what is known as the "Separate Movement" (1740–60). Miss Larned's account of it is the most lucid, orderly, and minute that has ever been attempted. In the space at our command we can only say that it had its beginning in a religious revival whose excesses led to the enactment of a law denouncing itinerant preachers, and even forbidding ordained ministers to preach or exhort in parishes not under their immediate charge without previous permission of the local authorities. The division of sentiment caused by this intolerant statute first took the shape of open antagonism in Canterbury, the bone of contention being the right of the church (*i.e.*, the parish), which was Revivalist, to settle the minister, as against the society, which was anti-Revivalist. The broad question was not discussed solely upon its merits, but directly involved the supremacy of two rival Platforms, the Cambridge and the Saybrook. The church at Canterbury had from the beginning conformed its practices to the former rather than the latter, and now, at the opening of the controversy, it reaffirmed its adherence; but this declaration was decided by Council to have come too late (since "every church in the commonwealth was assumed to be subject to Saybrook Platform except by formal dissent at the time of its organization"), and to have had no other effect than to erect another church in voluntary "separation" from those who adhered to Saybrook Regulation.

"The long church controversy had resulted in the complete triumph of the anti-Revivalists. The minority was recognized as the stated church within Canterbury society, to whom pertained the minister and the meeting-house and all the legal provisions for the support of religious institutions. This result was approved by the highest civil and ecclesiastic authorities of Connecticut, and the decision of the Council accepted as a just and legal exposition of the power of its religious Constitution. That a majority had been set aside was of no consequence. It was a question of status, not of members."

The Separatists were promptly levied upon for the ordination expenses and salary of the society's minister and the repairs of the meeting-house of which they had been disseized. "Refusing to pay these rates, their cattle, goods, and household furniture were forcibly taken, and in default of these their bodies were cast into prison." "As far as possible, the rights of citizenship were taken from them. No Separates were allowed to hold official positions." If sent up to the Legislature by fair majorities, they were expelled. "Baptisms and marriages performed by their ordained ministers were pronounced illegal." They were taxed for the support of the societies from which they separated, while Baptists, Episcopalians, and even Quakers were exempted by special acts of toleration. In 1755 this persecution began to be relaxed, but the Separatist churches had meantime exhausted their vitality.

When the Windham Association of ministers was engaged in exposing the Revivalist exhorters, it denounced their going about "pretending publicly to preach the Gospel, . . . having no better warrant than a persuasion of an inward call and motion of the Holy Ghost, acting upon that principle that every Christian who has (*i.e.*, who is persuaded that he has) an inward call, is sufficiently authorized for such an undertaking." It averred that in practice this unwarrantable principle would end in Quakerism, open infidelity, and the destruction of all Christian religion. In fact, the Separatists were little behind the Quakers in their views touching a hireling ministry and a "learned Gospel"; and we take them to have been the lineal progenitors of a sect which, about 1784, sprang up across the Rhode Island border, and which "rejected church organization, and insisted upon constant and direct guidance from Heaven." As this sect first roused to spiritual consciousness the mind of Jemima Wilkinson, the virtual founder of Yates County, N. Y., we find in it perhaps a connecting link between the two histories which we have undertaken to review together. She became a Friend (as her mother had been before her) and something more—the head of a new sect, orthodox in doctrine, except that they rejected total depravity and did not make a holy day of Sunday, and known only as the followers of the "Public Universal Friend." By this appellation the prophetess chose to be designated in place of the homely name contrived for her by her parents; it was commonly shortened to "Friend," or "The Friend," and etiquette forbade the use of pronouns in referring to her. Her dress resembled a clergyman's robes, but a broad-brimmed hat gave her a decidedly Quaker as well as masculine aspect, and it was "thee" and "thou" between her and her disciples.

That portion of the then wilderness of Western New York in which the Friend's Society selected the site of its New Jerusalem, had, in the adjustment of State boundary lines which followed the peace of '83, been allowed to Massachusetts so far as to give her the pre-emptive right to purchase it of the Indians, while New York retained civil jurisdiction over it. The settlement was begun in 1788, nine years after the expulsion of the Seneca Indians by Gen. Sullivan, but while savage incursions were still to be dreaded, and in perfect isolation. Two years later the Friend came out to it, and no time was lost in building a log meeting-house, which also served as a public school. "This cheap and simple edifice, devoted to religious worship and education, was the first one for either purpose erected west of Fort Stanwix." For the next eight or nine years the colony was united and prosperous, and drew to itself emigrants from all sides. At the end of that time a difference arose between the Friend and two of her chief managers, one of whom, a magistrate, on the complaint of the other, issued a warrant against her for blasphemy. Arrest was evaded on one occasion by the Friend's excellent horsemanship, and again by the stubborn defence of her adherents, who were so far from holding the Quaker doctrine of passive resistance that even the women could eject a constable "with so little care that some of his garments were badly torn, and a renewal of the onslaught was impossible without a repair of his breeches." When at last the Friend consented to appear for trial, she was able to avoid the court of her schismatic persecutor, and the grand jury unanimously threw out the indictment. Litigation in regard to trust-funds, and bodily infirmity, made the closing years of her life hard to bear. After her death in 1819, the Society, while not increasing in numbers, remained harmonious till 1830. Some new accessions then brought about fresh divergences, and twenty years later the Society may be said to have come to an end.

The interest of Mr. Cleveland's History centres in this religious experiment of the New Jerusalem. The details which he gives of the settlement of each town are only varied by individual biographies. There were the usual incidents of pioneer life in the midst of savages and wild beasts. If Windham County boasts of Putnam's solitary encounter with the she-wolf, Yates County can tell of a grand wolf *battue* nearly seventy years after the Pomfret exploit. Rattlesnakes, more numerous and more dangerous, were only extirpated by the hogs. In town nomenclature, Windham County offers us "Scotland" (the subject of the once-famous round, "Scotland's Burning," composed by a local musician); while Yates County points to "Italy," set off from "Naples"; "Milo"—an afterthought for "Milan"; "Jerusalem," from the Friends' settlement; "Penn Yan," composed of Pennsylvanians and Yankees, etc., etc. In agricultural products the younger and smaller

county surpasses the older, and revels in wheat, sugar, grapes, and wool. It has even an elm-tree 125 feet in height, with nearly as great a spread, and with a girth of 29 feet at two feet from the ground; a tree far bigger than "the historical big tree (oak) at Geneseo, which perished a few years ago," and one which, it is alleged, "has no equal in size in the State of New York." Of great men the county has not been prolific, Red Jacket being the most famous.

Transalpinische Studien. Von Wilhelm Lang. 2 vols. (Leipzig. 1875.)—The essays contained in these two volumes have already seen the light in various German periodicals, but are well worth a separate publication. The studies in the first volume are, with the exception of the first, of purely literary interest, and are devoted to Dante, Savonarola, and Michel Angelo's poems. The second volume is devoted to Italian politics in a broad sense; for although it contains an article on Manzoni, and one on Niccolini, these authors are judged rather in their relation to Italy and the national movement than as mere littérateurs. The article, however, which will be read with the greatest interest is the first, "Die Petrussage," which is devoted to an examination of the legend of the Apostle Peter's residence in Rome and his martyrdom there. In No. 391 of the *Nation* we gave some account of Lipsius's researches into the origin of this legend. According to Lang, who discusses the question in a more popular manner, the germ of the story is to be found in the early rivalry of the Petrists and Paulists. Paul was naturally regarded by the former as an interloper, and even, from his opposition to the Judaizing efforts of the Petrists, as a heretic. He was early represented under the disguise of the magician Simon as followed by Peter from city to city, until in Rome his arts are fully exposed and he meets with an ignominious death. Paul's unquestioned residence and death at Rome rendered it necessary that Peter should be represented as having been there also. As the feud between the two parties was softened by time, Paul was gradually rehabilitated, and the two rivals put on an equal footing. This later impartiality was carried so far that tradition says that in the year 319 Pope Sylvester divided the remains of the two apostles exactly by weight, and half of each was buried in the two basilicas still bearing the names of St. Peter and St. Paul. In order that there might be no dispute over the heads, they were both buried in a neutral spot in the Lateran.

The article on Savonarola is based on Villari's work, which is well known to English readers by Horner's translation. Of greater interest is the article on Michel Angelo's poems. What is not so generally known as it should be is that all editions of the poet's works prior to that of Guasti, published by Le Monnier in 1863, are utterly unreliable, and consequently all translations based on the old text must be used with caution. The poet's grandnephew, and first editor, was unfortunately himself something of a poet, and has so made over and tampered with his uncle's poems that they often express the very opposite of what the author intended. Guasti's edition reveals the great artist in a new light, and must, with his letters, form our best means of judging of the poet's inner man. The second volume opens with a long study on Manzoni in his relations to the Romantic school in Italy and the revival of the national sentiment. A fuller account of the latter is found in the article on "La Farina und der italienische Nationalverein." La Farina differed from most Italians of his class in that he was a patriot before he was a conspirator. Other studies of more or less political import are those on Niccolini, well known in this country by Howells's *North American Review* article, Cavour and the free church in the free state, and Germany and Italian unity.

These essays are the outgrowth of a systematic effort which is being made in Germany to bring about a better understanding between that country and Italy; for although the Germans have always been profound students of Italian literature, they have neglected the political and social questions of the country. It seems to us that we too as a people should have a greater interest in Italy than we usually evince. Two of her "burning" questions concern us vitally: the management of the finances and the relation of the church to the state. For a better knowledge of her, socially and politically, we commend the 'Transalpinische Studien' to our readers.

Háfiz of Shirâz: Selections from his Poems, translated from the Persian by Herman Bicknell. (London: Trübner & Co. 1875. 4to, pp. xx.–384.)—This very elegant volume is in part a monument of fraternal piety; its author died when the printing was hardly begun, and his work was finished by a younger brother, with help from other scholars. A brief biographical sketch is prefixed. From it we learn that Mr. Bicknell was a surgeon in the Indian army; he entered the service just before the breaking-out of the mutiny, but left it six years later, and spent the remainder of his life in study and travel. He is the only European known to have visited Mecca as a Mohammedan pilgrim without disguise of person or denial of nationality; the story of his pilgrimage forms an interesting appendix to this volume. It was in India that he became an enthusiastic admirer of the great Persian poet, and resolved to devote a part of his life to introducing the songs he so much enjoyed to the better knowledge of Europe. To this end he even lived for a time at Shiraz, that he might become "personally acquainted with the localities mentioned by the poet," and otherwise enable himself to cast new and clearer light on doubtful points. Seldom has a more loving care been expended upon such a task. Seldom, also, is such a work brought out more brilliantly. The volume is one of the richest products of Austin's Hertford press, a companion to the sumptuous edition of Monier Williams's translation of the Sakuntala: heavy green and gold borders; illuminated pages and headings; illustrative chromo-lithographs and wood-cuts, not fancy-pieces, but real subjects, casting direct light on the work—the two most interesting of them being views of Hafiz's tomb and of the striking landscape amid which he lies buried.

Hafiz, the contemporary of Dante, is the acknowledged prince of Persian poets, but, not less confessedly, he is the one hardest to be appreciated and enjoyed by Western minds. He is a pure lyrist; his works are odes of the most exquisite finish, and abounding in suggestiveness to one who reads them with a full comprehension, but just of the kind which must inevitably lose their beauty in the transfer to another medium of expression. To strangers there is little that is attractive in their themes; they sing the praises of love and of wine, of the rose and of the nightingale; they laud the fair one, and apostrophize the cup-bearer, in phrases of unfamiliar strain and replete with obscure allusion. As is well known, the Persian critics themselves dispute whether the odes are really anacreontic or not rather mystically pious. There are schools which interpret their outbursts of revelry as gushes of rapt devotion disguising itself under gross figures. This enigmatic quality seems to be, to Western as well as Eastern scholars, one of their principal attractions.

Notwithstanding its luxurious form, which challenges for it a place on drawing-room tables, and its metrical elaboration, which seems intended for the general poetry-loving public, Mr. Bicknell's work is really more for the use of the scholar who wishes to work his way into an understanding of those lyrics in their original Persian, or for the professed student of literatures. He would need, probably, to be an extraordinary compound of great linguist and great poet who should succeed in doing more.

By way of justification of our opinion, we quote a single ode (xliv., p. 77):

"Zealot, avaunt! invite me not to wend to heaven my way:
A man of heaven not made was I by God upon His Day.

"Not one grain of the sheaves of life is stored by those who've trod
This pathway of mortality, and sown no seed for God.

"For thee the beads, the place of prayer, strict rule, and virtue's road;
For me the wine-house, and the bell, the church, the monk's abode.

"Pure Sáfi, warn me not 'gainst wine; eternally decreed
The Sapient One with limpid wine my mortal clay to knead.

"No pure-souled Sáfi, heaven-inclined, exists who not like me
Has pawned his soul 'neath vintners' roofs, to drain his wine with glee.

"The calm of Paradise's bliss, the taste of Houri's lip,
Are missed by those who from their grasp the Loved one's skirt let slip.

"O Hafiz! if the grace of God gives help that shall suffice,
Be free from every fear of hell, nor care for Paradise."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*
Alcott (Louisa M.), Silver Pitchers	(Roberts Brothers) $1 25
Allen (J. H.) and Greenough (J. B.), Latin Composition	(Ginn Brothers) 1 50
Bowen (Rev. B. F.), America Discovered by the Welsh	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Bascom (J.), Philosophy of Religion	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 2 00
Coolidge (Susan), For Summer Afternoons	(Roberts Brothers) 1 25
Collins (Rev. W. L.), Livy	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Day (H. N.), Science of Ethics	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 1 50
Ellis (Rev. G. E.), Evacuation of Boston	(A. Williams & Co.)
Encyclopædia Britannica. Ninth Edition. Vols. III and IV.	(Little, Brown & Co.)
Fink (W. W.), Rules and other Poems, swd.	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Henry (Rev. C. S.), About Men and Things, swd.	(Thomas Whittaker) 75
Hooker (J. D.), Botany	(D. Appleton & Co.)
Kapp (F.), Auf einer Amerika, swd. 2 vols	(C. W. Christern)
Lear (E.), Nonsense Songs	(Roberts Bros.) 1 50
Linton (Mrs. E. L.), Atonement of Leam Dundas	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Macdonald (Rev. G.), Thomas Wingfold, Curate	(Geo. Routledge & Sons)
Mannheimer (S.), Hebrew Reader and Grammar	(St. Louis, Mo.)
Medical and Surgical History of the War of the Rebellion. Part II	(Washington)
Mell (Prof. P. H.), Doctrine of Prayer	(Sheldon & Co.)
Melville (H.), Clarel: a Poem. 2 vols	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 3 00
Nash (W. G.), Century of Gossip	(W. B. Keen, Cooke & Co.)
Philadelphia and its Environs, swd	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Ridpath (J. C.), Popular History of the American People	(J. M. Ford & Co.) 6 00
Renan (E.), Dialogues et Fragments Philosophiques, swd.	(F. W. Christern)
Scudder (H. E.), Men and Manners in America	(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.)
Smith (J. H.), Rudiments of English Grammar	(Rivingtons)
Sprague (C.), Poetical and Prose Writings	(A. Williams & Co.) 1 50
Spurgeon (Rev. C. H.), Commenting and Commentaries	(Sheldon & Co.)
Stewart (Agnes), Margaret Roper	(Kelly, Piet & Co.)
Verne (J.), All Around the Moon	(Catholic Pub. Soc.) 2 00
Verses from the Harvard *Advocate*	(Hurd & Houghton)
Von Holst (Dr. H.), Constitutional History of the United States	(Callaghan & Co.)
White (A. D.), Paper-money Inflation in France, swd.	(D. Appleton & Co.)
Whitmore (W. H.), Laws of Adoption	(Joel Munsell)
Williams's Pacific Tourist and Guide, swd	(Henry T. Williams)

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 22, 1876.

The Week.

THE Republican Convention met at Cincinnati on Wednesday week, and adjourned on the following Friday after nominating Rutherford B. Hayes of Ohio for President, and William A. Wheeler of New York for Vice-President. The Presidential candidates formally proposed included all those who had been much talked of beforehand except Mr. E. B. Washburne and Mr. Wheeler, neither of whom received more than half-a-dozen scattering votes. The proceedings were characterized by much harmony and good-feeling, the extremely small number of contesting delegations contributing to this result. The Committee on Credentials excluded the so-called Spencer delegation from Alabama and the Shepherd delegation from the District of Columbia, and their report was finally adopted by the Convention. Six ballots were taken for President before any change of votes sufficient to influence the result took place; but on the seventh ballot, Morton, Conkling, Hartranft, and Bristow being all withdrawn, the Convention divided between Blaine and Hayes, giving 351 votes to the former and 384 votes to the latter.

The Republican platform adopted by the Convention on Thursday declares that the United States is "a nation, not a league"; that until the truths of the Declaration of Independence are "cheerfully obeyed" "the work of the Republican party is unfinished"; demands that Congress and the Executive shall pacify the South, protect the negro, enforce the recent amendments, and "put into immediate and vigorous exercise all their constitutional powers for removing any just causes of discontent on the part of any class"; recalls the first act of Congress signed by General Grant, pledging the faith of the Government to make provision for the redemption of United States notes in coin at the earliest possible date, and demands that the promise be fulfilled "by a continuous and steady progress to specie payments"; insists that Congress should have nothing to do with appointments, which constitutionally belong elsewhere; rejoices in the "quickened conscience of the people concerning political affairs," and promises speedy punishment for all who betray official trusts; recommends an amendment to the Constitution "forbidding the application of any public fund as property for the benefit of any schools or institutions under sectarian control"; declares that the revenue should be "so adjusted as to promote the interests of American labor, and advance the prosperity of the whole country"; opposes further land-grants, and demands that the Government lands be devoted to "free homes for the people"; demands protection for immigrants and for adopted citizens; declares it to be the immediate duty of Congress to "fully investigate the effect of the immigration and importation of Mongolians upon the moral and material interests of the country"; recognizes the advance of woman towards equal rights, and declares her claim to further privileges entitled to "respectful consideration"; demands the extirpation of polygamy, and the fulfilment of the "pledges which the nation has given to our soldiers and sailors"; deprecates "all sectional feeling," and "notes with deep solicitude" the sectionalism of the Democrats; denounces the Democratic party for its rebel sympathies, for its repudiation proposals, for its "partisan mismanagement" as well as its "obstruction of investigation," and for having proved itself "utterly incompetent to administer the Government"; and finally thanks the Administration for its "honorable work," and General Grant for his "patriotism" and "immense services."

Two attempts were made to improve this platform, by striking out the Mongolian resolution and by inserting a plank pledging the party to resumption in 1879. Both were voted down without difficulty, and almost without debate. The Convention showed, in fact, no interest whatever in the platform, and a proposition made by one of the delegates to nominate first and make the platform afterwards was received with considerable approval, and only voted down because the leaders felt that, after all that had been said about reform and principle, it would be too barefaced a revelation of their real state of mind.

Many comic things occur at a nominating convention, but probably nothing so comic occurred at Cincinnati as the uproarious applause which greeted Senator Logan's announcement that the late exposures of corruption at Washington were the commencement of a "revolution" by the ex-rebels, consisting in "the assassination of the private character of every leading Republican in the land." We noticed that Mr. Blaine was disposed to take the same view of the matter in his defence in the House of Representatives, and seemed to maintain that the presence of "two rebel generals" on the Sub-Committee had some mysterious connection with the existence of his own letters to Mr. Fisher and with his operations in Little Rock and Fort Smith and Northern Pacific stock and bonds. Now, all this may be most excellent fooling, but it is still fooling. The people of the United States may be occasionally simple-minded, but they are not idiots, and it would take an enormous amount of eloquence to persuade them that it was the "rebels" who got Mr. Blaine into his railroad operations, or Mr. Belknap into his post-trader business, or Mr. Robeson into his Cattell relations, or Babcock into his whiskey dealings or safe-burglaries, or got up the Sanborn business, or put McDonald in office, or hired Jayne. The "rebels" must laugh consumedly when they hear that they are at the bottom of the various "investments" of our leading statesmen.

The Democratic Convention, which meets next week, will have its work rendered more difficult for it by the nominations at Cincinnati. It was the hope of the Democrats that Blaine would be nominated by the Republicans, in which case they would have had, in their own opinion, an easy victory. It is doubtful, however, whether they were right in this; for the nomination of Blaine would have led immediately to a Republican bolt, with results which it would have been difficult to predict. The same thing may be said of the results of the nomination of Morton or Conkling. But now the breach in the Republican ranks is entirely healed, and a candidate has been chosen who will probably enable the Republicans to carry the State of Ohio in October, and thus give the party a lift which will materially help it in the national struggle. Whether this can possibly be avoided by the Democrats is a very doubtful question, and, indeed, their only chance of carrying Ohio would be on a strong hard-money platform—which the Ohio Democrats would bitterly resent—and with a candidate who would draw off some Republican votes, if such a candidate could be found. If this hope is abandoned, the most important thing is the electoral vote of New York, and for that a strong hard-money candidate is necessary. The contest here, it is obvious, is not going to turn upon the platform, except so far as the platform is explained by the character of the candidates; and a strong effort will be made by the reform Republicans who have just succeeded in defeating the "machine," to get from Mr. Hayes such a letter of acceptance as will put some meaning into the platform on the two vital subjects of civil service and currency reform. This is now the only way in which the party can hope to remedy the blunder made in voting down the Resumption pledge and inserting the empty jargon about the civil service.

As the matter now stands, the Democrats will have no difficulty whatever in constructing a currency platform. They might simply repeat the performance at Cincinnati on this subject. All this points clearly to Tilden as their candidate, and the ablest and most disinterested Democrats plainly see this. But he will have against him the two-thirds rule, and the wonderful capacity his party has of late years developed of destroying its own chances by unmitigated folly.

General Belknap's counsel have made another attempt to obtain delay and a postponement until November, but without success. A postponement till after the Presidential election would have had so much the look of being in the defendant's interest that the Senate declined to grant it. The counsel refused to plead to the articles of impeachment, on the ground that General Belknap was substantially acquitted by the vote on the question of jurisdiction, as it fell short of two-thirds, and have presented a document setting forth this plea. This the Senate has ordered to be filed, and has voted to proceed with the trial on July 6, provided Congress be then in session, as on a plea of not guilty. The House has passed a joint resolution authorizing the Speaker of the House and the President of the Senate to appoint a commission to devise a new form of government for the District of Columbia, and what may be called a cognate bill for the repaving of Pennsylvania Avenue. The infamous bill to equalize bounties was also passed on Tuesday by this cheese-paring body. It will doubtless again receive its quietus in the Senate.

General Grant has sent to Congress a message urging immediate action on the appropriation bills. He calls the attention of both Houses to the near approach of a new fiscal year, and the failure of Congress to provide means to carry on the Government; quotes the Constitution and statutes to show that any outlay of public money after the expiration of the year for which the appropriations have been made is unlawful, except in the case of permanent appropriations; points out that the number of permanent appropriations is very limited, and covers but few of the necessary expenditures of the Government; declares that if the appropriation bills are not passed at once, the Government will be greatly embarrassed; and suggests by way of remedy the passage of a joint resolution extending the provisions of all appropriations for the present fiscal year to the next, in all cases when the new bills fail of passing before the 1st of July. This joint resolution would include the Legislative, Executive, and Judicial, the Consular and Diplomatic, the Post-Office, and the Army and Navy Bills. The Democratic papers, which have been loudly applauding Mr. Randall's proposition to cut down the appropriations by $40,000,000, are much displeased at this, and disposed to regard it as a piece of tyranny and improper interference with the prerogative of Congress. As the President is directed by the Constitution to "recommend from time to time" to Congress "such measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient," these criticisms are very frivolous. The Democrats had an excellent opportunity when the session began of securing genuine economy in all branches of the service, but they have thrown it away by a blind and indiscriminate attack upon expenditures, like those for the salaries of West Point officers, and the Consulates, and the Signal Service, which are most necessary and beneficial. We trust that the Democrats in the Senate will not recede from the position they have taken on this subject, or allow themselves to be persuaded into believing that the country, when it denounces the extravagance of the Administration, means the extravagance of paying barely sufficient salaries to public servants, or of lighting the coasts to protect the commerce of the country, or of detailing a few soldiers to make scientific observations which annually prevent the destruction of millions of property.

The English Courts have released Winslow as well as Brent, the Louisville forger, having no alternative in the present state of the extradition question between the two countries. The President has sent a message to Congress on the subject, giving a history of the two cases, announcing the release of the prisoners, and declaring that the position of the British Government, "if adhered to, cannot but be regarded as an abrogation and annulment of the article of the Treaty on extradition." Under those circumstances, he adds, it will not, in his judgment, "comport with the dignity or self-respect of this Government to make demands upon that Government for the surrender of fugitive criminals, nor to entertain any requisition of that character from that Government under the Treaty." He expresses deep regret at the possibility of such a termination of a treaty which has worked so well and so efficiently, and, notwithstanding the exciting and sometimes violent political controversies which have arisen in both countries, has given rise to no complaints. "Its violation or annulment would be a retrograde step in international intercourse." He says that he has tried to have a new and improved treaty made, enlarging the list of extraditable crimes, and introducing other amendments, but had felt it his duty "to decline to entertain a proposition made by Great Britain, pending its refusal to execute the existing Treaty, to amend it by practically conceding by treaty the identical conditions which that Government demands" (under the Act of 1870). The attitude of England he describes as a "menace of an intended violation," but throws out an intimation that this is not the only ground for our refusal to amend the Treaty, the inadvisability of treating of "only the one amendment proposed by Great Britain" being another. He therefore asks Congress to decide whether the Treaty shall or shall not be abrogated, and says, if the action of England remains unchanged, he shall not, without an expression of the wish of Congress, take any further action in extradition cases under the Treaty.

There is one thing which must have impressed the thoughtful and judicious during the late controversy over Mr. Blaine as very suggestive in more ways than one, and as by no means encouraging. In all the rejoicings over his reply to Mulligan, the mere fact of his not having confessed the truth of the charges and run away, and his having waylaid the witness, seized the letters, read them aloud in the House without flinching, and then attacked the Committee for suppressing a worthless despatch, are treated as amounting to a "vindication." In not one of the speeches or letters of his friends are the charges examined or explained, or, in fact, treated as of any consequence whatever. The answer to them is that Mr. Blaine is not afraid, that he was too much for the Committee, and that he is magnetic; and it will be observed that in all the comments on the matter at Cincinnati among the politicians, ending with General Hawley's speech at the ratification meeting, he is still treated as a spotless statesman, whom young men will do well to imitate. The Mulligan letters, if referred to at all, were referred to solely as something that would probably be damaging in a canvass, and not as something that at all lowered Mr. Blaine's standing in the Republican party. There can be little doubt that this throws a good deal of light on Belknap's case. Does it not make it clear that the reason Belknap is in disgrace and on his trial is that he is the only Republican statesman who has confessed to anything or shown any signs of shame or fear? Had he denied everything, blackguarded Marsh, bade the Committee come on, and denounced them as "rebels," would he not still be in the War Department and in good party standing? These questions would furnish much food for reflection.

The truth about the suppressed Caldwell despatch has at last come out, and it leaves no room for doubt as to where Mr. Blaine got his surprisingly accurate information of its existence. The telegram which Caldwell sent from London was not originally written by him at all, but by some one in Philadelphia, either Scott or some agent of his, with directions to repeat it to the chairman of the House Judiciary Committee. This was done by Caldwell. The question will of course be asked, "What does this prove?" It proves nothing directly as to the truth of Blaine's story, but adds

one more to the suspicious and mysterious circumstances which, taken together, look not like an honest attempt to procure evidence that will exonerate him, but like a tricky attempt to cover up some transaction that will not bear the light. Caldwell's despatch is, by the way, a perversion of the truth. He says: "I never gave Blaine any Little Rock bonds, directly or indirectly." This we know, from Mulligan's testimony, was not true. But the most suspicious circumstance of all is that Scott, who swears that Blaine had no connection with the $64,000 transaction, and that the money was paid to himself as extra salary, should immediately have begun to instruct Caldwell by Cable what to say about it. If Scott's story were true, he and Caldwell had no common interest in it whatever, and he could not have known whether Caldwell had given Blaine Little Rock bonds or not. There is one way in which a good deal of the testimony can be reconciled with Scott's story. If Blaine, who undoubtedly had a quantity of these Little Rock and Fort Smith bonds, had undertaken to "place" them on a commission, and the vendees had declined to take them or begged to be relieved of them, the bonds might have been turned over to Scott, possibly through a third person, and paid for by him. The transaction between him and the Union Pacific would, in that case, have been independent of Blaine, and Blaine might try to persuade himself that the transaction concerned only his friends who had originally applied for the bonds, and not himself, the agent in their transfer. If Scott could be persuaded to tell where he got his Little Rock bonds, a good deal of light might be thrown on the matter.

The retirement of Mr. Bristow from the Treasury, coming as it does at the beginning of a sharply-contested campaign, is a matter of profound regret. Had he remained in the Treasury, his presence there would have been a guarantee in which everybody would have trusted that the enormous powers of the Treasury would not, directly or indirectly, be used by the party in power to carry the election; whoever may succeed him now, we are hardly likely to feel the same assurance. Mr. Bristow has managed the Treasury as well as any man could who had no policy given to him by Congress to carry out at a time when the country most needed a policy, and who was hampered, to a degree difficult for any one not familiar with politics to appreciate, in the ordinary duties of his position by every sort of underhand trick and covert opposition. It is, we believe, a fact, and a most remarkable fact, that of the twenty or more cabinet ministers whom General Grant has called in to assist him in the work of government, he is the only one who has won any real popularity or obtained the hearty support of the public and the press; and this he has merited not by any remarkable displays of statesmanship or any brilliant financial feats, but because he has preferred to do his duty quietly and without ostentation, and has made it clear that he was not a man to tolerate dishonesty or peculation in public life for the sake of the party or anything else. His reward has been a practical isolation at Washington, the enmity of the whole political class, dastardly accusations of corruption in office, and a forced retirement at the very time when his honesty and good faith were most needed to protect the Treasury from being turned over to a corrupt gang of officeholders to keep themselves in power.

The war between the trunk-railroads continues, and there have been, during the week, several reductions in passenger fares; the rates for freights between the Atlantic cities and the West are now arranged on the standard of 16 to 25 cents per hundred pounds from New York to Chicago, or $3 20 to $5 per ton, which is hardly equivalent to the cost of cartage at either end of the route. It was charged early in the week that Mr. Jewett, the Receiver of the Erie, permitted that Company to be used by the Pennsylvania and the Baltimore and Ohio to lead in the fight with the New York Central, against which these companies and the Grand Trunk of Canada have common cause. Mr. Jewett denied this charge, and made the counter one that the New York Central had forced the war, and had led in the reductions of rates. Mr. William H. Vanderbilt replied that Mr. Jewett was mistaken, and here the matter stands—all the trunk-lines continuing to take business for the present, and some of them for months ahead, at rates which, under the most judicious management, make a losing business. While the trunk-lines are thus cutting their own throats, the effect of the dulness in the anthracite coal trade and the inability to get relief by combination are shown in the decline of the shares of the coal companies. The heaviest fall has been in New Jersey Central stock, this company deriving a large part of its income from mining as well as transporting coal. The other companies in the same business—the Delaware and Hudson and the Delaware, Lackawanna and Western—have suffered, but less than the New Jersey Central, because they are believed to be financially stronger. The roads west of Chicago have been profiting by the trunk-line war, which has increased and quickened the movement of grain. At the close of the week the grain movement was sluggish, because of the decline of prices in England, to which favorable accounts of the growing crops there and the disappearance of the war-cloud have contributed.

The foreign news of the week is unimportant. The new Minister of War in Turkey, Hussein Avni Pasha, and the Minister of Foreign Affairs, Ruschid Pasha, have been assassinated, and the Minister of Marine wounded, by a dismissed Circassian officer, who forced his way into the Divan while the ministers were sitting in council. The occurrence has no political significance and is not likely to have any serious consequences, as none of the ministers was a necessary man, although the Minister of War was perhaps the best representative to be found of the late revolutionary movement. There is increasing doubt as to the suicide of the late Sultan, but nobody will care to scrutinize the affair too closely. It is still uncertain whether the Servian Government will be able to check the popular desire to make an onslaught on Turkey, though its official relations with Constantinople are now very peaceful. Roumania is taking extraordinary precautions to preserve its neutrality, and Greece has published assurances of strict abstinence from any share in the troubles. What is most curious in the situation as it now stands is that the Russian press has begun to speak very approvingly of England's position, and to express the utmost confidence in her desire to ameliorate the lot of the Turkish Christians. In fact, all the signs are that no power will now interfere in the conflict, and the belief begins to spread that the insurgents, finding outside help hopeless, will come to terms with the new Sultan.

Some sensation has been created in France by the election of M. Buffet, the well-known reactionary ex-Minister, to fill a vacancy. As the Senate fills its own vacancies, and Buffet was an old and vigorous opponent of the Republican constitution, this vote has startled people who supposed that the Senate had a good Republican majority. It has accordingly roused some of the old feeling of bitterness against the Monarchists, and M. de Marcère, Minister of the Interior, has, it is said, been led by it, as a means of freeing the Government from all suspicion of sympathy with what has occurred, into taking more vigorous measures than ever against the prefects of reactionary antecedents or tendencies. One result of the occurrence has been to bring the Left into more cordial support of the Ministry than before. The bill giving the Government the sole power of granting university degrees sticks fast in the Senate, and it is now announced that the Ministry will make it a Cabinet question, and stand or fall by it. There are signs of a Ministerial crisis in Spain, owing to a difference between the Cabinet and the Cortes over a proposed increase in the land-tax, and the probability of strong opposition to the abolition of the Biscayan *fueros*; but with this exception a summer dulness seems to be coming over the politics of the Continent.

THE REPUBLICAN PLATFORM AND NOMINATIONS.

THE choice of the President of the United States ought to be, if any act of human beings ought to be, the result of reason and reflection; and as the readers of this journal are reasoning, reflecting men and women, what we have to say about the work of the Cincinnati Convention will have no flavor of campaign enthusiasm about it, and will be marked by no "generous illusions." The "shouting" for Hayes and Wheeler will be done by others so effectively that we are, even if "shouting" were desirable, under no obligation to swell the volume of inarticulate sound by which they will be aided in their canvass. The first thing to be noted about Mr. Hayes's nomination, as seen from our point of view, then, is that in so far as it is creditable, it is not creditable to the Convention; and, indeed, the way in which it was brought about bears out all we have been lately saying in these columns as to the aleatory character of nominations made in this way. Hayes was not a favorite, or prominent, or widely-known candidate when the Convention met, while nearly one-half the body was pledged, and enthusiastically, to another who had just been detected in jobbery, and nearly one-third to two senators who have been closely and intimately connected with all the abuses of the last eight years. Consequently, the prospects of reform when the Convention opened could hardly have been said to be cheerful. After a few trials of the relative strength of the competitors, made under great excitement and amidst the yells of the gallery, the "break" occurred; and it is to be observed, that whether it carried the majority over to Bristow or to Hayes was a matter of pure chance, which might as well have been settled by drawing lots as by voting. In fact, human reason had about as much to do with the selection of Mr. Hayes for the nomination as with the selection of Darius for the throne of Persia, and he, as is well known, owed his crown to the early neighing of his horse. To talk, under these circumstances, of the work of the Convention as well done is an abuse of language. The proper thing to say of the nominations by way of approval is that a great deal of excitement and confusion, following on a great deal of intriguing, ended by the merest accident most happily. If the choice of the Convention were final, of course such a mode of choosing the chief-magistrate of a great nation would be intolerable, and might result in frightful mischief. Even as a suggestion, it is, where the party is strong and well disciplined and the alternative very repulsive, full of dangers of one sort or another.

As to the nominations themselves, the candidates cannot, as regards personal character and antecedents, be spoken of too highly. They are eminently respectable men—the most respectable men, in the strict sense of that word, the Republican party has ever nominated. Were the Presidential office now what the Constitution intended it to be, were the Administrative machinery in proper working order, and were the Legislature confined by custom as well as by law to its proper duties, we should say that Mr. Hayes was precisely the kind of man for which the Presidency calls. He belongs to a type of which any country may be proud, and which it should be the aim of education and legislation in every country to foster as that on which free institutions most securely rest—the quiet, sober man, who does faithfully and without ostentation whatever his hand gives him to do; in peace an honest gentleman, in war a gallant and modest soldier; loving a private station best, but always ready on a lawful call to leave it for a public one. It is to this type of man that the Anglo-Saxon race owes most of its political liberty and prosperity, for it is the type which produced Hampden and Washington.

But Mr. Hayes, though by no means conspicuous in politics, is not wholly unknown, and we presume there are few even of those who know him best and like him most who do not doubt whether he is the kind of man for which the crisis through which we are now passing calls. The civil-service plank in the platform, though doubtless well meant, has, in its declaration that senators and representatives should confine themselves to their legitimate duties and refrain from influencing appointments, a ludicrous resemblance to the resolution introduced into the French National Assembly calling on all the rascals to quit France. It brings strikingly to mind the great fact, that to get rid of the master-evil of the Government in our day—that which has already degraded and paralyzed it, and threatens it with serious fundamental changes at no very remote date—the President must be a man of no ordinary tenacity and breadth of view, and must be prepared to sacrifice personal ease and smoothness of administration, and party harmony and success, to higher and more important things. We do not believe, with our present knowledge, that Mr. Hayes is such a man. We do not know, for we have no reason for believing, that he thinks the condition of the civil service a serious evil, that he would make great sacrifices to amend it, or that he thinks anything of more importance to the country than the supremacy of the Republican party, managed substantially as it now is. Let us not be misunderstood. We have no doubt he will surround himself with a respectable Cabinet; that his secretaries of state will never be chance acquaintances made in the railroad-cars or at dinner-parties; that his associates will be men of honor and education; that he will be in good relations with the intellectual and moral as well as the material interests of the country; that he will not tolerate thieves or theft in his immediate view and presence; and that he would be the enemy of all kinds of jobbery. But this he might be and do for four or eight years without permanently or even sensibly reforming the Government, or removing one of its Oriental features, and without checking that growing tendency to rely on individuals rather than on laws for the salvation of the Government which is the great danger and difficulty of the day. It will be seen that we do not seek to conceal his good points, but we fear that it is these very points which make him objectionable at this juncture. We fear that he will, if elected, send the nation to sleep again, to wake up once more in four or eight years to look for a "truly good man" to save it from the whiskey-thieves and the speculators and jobbers and ringsters. This reliance on special providences is the sign, however, not of healthy but of morbid politics; and the truly great man and the real reformer will be he who will bring about the revolution which will render great men unnecessary, and make the type to which Mr. Hayes belongs sufficient for all the needs of the state.

In short, what is perhaps worst about the nominations is their unobjectionableness. They are so good that the average voter will be very well satisfied with them—in fact, he is satisfied with them already. They will abate the desire for any effort at radical reform, and promote that love of palliatives and makeshifts which is already so strong, and which grows stronger as the voting population grows in volume, and its social interests and political aims and opinions grow more complicated and harder to calculate. They will make any revolt against the party organization at present both useless and hopeless, and offer but little prospect to those who were looking for some active attempt at amendment now, more attractive than that of being able to repeat a few years hence the now well-worn and melancholy boast, "I told you so."

But the Convention, whatever one may think of the nominations, did furnish signs of considerable improvement in party morals, and has left behind it some results of considerable value. It showed, for one thing, that the "Senatorial Group" was no longer a power in the party. Its two principal members, Messrs. Conkling and Morton, cut a very sorry figure as candidates. Indeed, the small amount of "strength" "developed" by Mr. Conkling contrasted somewhat ludicrously with the confidence of his followers and the size and impudence of the claque which was sent by them with music and banners from this city. Mr. A. R. Shepherd, too, was refused admission from the District of Columbia, and the Spencer delegates from Alabama. All these were favorable symptoms, and can hardly fail to have their effect in shaping Mr. Hayes's policy or in warning him of his dangers. Of the platform it is difficult to speak with patience and justice. It deals with the civil-service difficulty a little more minutely than that of the Philadelphia Convention, but its utterance, like that of Philadelphia, is a barren

proposition, and neither suggests nor calls for any legislation. It in like manner evades all specification in speaking of the currency, and, while advocating in a general way a return to specie payments at an indefinite date, says not one word in reference to the solemn pledge to resume in January, 1879, which the Republican party has placed on the statute-book, and which the Democrats are now trying to repeal. It throws a sop to the friends of woman suffrage in the shape of a "glittering generality," which may mean much or nothing, and makes a bid for the vote of California by an insinuation that "the immigration and importation of Mongolians" have injurious effects on "the moral and material interests of the country," thus flying directly in the face of that theory of the equality of all races on which the Republican party was largely built up and on which it has reconstructed the Southern State governments. After a fling at polygamy and a reproduction of that old and comic vow to stand by the soldiers and sailors about their pensions, it concludes with the customary curse on the Democratic party. It may be read with profit by the political student as an excellent specimen of the kind of mild imposture which the politician of our day tries to practise on the people after his party ceases to have substantial and unmistakable work to do. To pass any severer condemnation than this on it would be to ascribe to it more importance than it has or is likely to have.

THE INVESTMENTS OF POLITICIANS.

THE "Corruptionists" and their apologists have been resorting to a mode of lessening the force of the criticisms made upon Mr. Blaine's operations in stocks and bonds which, in some ways, is hardly less grotesque in its absurdity than the notion which they have also been trying to spread, that the recent exposures made at Washington are simply a "rebel attack on the character of our public men," the new weapon of the Confederates being what the eloquent Logan calls "the dagger of detraction." What they say in reply to strictures on Mr. Blaine's dealings, and especially to strictures which assume that men in public life cannot and ought not to have the same liberty of investment as other men, is, in substance, that those who are assailing Mr. Blaine are setting up a rule which would shut out from Congress and the Presidency nearly all men engaged in trade, commerce, manufactures, mining, or transportation, because there is hardly any branch of industry which might not be, for instance, affected by tariff legislation; and they then roll their eyes, as they do about "the spirit of slander which is abroad in the land" and about "the dagger of detraction," and ask whether you really mean to say that the Government ought to be committed to the hands of men who are so poor or so shiftless that they have no invested accumulations, or to mere essayists or orators who have had no practical experience of business; and, in some cases, ask you, with prayerful and lachrymose reproachfulness, whether you are not aware that John Hancock was a great merchant as well as a great politician.

Now, the sad part of all this is that our Corruptionist friends know that there *is* a well-recognized and long-established distinction, which has been embodied in the legislation of nearly all civilized countries, between men in official and in private life in the matter of pecuniary interest. Not to go out of our own country, the State of Pennsylvania absolutely prohibits the governor and the judges, the members of the legislature, and all executive officers—State, city, or county—who have the handling of the public moneys, from acting as directors of a bank. We believe all the States of the Union refuse to trust a judge with the decision of causes in which he, as a stockholder in a corporation, has an interest. When any such cause comes before him to which a corporation or any business concern in which he has a share is a party, the law says he must leave the bench or the case must be carried into another court. It says, in other words, that though he is a respectable man, trustworthy in all the ordinary concerns of life, it will not allow the two characters of investor and arbitrator to unite in him in any given case. Let his interest in a railroad or mine or factory be ever so slight, and let his character be ever so high, he shall not pronounce any decision by which he himself might profit even to the extent of one dollar. It is true, the decision might be just; in ninety-nine cases out of a hundred, it would be just. Nay, in a large number of cases men of high honor and sensitive natures would probably be led by the knowledge that they were interested in a cause to lean against their interest. But the law takes no note of these things; it insists not only that a judge must be pure, but that he shall put himself in no position in which plain people would be led, on an ordinary view of human nature, to doubt his purity, and thus have their confidence in the administration of justice weakened—so that he can never be an investor and judge at the same time.

Now, the legislation of most of, if not all, the States takes particular pains to fix the judicial character of legislative functions. It provides that anybody who promises or offers a legislator, either before or after his election, any gift, gratuity, or advantage, in order to influence his vote, opinion, or decision on any particular side of any question, cause, or proceeding before him, shall go to jail, and that the legislator who accepts anything of the kind shall go to jail too. The United States has a law to the same effect; and another, well known for its bearing on the late Mr. A. T. Stewart's appointment as Secretary of the Treasury, shutting out from that office every merchant engaged in foreign trade; and another, which forbids members of Congress from acting as counsel in the Court of Claims. In fact, we might fill a volume with citations from the statutes, both State and Federal, showing the popular anxiety lest executive or legislative officers should be influenced by pecuniary considerations in the exercise of their official discretion, and the popular determination that they should, as far as legislation could do it, be shielded against temptation. We might fill another volume with the opinions of jurists and moralists of every age and country as to the obligation resting on all lawgivers and magistrates not only to *be*, but to *seem*, disinterested in the discharge of their functions—that is, not only to avoid evil, but the appearance of evil, in their manner of acquiring property and in their tenure of it. It will probably surprise some of the "magnetic" patriots of the present day, and some Boston ministers, to learn that George Washington, when the Assembly of Virginia voted him by public act in open daylight one hundred and fifty shares of two canal companies in acknowledgment of his eminent services both as a soldier and statesman, and as a promoter of internal improvements, declined the gift on the ground that it was his wish as a public man "to have his mind and his actions, which are the result of reflection, as free and independent as the air; that he might be more at liberty (in things which his opportunities and experience had brought him to the knowledge of) to express his sentiments and, if necessary, to suggest what might occur to him, under the fullest conviction that, although his judgment might be arraigned, there might be no suspicion that sinister motives had the smallest influence in the suggestion." "Not content, then," he adds, "with the bare consciousness of my having in all this navigation business acted upon the clearest conviction of the political importance of the measure, I would wish that every individual who may hear that it was a favorite plan of mine may know also that I had no other motive for promoting it than the advantage of which I conceived it would be productive to the Union, and to this State in particular. How would this matter be viewed, then, by the eye of the world, and what would be the opinion of it, when it comes to be related that George Washington had received twenty thousand dollars and five thousand pounds sterling of the public money as an interest therein?" That these sentiments were not peculiar to him at that day, and showed themselves in the next generation, is proved by the fact that John Quincy Adams sold his shares in the United States Bank before legislating about it.

But then legislation can only ensure official purity within certain limits. It can only deal with corruption when it takes the gross and palpable form of bribery—that is, of the payment of money or valuables as the probable price of a vote or judgment. It cannot deal with transactions in that wide border-land between honesty and

dishonesty in which the connection of votes with favors or votes with self-interest is only a probable connection, and is too vague and shadowy to be dealt with by the coarse machinery of penal justice. This is left, and rightly left, as so much of the morality of private life is left, to the jurisdiction of public opinion; and public opinion, if in a healthy state, though it does not draw a precise line between what is allowable and what is not, and though it yields a wide margin for the play of circumstances, does make *some* improprieties perfectly clear. It does not, perhaps, prohibit a merchant from going to Congress and voting for a tariff which will raise the price of his own goods, or give increased activity to his own business, if his business be one in which so large a body of his countrymen share as to make his selfish interest in the change remote or minute; but, if he belongs to a small knot or ring of speculators, it does unhesitatingly declare his use of his vote or influence to enhance suddenly the value of his wares to be very indecent. It does in like manner condemn without flinching the sudden entrance of a man into a calling or speculation for the benefit of which he immediately afterwards seeks legislation. It would and does treat as a knave a man who buys a large quantity of whiskey and then begins in Congress to work for a sudden increase in the whiskey tax. It has nothing to say against members owning shares in a corporation organized, as the national banks are, under a general law, but it does object to the appearance on the floor of the representatives of corporations organized by special legislation, particularly if the special legislation confers on the company extraordinary powers or large endowments. In fact, one of the notorious facts of contemporary politics is the corrupting influence of special legislation on the legislatures. All the new State constitutions are providing against it in one way or another, and the way it corrupts is that it makes it worth while for small rings of speculators to offer members valuable considerations for their votes, or Speakers for their rulings, and not that it promotes intemperance or profane swearing. It is special legislation that leads speculators to place stock where "it will do most good," and get members of Congress to sell bonds at low rates among their friends; and the pretence that members of Congress, therefore, stand in no different position towards companies chartered or endowed by the United States from that of the rest of the community, or that in owning the stock and bonds of such companies a member of Congress is guilty of no greater impropriety than a private individual would be, is a very brazen pretence. Members of Congress themselves do not venture to offer it. It is offered for them by partisan newspapers and gushing ministers, who have lost or never acquired the faculty of seeing straight in the maze of commercial morals. When even such a person as Mr. Chandler boasted that he had always avoided holding the stock of a company chartered by Congress by a special act, and when Mr. Blaine wrote to his friend that he "could not touch" an "interest" in the Northern Pacific for himself, they acknowledged in clear terms the existence and notoriety of the rule for which we are contending. And it is a rule about which there is nothing intricate or abstruse. It is easy to extract it from any bundle of facts, and no duly sensitive man has any difficulty in applying it to his own conduct. In political as in private life we are to avoid temptations that are strong and direct, and we know well that the man who does so habitually need care nothing about the small and remote ones. The world does not expect men charged with judicial functions to be superhumanly pure, but it expects them to be as pure as a man may easily be, and, if they do not keep clear of every small influence that might lead them astray if they were very weak, to keep clear at least of those to which they know, and the world believes, the strongest may succumb.

THE REPUBLICAN CONVENTION.

CINCINNATI, June 18, 1876.

WHEN I arrived in Cincinnati, a week ago, in company with a party of New York Reformers, I found public interest in great measure centred in the discussion of the chances of the nomination of Mr. Conkling. Our train, with the exception of our own party, was a Conkling caravan, and many were the confident predictions and prophecies of the faithful band, who were not at all backward in lifting up their voices in the praise of the great senator, or in curses against his enemies. They did not appear to care to argue the question of his nomination, but, in reply to tentative questions, easily disposed of all rising doubts: they did not *think* anything about it; they *knew* he was going to win. On reaching Cincinnati they spread considerable terror among their opponents by producing among their "properties" a powerful brass-band and a magnificent banner bearing an awe-inspiring portrait of Mr. Conkling. Armed with these, they proceeded to cow their adversaries effectually, and ensure the success of their favorite, by marching up to the Gibson House, on which was a banner of the Republican Reform Club of New York, and placing immediately beneath it a banner of their own, inscribed with the words, "For President, Roscoe Conkling." No sooner had this feat been accomplished than it was telegraphed to New York, and the exultant followers of Conkling felt that the first blow of the campaign had been driven home. For twenty-four hours they succeeded in creating a belief in a good many quarters that they were really a formidable party, and on Monday, after a meeting of the New York delegation, I was told by a leading member of that body, not himself at all friendly to the Conkling faction, that the great danger of the moment was that Conkling would be nominated on the second ballot. This fear must, of course, have been based upon a belief that Pennsylvania would be delivered to Conkling, a belief for which, notwithstanding all that has been said about it, and all that may before the Convention have been intended about it, was certainly not among the possibilities at Cincinnati. This was due chiefly to the fact that the majority of the Convention saw that the Republicans of New York were divided among themselves, and that a division of the party in a doubtful and very important State could not be risked. The reading of the Reform Club's address from the stage by Mr. Curtis, put in a dramatic way what was already privately known and admitted; and though the Conkling party listened to it with assumed indifference, thinking, as one of them afterwards said, that "they might as well let Curtis air himself on that as on anything else," the language of the address was so pointed and cutting, and so different from the prevailing political jargon, that it was practically Mr. Conkling's death-warrant. It was curious to observe how completely the support of the "machine" had isolated Mr. Conkling's followers from the rest of the party. Their touch was evidently shunned by the others, and, so far from having any opportunity to compromise or barter, they were finally driven into the support of Hayes by the threatening increase of the Blaine vote, without having time to "place" a single post-office.

The telegram announcing Mr. Blaine's sudden illness caused an excitement among the delegates which, for the time being, threw everything else into the shade, and the immediate revelation of a widely-diffused popular comprehension of the science and practice of medicine was among the most striking things that gave interest to the discussions of the day or two preceding the Convention. From general reflections upon paralytic and apoplectic strokes to a complete diagnosis of the case, and explanations of the conflicting telegrams from the physicians, and the allopathic or homœopathic motives which dictated them, there was no species of opinion that had not a representative on the street-corners. Politicians who avoided, on principle, discussing Mr. Blaine's letters on their merits, and confined themselves to the question of his availability, had no hesitation in predicting that he would be dead within a week, or, if not dead, utterly incapable of using his mind or bearing any strain, while among the Blaine men there seemed to be a strong feeling that, whether dead or alive, conscious or unconscious, he was the proper candidate to beat the Democratic party with. Blaine was from the first the candidate who had most real party strength, and his managers had the best organization at Cincinnati. Two days before the balloting Mr. Eugene Hale had given out the exact figures which he expected to poll on the first ballot, and the vote for Mr. Blaine corresponded exactly—neither one more nor one less—with the vote (285) which was actually given to him.

It was clear from the first that unless Blaine was able to carry the Convention by sheer force of popularity, the nomination must be decided in a great measure by the Morton or Southern vote, which it was difficult to know about. The Bristow men, for some reason, believed in an alliance with the Morton party, but as they found themselves woefully left in the lurch when the crisis came, it is highly probable that the Morton managers did not confide their doubts, hopes, and fears to Bristow men only, but allowed it to be understood by other parties also that they would be willing to sacrifice all personal considerations to the highest interests of the nation. As a matter of fact, the account of the final defeat of the Bristow movement, given the day after by the Cincinnati *Commercial*, is perfectly correct.

The strenuous support of Blaine had at last convinced all opposed to him that he was the real enemy, and the more sagacious leaders of the party, knowing that disaster stared them in the face should he be the nominee—it was an open secret in Cincinnati that a bolt was inevitable in that case—resolved to combine against him. The Reformers had convinced Conkling's followers that he could not be nominated, and Morton was out of the question, as well as Hartranft. This left Bristow and Hayes as the only possible anti-Blaine nominees, and it was understood by the Bristow men that as soon as the Morton vote should go below that of Bristow, the vote of Indiana (thirty votes) was to be given to Bristow. The immediate causes which prevented this from being carried out were that Thompson, who was to have cast the vote, did not do so on the sixth ballot; that meantime Morton himself telegraphed to his supporters directing them not to desert him; and, in the interval caused by this delay, Michigan, which just before had given eleven of her twenty-two votes to Bristow, and was counted upon to support him in the end solidly, went bodily over to Hayes. These two defections settled the matter, and the anti-Blaine forces went over to Hayes with a rush. They did this, as the next ballot showed, only just in time, for the Blaine "stampede" had already begun, and it was by a narrow chance that he was not nominated. Blaine's vote on the sixth ballot was 308, or within 71 of a nomination. On the seventh vote, the doubtful and Southern States began to go over to him, and from the first nine States, out of a total vote of 140, he had 105, against 81 on the previous ballot; in other words, a gain of 24, or about 30 per cent. This he got not as the result of any bargains or consultation, but from the mere uncontrollable desire of a large part of the Convention to go with the winning man. The shouting and excitement caused by this increase of Blaine's vote were very great, and if the increase could have been kept up through the remaining States, Blaine would have received more than the 379 votes necessary to a choice.

The history of the somewhat mysterious proceedings of the Massachusetts delegation was in substance as follows: Before the delegates arrived in Cincinnati, it was known that a majority of them were for Bristow, but it was also understood that a minority—not strong in numbers, but possessing considerable influence—were for Blaine. The leadership of this Blaine minority fell naturally into the hands of Judge Hoar, who at first was a warm advocate of Blaine's, and whose behavior throughout the Convention is difficult to reconcile with any other belief than that he really desired his friend's nomination. I say difficult to reconcile, because, according to Judge Hoar's own account of the matter, his reason for wishing Massachusetts to support Blaine was in order that Bristow might be nominated. The intricate process of reasoning by which he reached this conclusion was that the support of Blaine would conciliate the Blaine men and win their affection, so that "when the break came"—the break being the critical moment when the greater number of Favorite Sons were to be deserted and (it is difficult to write elegantly about these matters) the winning horse was to make his appearance—they would come over to Bristow. When the voting by the Convention began, Judge Hoar did in reality vote for Mr. Bristow, but, by adopting the curious policy of working for Blaine in order that Bristow might be nominated, he did more than any one man on the Massachusetts delegation to prevent what the Bristow managers most wanted—that the leading Eastern Republican State should come into the Convention as a unit for him. It was felt by them—and they were unquestionably right—that with Kentucky and Massachusetts united, Mr. Bristow's candidacy would appear in a radically different light from that which a nomination by Kentucky seconded by a divided support from Massachusetts would have thrown upon it. Massachusetts, formerly the great stronghold of Republicanism in the East, had passed into the category of States that were doubtful, while Kentucky was in the position of a State needing to be "rescued" from the Democrats; and if, instead of Kentucky's bringing Bristow's name forward as a Favorite Son, his nomination could have been made by Massachusetts, on the ground that his name would secure an "old-time majority of 75,000," and seconded by Kentucky as necessary for her redemption (General Harlan, the Bristow manager from Kentucky, declared that Bristow could really carry the State), it is not at all impossible that Bristow might have received nearly two hundred votes on the second ballot. This was the hope of the Bristow men, but the chance was destroyed by Judge Hoar (not assisted, however, as has been incorrectly reported, by his brother, George F. Hoar).

The plan of a nomination by Massachusetts with a second by Kentucky was not acted on, but the reverse of this was attempted without success. A vote was taken in the Massachusetts delegation to authorize Mr. Dana to second the nomination when it should be made by Kentucky, but a single vote thrown against it by Judge Hoar prevented unanimity, and thus deprived the vote of its moral weight. Judge Hoar's position is made all the more mysterious by this, because the Blaine men were willing enough that the vote should be unanimous, while he, although intending to vote for Bristow in the Convention—this at least is a fair supposition, as he did actually cast his vote so—preferred to divide the delegation. The explanation of the whole is that he really wanted to see Blaine nominated, and supported Bristow finally because all the better part of his State was in Bristow's favor. But, as a politician, he played his cards badly, for he did not help Blaine and he alienated the friends of Bristow. Although his precise position was not known, it became generally understood early in the week that he was on the anti-reform side, and the criticisms that his supposed sympathy with the Blaine movement gave rise to were far from mild.

But, though the Bristow lobby (if such an expression may be used with reference to reformers) did not succeed in uniting Massachusetts on their candidate, they accomplished a great deal of what they went to Cincinnati to do. It is to the popularity of the Bristow movement, outside of politicians, that the defeat of Morton and Conkling, if not Blaine, must be attributed. During the few days preceding the Convention they were very active with meetings, speeches, torchlight processions, and "committees of reception." The local sentiment of Cincinnati was as unmistakably for Bristow as if he instead of Hayes had been Ohio's favorite son. Indeed, it was rather significant of the present condition of politics to find the Ohio politicians resolved to stand by Hayes to the last, when the people who elected these politicians were filling the air with cries for Bristow. The Bristow lobby was emphatically not a political lobby; it was a sadly honest-looking body of men, and the only body having anything to do with the Convention in whom any considerable number of gentlemen, in the strict sense of the word, were to be found. Looking at them, and seeing the thoroughly "visionary" way in which they tried to push the fortunes of their candidate by appeals to the desire of the Convention for honest government, and to the detestation of the delegates for all trickery and underhand proceedings, it was impossible for the most genuine reformer not to regret that they were too moral to use other arguments. A good campaign fund for distribution among the charitable and educational institutions and other infant industries of the South would have carried Bristow in with a rush, and it seemed almost a pity that so many corruptible delegates should come so far away from their homes and yet go back uncorrupted.

One of the most noticeable features of the Convention was the use made by the leading managers of the negro. The confused condition of the Southern delegations and the uncertainty as to their intentions made it important for every candidate to show that he controlled the negro vote, and would, therefore, carry at least some of the old slave States. On this account black orators were to be heard at every corner—Blaine negroes, who explained that the African longed to vote for the man who had "defied the Confederate Congress"; Morton negroes, who represented the persecuted freedmen praying to God and Indiana to send them a speedy deliverance from bloodhounds and Ku-klux; Bristow negroes, who descanted upon the virtues of the district-attorney who had actually prosecuted the Ku-klux; and even Conkling negroes, who, for reasons which they found it rather difficult to explain, maintained that the man to redeem the South was the "uncorrupt Senator from New York." The negro speeches, on the whole, were very nearly as good as the white speeches, and infinitely more amusing, partly from internal causes and partly because the negro "business" was so universally recognized as a piece of buncombe. The assumed deference with which the black delegates were treated by their white associates, and the gravity with which their arguments were listened to, were made extremely comical by the transparent way in which the real feelings of the dominant color now and then showed itself, as in the almost public boast by one delegate that his party "had a better nigger" than one of the other candidates, and, finally, by the tumult caused by the speech of the Blaine negro in the Convention, who referred to Mr. Curtis as the "poet from New York," and to Mr. Dana as the "Minister to England," and, after using up most of his five minutes, declared that he had only "twelve points" to make, the first of which was that "without Mr. Blaine there would have been no Republican party at all." This speech, however, was a confessed fiasco and a sort of *reductio ad absurdum* of the negro business. Some of the black delegates' speeches were quite effective, particularly one from a supporter of Mr. Bristow at one of the meetings before the Convention, in which the orator, at a loss for any parallel to Mr. Bristow's victory over the Whiskey Ring, compared him to Alexander the Great. Alexander, he admitted, was a great man; he conquered the world. But when it came to

whiskey, the conqueror of the world was no match for it, but, instead of overcoming it as Bristow had done, succumbed to its baleful influence.

It is impossible to sit through the proceedings of a national convention without wondering at its popularity as a method of selecting candidates. The objections to the old caucus were that it was a close corporation, and did not fairly represent local sentiment and voting strength. But while such a convention as that just held at Cincinnati certainly gets over these difficulties, it runs into others quite as bad. The convention is in theory a deliberative body; but it would probably puzzle the wisest parliamentarian to say how a body like that which met last Wednesday at Exposition Hall could possibly deliberate. There were, of course, several moments during the Convention when there was a pretence of debate—as, for instance, when the Committee on Credentials reported in favor of the anti-Spencer delegation from Alabama, again when the Mongolian plank in the platform was attacked, when an attempt was made to insert a resolution insisting on the fulfilment of the Resumption Act, and when Mr. Don Cameron attempted to make Pennsylvania adopt the "unit" rule; and speeches were made on both sides of all these questions, but they were settled by considerations which did not make their appearance in the speeches at all. The first three were all settled in favor of the regular committee's report, partly because any other course would have introduced disaffection and shown a want of harmony, and partly because, in the case of the Alabama delegation, the friends of at least two candidates —Blaine and Bristow—expected to get the vote of the regular delegation. This absence of all real opportunity for debate outside the locked rooms in which the committees or the delegates meet for consultation gives the speeches in a convention a curiously hollow ring, particularly as almost every delegate who has anything to say on any disputed point of fact or law invariably begins by protesting to the Convention that among his acquaintance he has an undisputed reputation for truth, fair dealing, and a keen sense of honor, and then triumphantly enquires whether any one can believe him to have any bad motive in supporting or opposing—as the case may be—the motion. When these protestations have been repeated by a dozen suspicious-looking characters from as many different States at the top of their voices, it begins to make the most credulous sceptical. And yet it is the only kind of argument that is used at all. A convention is really a spectacular body, and the vast audience that comes to see the show recognize this so clearly that they feel rather like resenting any appeals to the understanding instead of the senses.

The hall in which the Centennial Convention was held is an enormous building, capable of seating something like ten thousand persons. It must have held, beside the delegates and the alternates, fully six thousand people, all partisans of one or other of the candidates, and coming there with the avowed purpose of making as much noise as possible, and this not for the sake of disturbing or irritating anybody, but because it is a well-established fact that at a certain point in the proceedings noise will tell, and perhaps decide the nomination. The result of this is that the chairman practically presided over a body of about eight thousand people, and, not having a great deal of force, did not succeed in keeping the Convention well in hand. But, as a spectacle, it was very good. The magical certainty with which the delegate appointed beforehand to make or second a nomination was recognized by the chair, and the manly stride with which he mounted the platform and poured forth his glowing panegyric of a man whom he knew had not the remotest chance of being nominated, and called Heaven to witness that he would carry all the doubtful States, roll up an "old-time majority" in his own, and wipe the Democratic party out of existence; the steady, unswerving gallantry with which, each time the roll was called, the several States stood by their respective candidates until they had made up their minds to throw them over, were, from a theatrical point of view, very fine. The necessity, too, that the performers who have the principal rôles assigned to them feel of reaching the ears, not of the rest of the company, but of the surrounding public, seems by a sort of natural selection to have the effect of increasing with each generation of politicians the power and range of the human voice, and to be gradually making it as different from the voice of ordinary human beings as the moral and mental qualities of politicians are from those of the rest of mankind. Probably no school but that of American politics could have produced such a voice as that of "Bob" Ingersoll of Illinois, who nominated Mr. Blaine. After listening to the last reverberation of the echoes, it was almost painful to hear that the Government has preferred or is about to prefer charges against Mr. Ingersoll for certain fraudulent practices connected with the revenue, or, as it was picturesquely put by a leading Bristow editor, that "Four State-prisons are yawning for him."

THE INTERNATIONAL EXHIBITION.—V.

ORIENTAL CARPETS.

PHILADELPHIA, June 17.

IT is a disappointment to the enthusiast in textile fabrics to find at Philadelphia an inadequate display of Oriental carpets and rugs. Although there are many fine pieces, and many varieties represented by one piece at least, yet there are important styles totally absent, and of those which are present all, or nearly all, are those we have seen before at certain times and in certain places. The Exhibition should have brought together what at no other time and place could have been seen—we speak of the United States —namely, a comparative show of all the varieties of Oriental floor-cloths, from Morocco to Japan and from Bokhara to Madras. Such a collection would have been instructive and valuable even for the six months of the Exhibition, even for the five months of its comparative perfection, and even while scattered through the vast space of the Main Building and the other buildings where the carpets are to be found. If it could then be bought and kept in the country in the hands of some one of our museums, still greater would have been the benefit. Nothing needs enlightenment more than the carpet-making trade. Nowhere are the benighted ideas of kaleidoscopic design more firmly intrenched. A museum of textile fabrics is one of our greatest needs; and it seems as if that branch of the art which has care of carpets and rugs is most in need of the teaching of such a collection, and at the same time would give the readiest and most delightful result from it.

Whatever collection could have been made at this Exhibition would have been wholly of modern work; at least, there is hardly to be expected any great display of ancient textile fabrics, or of ancient art of any sort, in an international exhibition of industry. Textile fabrics are among the most perishable objects to which art is applied. Even if kept exclusively for decorative purposes, and never trodden upon, rugs and carpets are liable to many injuries and to rapid decay. Persian and Cairene carpets exist, no doubt, at least two centuries old; French and Italian tapestries three hundred years old remain to us; but the greater part of these are wall-hangings of pictorial design. Chinese silk fabrics of undefined age are to be found, seldom in Europe, more often in the far East. It could hardly be brought about, however, that our Exhibition would contain many of these. It could not be hoped that they would be for sale. In considering, therefore, what the Philadelphia Exhibition has and what it lacks, we have to speak of carpet-making of the present time; of the productions of the East, not yet spoiled in design by the supposed necessity of consulting Western taste; of the same fabrics as modified by that commercial intercourse which has lowered their standard of merit; of the carpets of Europe, sometimes frankly Oriental in design, sometimes as frankly of some bygone style of Europe, hardly ever of original design, and, even when so, never very interesting; and, finally, of American struggles to make our own carpets at home, and to hit upon the secret of keeping our own buyers from going abroad.

India and Persia are the two homes of fine carpet-weaving in modern times. In the case of India there are many varieties, known by the name of the provinces they come from. Madras and Delhi, each a great centre of the industry, each giving name to a beautiful and costly fabric, are about as far apart as Philadelphia and Key West, and between them is not a fluent and constantly mingling population, corresponding and telegraphing and communicating with itself in all its distributions, but fixedly established in an ancient and immutable order, so that the student looks for greater divergences in style than he finds. All the India rugs which come to our knowledge at the Exhibition or elsewhere are thick, of long and soft nap, the wool, however carefully selected and prepared, seeming of coarse fibre, much as if the nap were made of zephyr worsted shaved off at a level of a half-inch above the warp. The colors of the wool show always on the reverse side; each bundle of fibres is doubled and knotted around the heavy warp, held in place by the threads of the woof, and has both extremities exposed, cut off level, to form the nap. It may be assumed that for all purposes of modern manufacture and commerce India rugs are of this nature, whether they contain twenty square feet or five hundred. There are differences in weight and thickness, in closeness of texture, and more particularly in pliability, some being as soft in the hand as flannel, others much stiffer. The common talk of the dealers puts down these soft ones as "old" ones, which have been "washed." There seems no reason to doubt, however, that there is a greater difference in the make than in the age. The stiffer rugs have the closer and more uniformly smooth surface, the softer ones are more open and the nap irregular and loose. The former are of the higher price, and apparently of better quality. But if age and wear do not change the character of the fabric very much, they

give a lovely softness to the color. If the buyer finds a carpet which has been very much worn and washed and scoured, he has found a treasure of mingled and indescribable hues, as far removed as possible from the harsh mosaic of contrasts which meets the eye in the regulation modern carpet. The great durability of these carpets, joined to this quality of growing more beautiful by time, is a boon to those persons who have got beyond the raw stage of furnishing, which may be said to consist in liking new things the best.

The India carpets in Philadelphia are of pretty even firmness. The very largest are somewhat the thickest, having the deepest pile, as well as a somewhat heavier body than the small ones; but the greater part of even the small rugs are nearly as thick. There are two principal groups of them: one in the section devoted to the British dependency of India, where are hanging from the girders of the building and high overhead a half-dozen large carpets; the other in Great Britain proper, where the three firms—Gregory & Co., Lapworth Brothers, and Vincent Robinson—have each a large alcove floored and walled with Oriental carpets of various sorts, of which the greater part are Indian. In the Gregory alcove there is especially to be observed a carpet about fifteen by nineteen feet, and priced £74 in bond, without duty. There are larger and more showy carpets, and more costly and finer ones perhaps, but the splendid design of the centre of this, stiff leafage and flowers on a ground of "camel white"—that is to say, of a changing creamy color, varying from pale straw-color to buff, but so pale as to look white until compared with actual white—gives it perhaps the first place as a design in color. Another in the same exhibit, about twenty-one by twenty-two feet, and priced £110, has a dark-red centre, in general effect, and a border of white with a small pattern in dusky colors. The flowers upon it are as formal and severe as in the former example, and the colors are generally very deep. A carpet similar to this, but smaller, was lately, and perhaps still is, in the possession of Cottier & Co. of New York. It is noticeable, however, in both these carpets, and in others, how important a part is played by a peculiar deep-yellow, which is commonly used as an outline or *trait* to mark out the pattern, and also forms little subordinate lines and veins on the formal leafage. It will be understood by every one familiar with Eastern carpets that there is no attempt at representing natural forms—not even a remote resemblance to them; but perhaps it will not be readily understood how strictly severe and how abstract the forms of these "flowers" and "leaves" are until one tries to draw the outline of them, when they will be found as rigid as a marble mosaic. With these should be compared the magnificent Madras carpet exhibited by Vincent Robinson, probably the most delicate and perfect large carpet in the Exhibition, priced at $812 in currency, and worth it, in fineness and perfection of make, but perhaps hardly as admirable in design as either of the two last mentioned. Of those hanging up in the "India" section, the centre one of three, smaller than the others, and dark-yellow in general aspect, is especially remarkable in design. There are in all about fifteen large India carpets in the Main Building, all in the two places named. The four selected for special mention above are distinguished from their fellows merely by their artistic interest—all are fine. The prices of these would vary from five hundred to eight hundred dollars, after payment of our monstrous duty, and the general price of such carpets may be taken at twenty dollars a square yard delivered in the United States, or four times the price of fine English Wilton carpets, costing about four dollars a yard, of the usual breadth. Good as the latter are, the Indian carpets will probably outwear them at least four times over. They ought to prove practically indestructible. In a careful household, where a respect for its possessions exists, such carpets should last for two generations of constant wear—much longer in a retired place. So long as the pile remains at all, until the carpet is worn down to half its thickness, until the warp and woof begin to show, and even after that, the colors and the design remain perfect, gaining a deeper and a richer tone with years. The original value of the Indian and English carpets, as decorative objects, cannot be compared of course. In buying these costly things, however, care should be taken to select the real Indian designs, for there are those in market which have clearly had an impulse from Europe.

The small rugs of Indian make are sometimes like little pieces cut out of the great carpet. A piece out of a large design makes the centre; the border is the same as one of the large ones, but with fewer members. Other rugs again have their own especial "motive," a central lozenge-shaped or irregular figure, smaller and subordinate figures around it, and a border enclosing the whole. It appears that the best small rugs are apt to be of the former kind. It would be interesting to know whether there is a province in which the rugs and carpets are generally made in this way, the whole centre filled with a diaper pattern cut off anywhere to make it the right size. The talk about "Delhi" rugs can hardly amount to much, for Delhi holds prodigious fairs, to which textile fabrics from far away would naturally be brought. Masulipatam gives name to some, and Benares to others; but who shall say how far these names are given correctly? It is greatly to be regretted that the house of Vincent Robinson is not represented by an "expert" in these matters. This establishment at least goes directly to India for its carpets; and, as the artistic feeling of the designers is found to be already spoiled by orders from Europe in the more settled and frequented districts, year by year the purchases are made in more and more remote provinces in the hope of fine and purely native designs. It is probable that other importers do the same. The firm of Watson, Boutor & Co. does not exhibit at Philadelphia; they import largely, and it is probable that the majority of India rugs in England pass through their hands. If either this house or the one named before were directly represented in Philadelphia, some exact knowledge of the geography of India carpets might possibly be obtained.

But as for small rugs, those from three feet by six upward to six feet by ten, nothing is to be found so rich and varied as the Persian display. Here, again, our geographical description fails us. There are no means at hand of confirming the ascriptions to this and that province which are commonly made. There are cases even in which there is doubt whether India or Persia should be credited with a beautiful stuff; but none of these difficulties offers itself at the Exhibition, unless there should be some doubt about one fine rug in the Robinson alcove. That one is 4′ 2″ by 6′ 5″; it has a border of black ground with figures; the ground of the centre is white, with a great circular figure filling it from side to side. It is one of the most interesting rugs in the Exhibition, a fine work of art in its way, remarkable in having sharp and decided contrast for its motive, instead of gentle gradations of color; its price is $146, including the duty. Its near neighbor, a square rug, white, with a pattern in green and pink, and priced $150, is as unusual in character. This would be a difficult rug to use in furnishing a room. Its very odd and not wholly agreeable chord of color would require especial surroundings. It is a "museum piece," and ought to be kept on exhibition somewhere. There is another rug in this alcove, 4′ 1″ by 6′ 7″, with an orange centre, priced at $146, and one about the same size in the Gregory alcove adjoining, with a centre of uniform dark blue, priced £7 10s. in bond—both very fine and very unusual in character.

The visitor should go from this English section across to the northwest corner of the Main Building, where Messrs. W. & J. Sloane of New York exhibit their importations. Perhaps a dozen delicate and beautiful Persian and other rugs are here together; they are hung at different heights, and it is hard to compare a rug one can reach with one ten feet above the head, but all are interesting in design, and in general the fineness and delicacy of the fabric vary with the price. Among them all there is one that should be observed with especial care. It is small, blue in general effect, differing from its neighbors in degree of excellence rather than in kind; its price is $275. It finds its match, and perhaps more than its match, in one other in the Exhibition, of which hereafter. It is one of several imported a year ago by the Messrs. Sloane, and made, as is asserted, under peculiar circumstances—namely, as the especial handiwork of this or that lady of quality; as her sampler, shall we say? All Persian and Indian rugs are hand-made, and made not in factories but in the dwellings of the people. But the extraordinary delicacy and necessarily great cost of these gems we are considering make excusable almost any "yarn" about their origin. At the Sloane warerooms in New York there are two or three of these superlative rugs, of which one, at least, is superior in quality as it is in size and price to the one at Philadelphia. And in the Boston Museum of the Fine Arts there is one, perhaps, as delicate as any of these, which was imported by Bumstead & Co., and bought by Mr. Perkins for the Museum two or three years ago. These rugs are all of a surface like velvet; the nap is short, very dense and thick, offering a smooth surface very firm and solid to the touch, hardly yielding to pressure. It would be interesting to see the process of weaving these, and the looms on which they are made, and to compare these with the Aubusson loom and with the process of making the tapestries of France. There is, no doubt, a radical difference in their make, but the similar delicacy of the resulting fabric suggests a similarity in process of manufacture which it would be interesting to trace. In the matter of design, which is our chief business at present, these exquisite rugs are not so superior to their less costly brethren as to challenge comparison. As much beauty of color and of pattern can be had, sometimes, for a hundred dollars as for five hundred. But these fine ones have their special character too. Are they made to hang up? are they intended to cover divans? They can hardly be intended for use in the way we can best use them here—as table-cloths. However

that is, their design is invariably very minute, very finely subdivided, the whole surface covered with a delicate play of small patterns and of colors not contrasting very forcibly with one another. The largest of all these—the five-hundred-and-fifty-dollar one at Sloane's—is wholly covered with a small diapering of subdued shades of warm color on a white ground, except for a narrow border of almost the same hues. There is one of these high-class rugs in the exhibit of Vincent Robinson, 4′ 8″ by 6′ 7″, and priced at $355 currency. With such opportunity for comparison as is given, when things are so far apart, in place or in time, we incline to consider this one the most perfect of all the lot we are considering, and therefore the finest rug in the Exhibition. R. S.

Notes.

HURD & HOUGHTON have published in handsome form a translation of Julian Klaczko's 'Two Chancellors,' by Frank P. Ward. The work has already been introduced to our readers in the letter from our Paris Correspondent printed in No. 563 of the *Nation*.——The index to the first ten volumes of *Scribner's Monthly* (Nov., 1870, to Oct., 1875) fills 80 pages 8vo, and is attractively printed. Owing to the different character and scope of the magazines, this index is less valuable apart from the volumes which it unlocks than is that of *Harper's Monthly*.——Vol. V. of the Centennial edition of Bancroft's 'History of the United States' (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.) ends with Cornwallis taking possession of Philadelphia.——'The Tour of the Prince of Wales in India,' including his visits to the courts of Greece, Egypt, Spain, and Portugal, is announced by Sampson Low & Co. to appear next October. The narrative will be by Dr. W. H. Russell, the illustrations by Mr. Sidney Hall, the Prince's private artist, from hitherto unpublished sketches. The price of the work will, in expectation of a popular demand for it, not be excessive.

—We are glad to learn from a printed circular that the Faculty of Antioch College has been moved to investigate and expose the "Great Western Literary Bureau," alias "Great American Literary Association of Yellow Springs, Ohio," to whose fraudulent operations we called their attention last fall. It appears that the "Bureau" was organized in 1871, and conducted by "two young gentlemen whose names are now withheld." Their successor, the "Association," was one William M. Hafner, who has from time to time varied the monotony of his name by styling himself H. H. Hay, Ferdinand Otto, and Mrs. McRoy, and the monotony of living at one place by having letters addressed to him at Fairfield, Osborn, Clifton, Xenia, and Dayton, as well as Yellow Springs. His literary qualifications have been derived wholly from his studies, long since terminated, in the preparatory department of the College, and they have not proved sufficient to keep him from "plagiarism," from "obtaining articles from their authors upon false pretences," and from "selling the same production repeatedly." In other words, he is a fit subject for the penitentiary.

—We have received, wholly unheralded, a translation by John J. Lalor and Alfred B. Mason of Part I. of Dr. H. von Holst's 'Constitutional and Political History of the United States' (Chicago: Callaghan & Co.) Our opinion of this remarkable work has already been expressed, apropos of the German edition, in No. 466 of the *Nation*. The translators are quite right in judging it to be one of the fittest literary historical monuments of the Centennial year, and as such they offer it to the public, who, we are sure, will both appreciate and reward their labors. Dr. von Holst himself contributes to it a special introduction, composed in English, partly explanatory of the way in which he came to undertake a task of such magnitude, partly apologetic of shortcomings which a foreigner can hardly escape. Of these last he remarks truly that they are of the least consequence to American readers, who, if they ever feel the author's lack of the national sentiment, have always the corrective in themselves. He tells how he came to this country as an emigrant, and took the first opportunity of registering his intention to become an American citizen. A disciple of Laboulaye, he brought with him an idolizing regard for the great Republic, and was, as he says, "rather unprepared for Tammany Hall, the first institution I got somewhat better acquainted with."

"For a long time I was fairly bewildered by the throng of most opposite impressions, and, even after I had read and studied many a good book, I searched in vain for a thread to lead me safely through this labyrinth. Only very gradually I succeeded in finding out what, up to this day, seems to me the one reason why all my efforts thus far had resembled so much a wild-goose chase. Without being fully conscious of it, I expected to find in everything something particular, quite different from what was known to me either by study or by personal observation; and this all the books I had read had failed to distinctly show me as a mistake which could not but be fatal to the success of my studies. That I at last became aware of the mistake is the explanation of the claim raised before [above] that I have studied and written with more soberness of mind than any of my predecessors. . . . Nothing was left of either the misty vagueness of the grand and wonderful fairy-tale or of the prickling atmosphere of the strange puzzle: I felt myself standing in the fresh and clear air of stern historical truth."

The translators announce that hereafter their version will keep pace with the progress of the parts yet to appear—the present dealing with State-sovereignty and Slavery (1750–1833). They have been fortunate in one respect, namely, that in the original edition Dr. von Holst's frequent citations from his authorities are always in English—a practice which, if it had been observed by Dr. Kapp in his historical series, would have rendered their translation a much less formidable undertaking than it must be now, even with direct guidance from the writer to chapter and verse.

—The fourth volume of the ninth edition of the 'Encyclopædia Britannica' (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.) is, in the variety and treatment of its subject-matter, but little if at all inferior to its predecessors. Though lacking the co-operation of the many eminent names presented by the preceding volumes, it nevertheless embraces among its contributors a number of men widely distinguished in the field of their own special research. A more than usual share of space is allotted to biographical notices, but the preponderance of scientific subjects is quite as apparent as heretofore. Among the contributions of note and of general interest may be mentioned the essays on Lord Brougham, Chevalier Bunsen (by his son, Georg von Bunsen), Bunyan, Burke (by John Morley, 12 pages), Robert Burns, Bishop Butler, Byron (7 pages), Calvin, and Camoens, and the articles on Brahmanism (by Julius Eggeling, Professor of Sanskrit at University College, London), Buddhism, Building (66 pages), Calendar, and Canal. The geographical articles are numerous and important, and comprise among others Bolivia and Brazil (both by Keith Johnston), Bombay (by W. W. Hunter), Borneo, Canada, and California, the last by Prof. J. D. Whitney, the geologist. We have already had occasion in our previous notices to point out glaring blunders in relation to the extent of the Argentine Republic and the location of Pensacola; we must now point out one equally gross in the case of Borneo, whose area is given on the authority of Melvill von Carnbee at 12,745 square miles—an obvious confusion of German with English measures. The carelessness with which some of the geographical articles are revised is, indeed, truly amazing. Thus, under 'Africa,' Vol. I. p. 254, we are told that the Cunene River has a south-*eastward* course; again, on p. 255 of the same article, the Tioge is represented as flowing *north*-east; on the same page, Lake Baringo is placed north-*west* of the Victoria Nyanza; and lastly, on the following page, it is stated that the Harmattan blows on the *east* coasts of the Sahara. Sir John Herschel, if we recollect rightly, in the table appended to his elaborate treatise on 'Physical Geography,' contributed to the last edition of this work, located some of the highest summits of the White Mountains in Massachusetts. While deprecating the occurrence of such indefensible errors in a work having the reputation of the Britannica, we must admit, on the other hand, that the treatment of technical subjects leaves little to be desired. The articles on Botany (by Prof. J. Hutton Balfour of Edinburgh) and Bridges (by Prof. Fleeming Jenkin, also of Edinburgh) cover 84 and 56 pages respectively, and, form complete treatises in themselves. Both are profusely illustrated by means of wood-cuts and steel engravings. Other noteworthy scientific articles are Brachiopoda (in which a marked tribute is paid to our own laborer in the field, Prof. E. S. Morse), Butterflies and Moths, and Breeds, the last from the pen of Mr. Francis Darwin, a son of Charles Darwin. There are two full-page maps—of California and of British America.

—The 'Annual Register' for 1875 (London: Rivingtons) maintains its excellent character as a chronicle of the events of the year in all civilized countries. Its chapter of remarkable trials embraces that of the city editor of the *Times* and his co-defendant, the notorious Albert Grant—known as the City Libel Case; the St. Leonards' Will Case; the Whitechapel Murder; and Keet *v.* Smith and others, or the Wesleyan minister's right to the title of "Reverend." The more important state-papers given at length are Gortchakoff's letter to Shuvaloff on England's refusal to join the St. Petersburg Conference on the usages of war; the report of the Foreign Loans Committee; the court-martial finding on the loss of the *Vanguard*; and the Admiralty circular on Fugitive Slaves and the Queen's ships. These are followed by abstracts of various reports concerning British interests, such as the Indian census, agricultural and trade returns, census of factories, post-offices, army and police statistics, statistics of railways, wrecks, etc., etc. The politics of the United States have more space by one-half allotted to them than was the case last year, and on the whole the perspective of the review is beyond criticism. The exposure of Indian

frauds, and Secretary Delano's resignation in consequence, are the only important topics that go unmentioned. The whiskey frauds and the Beecher trial are barely mentioned, and there will be few Americans to blame the compiler for that. In the narrative of the Louisiana difficulties, the unconstitutional exercise of authority is duly pointed out, but something more might have been made of the Wheeler Compromise, both on account of its extraordinary nature as an extra-official and extra-legal way out of an apparently hopeless muddle, and on account of its demonstrating an unexpected moderation in the Southern character. The case of Arkansas, too, would have borne a greater enlargement. That the Civil-rights Bill was, very soon after its passage, declared unconstitutional in several courts; and that the outgoing supporters of the luckless Force Bill in the House were carefully provided with office by the Administration, are facts that might appropriately have been noticed. "Mr. Fisk" for "Mr. Fish," "Edmonds" for "Edmunds," and "Conshatta" for "Coushatta," are the only errors we have noticed, and these are clearly typographical.

—One of the penalties of a civilization which is able to carry passengers from the Atlantic to the Pacific Ocean in less than four days, is the compulsory transportation of contagion and insect pests at correspondingly rapid rates. The march of the Colorado beetle, however, from the Rocky Mountains to Passamaquoddy Bay, which we expect him to reach this year, must be regarded as rather slow, since it has taken him something more than half a century to get over the ground with all the modern conveniences for locomotion. Fifty years ago the observations of a Missouri entomologist would have had little interest for a cultivator of the soil in Maine, who now, thanks to the appearance of the inexorable potato-bug, suddenly wakes up to the fact that Dr. Charles V. Riley's annual reports have something more than a fresh-water and inland utility; that though paid for by the State of Missouri their value is not local merely. In his eighth report, just received, the Colorado potato-beetle has the post of honor, and we learn what it will feed on, what will feed on it, what Paris green and sundry patent mixtures will do for it, what its native haunt is, etc., etc. Dr. Riley mentions two new natural enemies of it, one being our friend the common crow, which "even digs up the ground to get at them after they have entered it to hibernate." More briefly we are told of the canker-worm, and more at length of the army-worm, whose enemies are legion, and manage to keep them down so effectually that "two great army-worm years have never followed each other, and are not likely to do so." The greatest space is naturally allowed to the Rocky Mountain locust, which Dr. Riley does not regard as a divine visitation, and does not believe can ever obtain a permanent settlement in Missouri. Some of the compensations for the destruction which it caused last year are curious and noteworthy. Thus, the locusts robbed the dreaded chinch-bugs of the vegetation on which they commonly lay their eggs unseen, so that they were obliged to lay them in exposed situations where the young broods were doomed to perish. The result is that exemption from this pest—which the Missouri farmer has always with him—is secured for two years at least, and the same is true of many other insects. Then, again, the locusts in dying left a rich coating of manure, which made the soil of the stricken country unusually productive. In fact, the fruit-growers suffered much more heavily than the grain-growers and stock-raisers. After the devastation was over, there was a great prevalence of plants which in ordinary seasons are scarcely noticed, among them the grass known as *Vilfa vaginæflora*, generally suppressed in the struggle for existence with the blue-grass, but which sprang up whenever that was killed, and, while young and tender, furnished a fattening nutriment to the cattle. Dr. Riley's account of his experiments to test the edibility and palatability of locusts is extremely entertaining. He succeeded in demonstrating that they make excellent soup, and can be served up in a batter as cakes, or simply baked or fried. "When freshly caught in large quantities, the mangled mass presents a not very appetizing appearance, and emits a rather strong and not over-pleasant odor; but, rinsed and scalded, they turn a brownish-red, look much more inviting, and give no disagreeable smell."

—We are sorry to announce that we have detected the Baltimore *American*—a very respectable paper—in an act of very gross "journalism." The *Nation* of June 8 drew attention to the notorious and long-established rule of political morals that legislative and judicial officers ought to keep out of commercial enterprises or speculations which seem likely to bring their public duty into conflict with their private interest—a rule which Mr. Blaine recognized when he said he "could not touch" an interest in the Northern Pacific stock. Our language was:

"It ought not to be forgotten, and we see that Mr. Blaine himself has not forgotten it, that the position of a legislator towards persons who are calling, or are likely to call, for the exercise of his powers for their private benefit, is essentially a judicial position. He has to decide between them and the public. His first duty is, therefore, not to accept favors from them, or put himself under any obligations to them, or become interested in the success of their enterprises."

The Baltimore *American* thereupon journalized the above in its issue of June 10, at the close of a long article, as follows:

"Is it seriously supposed that we could have a Government capable of transacting the business of the legislative, executive, and judicial branches if it were seriously held that all members of it must be prohibited from money investments and be required to relinquish all interest in the ordinary pursuits of life? Such a rule would, in fact, be the most effectual means of creating a class of professional politicians, who, being forbidden to make money out of politics, would be the more dependent on making it inside of politics."

Here we see it is set down as a positive fact that the *Nation* has protested against the admission to public office of anybody who has invested money in anything whatever. This is one of the best cases we have seen since Mr. Louis J. Jennings left the New York *Times*.

—"In spite of the new regulation by which an artist is allowed to exhibit but two works, the Paris Salon of 1876," writes a correspondent, "has a longer catalogue than that of last year. It numbers 2,095 oil-pictures, 621 pieces of sculpture, and a very long list of water-colors, drawings, and cartoons. Among these works none has become strikingly conspicuous; there is no 'picture of the year,' as there has so often been; no revelation of a new talent or particular happy hit of an old one. The general level of ability, if not of interest, is high, however, and the Salon of 1876 is a very good average exhibition. The most valuable work of the year is to be found in the department of sculpture, where it has given a really brilliant lustre to the name, already well-known, of M. Paul Dubois. The two figures of M. Dubois excite extreme admiration, but they cannot perhaps be said to have acquired notoriety, inasmuch as that admiration is confined to people of what is called 'quiet taste.' Such people just now rank M. Dubois very high—some of them perhaps a trifle too high. The figures in question form part of a monument to be erected to General Lamoricière at his native city of Nantes, and they are entitled respectively 'Charity' and 'Military Courage.' They are to be seated at two of the angles of the pedestal supporting the statue of the hero, which, with the figures for the other angles, will presumably be exhibited next year. 'Charity' is a young woman with two infants in her lap, one of them asleep and the other with his lips at her breast. Her head, draped down to the brow in a voluminous cloth, is erect, but her eyes are bent upon the children, and her two arms are extended with a movement of extraordinary grace, as if to close them toward her, without touching them. Her drapery, a trifle realistic, is the plain boddice and scant, simply-falling skirt, of heavy material, of the peasant-woman. This figure has an extraordinary beauty, of a kind that it is very difficult to define, being at once very simple in its effect and profoundly suggestive of all the delicately-assimilated culture which has nourished the artist's talent and enriched his inspiration. The face is admirable, the harmony and fluidity and at the same time severe intention of the lines most noble, the expression of the whole figure singularly touching and pure. One feels that the artist has placed his ideal very high, and that, on the whole, his powers of execution have sustained him in his effort to reach it. The image of 'Military Courage' is even more interesting. It represents a young man in a helmet, with a little winged dragon couchant on the top of it, seated, with his left hand resting on the hilt of his upright sword, and his right hand, with the fist closed, upon his knee. The skin of a beast hangs over his shoulders, with the fore-claws knotted upon his breast; he wears a sort of coat-of-mail and kilt, but his legs and arms are bare. The sentiment and intelligence shown by M. Dubois in the type, attitude, and expression of his young soldier form a remarkable combination of imagination and culture. Anything less vulgar, less brutal, less allied to the usual representation of the virtue of which the artist has sought to give an image, it would be difficult to imagine; the figure is almost too reflective, too sedentary. But, rightly viewed, it is supremely impressive; it represents the courage in which passion has been purified by intelligence, and which holds itself ready to fight for conscience' sake. The young man is, as the French say, *sur de son affaire*. Like his companion-figure, he suggests two or three great models; it is not probable that he would have been exactly what he is if M. Dubois had not looked very often at Michael Angelo's 'Lorenzo de' Medici' at Florence. The shadow of the helmet falls across the brow in a manner which recalls the ever-unlighted forehead of that great figure, and the fashion of the nose, mouth, and jaw is a memory of Michael Angelo. M. Dubois is certainly a sculptor, and sees things as a sculptor—sees lines and forms and contours, and not intentions, motives, and dramatic effects. But his two figures seem to me to lack just that supreme element of ease and independence

which makes the work that is rarest in quality. Still, in its intelligence, purity, and high plastic tendency, the quality of his work is very rare."

MARKET FLUCTUATIONS.*

THE literature of political economy has within a few years been enriched by several English treatises of a high order on special subjects belonging to the general domain of finance. Among these, Göschen's 'Theory of the Foreign Exchanges' and Bagehot's 'Lombard Street' are conspicuous examples. The book which is the subject of the present notice belongs to the same category.

The fluctuations of markets increase with the development of industry and the quickening of all social exchanges. Before the introduction of steam and the telegraph, and before the credit and banking system had reached their present perfect organization, there was more steadiness in the markets of all countries, because they were much less subject to foreign influences. Now, whatever acts favorably or unfavorably on the markets of one country is instantly reflected in the markets of all others. There is a constant tendency towards equilibrium, and whenever the balance is disturbed there is an instant effort to restore it. "The existing system is, in fact, very much like that in the Bessemer saloon-steamer, where men are employed continually adjusting the movements of the swinging saloon, in obedience to the indications of the spirit-level on which their eyes are fixed."

The writer of the present volume endeavors to show, "first, that market fluctuations are never without some cause, and, second, that these fluctuations are exaggerated in all cases." His observations are not confined to speculative markets, the movements of which are necessarily more obscure and, if we may be allowed the expression, sentimental, but are extended as well to markets of the most stable commodities; and the causes which influence each are pointed out with much distinctness, and illustrated by many pertinent examples. Markets are stubborn facts, and must be accepted and dealt with as such, as well by statesmen as by men of business. Their traditions cannot safely be ignored or overridden. Mr. Lowe, one of the most learned Chancellors of the Exchequer, but a doctrinaire, "still incurs much censure and has lost much popularity on account of the derangement to the money market which he caused when he altered the system of collecting taxes, so as to bring the bulk of the Treasury receipts into the Bank of England in one quarter of the year, so draining the market of its usual supply, disturbing the steady circulation of that blood of commerce, causing congestion, possibly inflammation and disfigurement, but certainly annoyance."

There are some notable exceptions to the tendency toward equilibrium in the labor market of particular countries. Thus, in England, there is a wide difference between the wages of agricultural labor in counties not very remote from each other, and Mr. Cliffe Leslie has lately shown that the same disparity exists in adjacent districts on the continent of Europe. Ignorance, combined with poverty so abject as practically to chain the laborer to the soil he cultivates, are the assigned reasons for this disparity. A recent correspondent of the *Nation* has pointed out the irreconcilable competition which exists in California between Chinese and native labor. It is usually assumed that the laboring classes of all countries, when subjected to the same influences, will assimilate, and, having essentially the same wants, will be entitled to the same wages; but how can the American laborer, born and bred to a decent regard for the usages of civilized life, possibly compete with the Chinaman who "never adopts an iota of our civilization," who subsists on "a diet of rice and entrails," lodges in a coal-hole, wears "clothing of the simplest pattern and cheapest material," and is withal patient, industrious, and skilful?

The importance which in England attaches to the harvest is well known, but probably few foreigners understand precisely why the harvest has the stimulating or depressing influence which is there assigned to it. The matter is thus explained: a demand for products must start with the consumer; the consumption of the laboring classes, outside of bare subsistence, depends on the price of food. With a bad harvest food is high, and the laborer's margin for other things is little or nothing; with a good harvest it is considerable, and that of many laborers amounts to a large sum added to the purchase fund of other articles than food. This fund goes to increase consumption, but it does not, except through the slow medium of realized profits, go into the general loan fund available to producers; consequently, it raises prices by quickening demand, while it does not inure soon enough to the benefit of production to increase supply in a corresponding manner. This state of things is peculiar to countries in which the laboring classes earn a bare subsistence. Therefore it is that the condition of the harvests in this country, where most laborers earn at all times much more than a bare subsistence, has a very different bearing from what it has in Europe. The difference between a good and bad crop in America has very little immediate influence on the consumption of other things; it affects the laborer's savings much more than his consumption. Large or small crops do not greatly affect the trade of the country, except as they co-operate with the grain markets of other countries.

It is a familiar fact, as stated by our author, that "a small increase or a small decrease of supply on a market will have a disproportionately great effect on the price," and it can never be predicted, with any accuracy, how great that effect will be. It is said that "when labor is decreased 20 per cent. prices go up 60 per cent." When the cattle plague was under discussion in Parliament in 1866, and the question was how the farmers were to be compensated for the cattle destroyed by the public authorities, John Stuart Mill, to the great disgust of the country gentlemen, reminded the House of the familiar economical law, that the commercial value of a short harvest is greater than that of an abundant one, and that, therefore, the farmers had gained rather than lost by the killing of their cattle. Hesiod was evidently the author of this economic axiom, and furnished a text for Mr. Mill's homily in his famous saying: "Fools are they, since they do not know by how much the half is more than the whole."

There is no doubt, also, much truth in the following proposition, namely, that "the further prices sink, the more ready are they to respond to any revived demand; and the higher they rise, the less strong are they." It must, however, be accepted with this limitation, that the prices in question shall be of such things only as have intrinsic value, and that no great and permanent influences have arisen to increase or depress them. It would be very unsafe, for example, to assume that the late inflated prices caused in this country by a redundant currency can be restored except by the same vicarious agency. The present low price of loanable capital is, of course, due much more to idleness and distrust than to superabundance. Indeed, the supply must very seriously have been curtailed by over-investment in fixed property, much of which is worthless. But the curtailing of production has been still greater, and the revival will be slow. There is every reason to suppose, therefore, that for some time to come capital will be cheap for the service of legitimate enterprises; and as cheap capital stimulates production, we may anticipate a great increase in all products. The margin of profit or savings, which is always a large sum in the aggregate, will increase the loan fund, and thus tend permanently to lessen rates of interest. It may be safely assumed that more than one decade will intervene before this country grows up to its present railway system; and it is not easy to see any other form of fixed investment which can absorb so much capital, and absorb it so rapidly, as the construction of railways has done within the last ten years. Why is not this view encouraging to the owners of land, at least of improved land yielding rent?

Under the head of "Money" we find some excellent comments on the Collie scandals. The spirit of competition among bankers is contrasted with the spirit of co-operation, and it is justly argued that they would gain more by exchanging facts and opinions about their customers than by following the secretive and antagonistic methods of doing business now in vogue. This habit of privacy in all that pertains to one's own affairs is far more English than American. An English banker of high authority, in commenting on the examination of banks under the national banking system of the United States to an American friend, expressed the greatest surprise that the examiner should be allowed to see the paper under discount, and said that English bankers would never submit to such a system. Contrast with this that striking provision of the Louisiana Bank Act of 1842 which required a New Orleans bank, in which a note went to protest, to notify every other bank of the fact, and prohibited them all from discounting the paper of the party thus discredited until he had paid up in full. The Collie frauds were the direct consequence of that spirit of privacy which dares not even to ask the questions necessary to proper information lest it should betray the nature of the enquirer's dealings.

A good deal has been lately said in the English papers about the effect of the fall of silver on the trade with India. It will be remembered that the prevailing currency of India is silver. The following passage presents the subject in a clear light:

"When silver falls in value, imports of goods into India are checked, our shippers want more of the Indian currency than before to compensate them for its decreased value, and this, having all the effect of making prices dear, checks the demand for goods; and, on the other hand, exports of Indian produce are just as much stimulated, for gold can be obtained for them,

* 'The Rationale of Market Fluctuations. By a City Editor.' London: Effingham Wilson. 1876. 12mo, pp. 186.

and gold has become more valuable in its relations to silver. So that in the case of a fall in the value of silver, India exports more in order to get gold prices, and imports less in order to avoid paying the enhanced silver prices; and as this must leave an increased balance in favor of India, money must be sent to settle it. When the value of silver rises, the rule, of course, has an inverse application, and it absorbs less."

An element of disturbance of markets which is much more keenly felt in Europe than in America, thanks to our living in another hemisphere, is the fear of war. Actual war spreads its influence into the markets of all countries, but apprehended or possible war does not seriously affect the money market of countries out of its probable path. At this moment the Eastern complications affect directly only the grain markets of the United States, but they are acting with immediate force on all the markets of Europe. Our author points out the nature of this depressing influence in the following quoted passage:

"The revival of alarmist rumors is a distinct hindrance to any revival of trade which might otherwise be at hand. Unless enterprises of magnitude have time for development they will not be commenced, and thus the existence of disquieting rumors, like those now agitating European capital, deprives the capitalist of that assurance of time for development which is necessary to tempt him into a great investment."

PESTALOZZI.*

HEINRICH PESTALOZZI was born in 1746 at Zurich, in the German part of Switzerland. His ancestors were Italian Protestants who were expelled from Italy by religious persecution. His father died when the boy was six years old, and his mother did not remarry. His constitution was delicate and sickly. At school he incessantly committed errors and fell into scrapes because of the excess of his feelings and imagination, but in his light-heartedness he quickly forgot his troubles. He never excelled in those branches which tax merely imitation and memory; he neglected orthography and penmanship, and his reason for abandoning the profession which he at first selected was that he made mistakes in repeating the Lord's Prayer and stopped short in his sermons (which he was obliged to commit to memory). After quitting the ministry he studied law, with a view to political reform, but was dissatisfied by perceiving the insufficiency of human legislation to do away with abuses. He abandoned the law for agriculture, in order to support the lady whom he wished to marry. The letter in which he proposed himself to her is so characteristic as to be worth quoting from:

"My failings which appear to me the most important in relation to the future are improvidence, want of caution, and want of that presence of mind which is necessary to meet unexpected changes in my future prospects. I hope, by continued exertions, to overcome them; but know that I possess them still to a degree which does not allow me to conceal them from the maiden I love. They are faults, my dear, which deserve your fullest consideration. I possess yet other failings, which must be chiefly attributed to my irritability of temper and oversensitiveness. I go to extremes in my praise as well as in my blame, in my likings and dislikings. I also enter into plans and schemes with such fervor as to exceed proper limits, and my general sympathy is such that I feel unhappy in the misery of my fatherland and friends. Of my great and very reprehensible negligence in matters of etiquette and conventionality it is useless to speak, as it is too obvious. I am further bound to confess that I shall place the duties toward my fatherland in advance of those to my wife, and that I shall be inexorable even to her tears if they should ever try to detain me from performing my duties as citizen. My wife shall be the confidant of my heart, the partner of all my most secret counsel. A great and holy simplicity shall reign in my house. One thing more, my life will not pass without great and important undertakings. I shall never refrain from speaking boldly when the good of my country demands it. My whole heart belongs to it, and I shall risk everything to mitigate the misery and need of my countrymen."

To this lady, Anna Schulthess, he was united in his twenty-fourth year. He bought an uncultivated tract of one hundred acres in the canton of Aargau, in order to cultivate madder as a profitable speculation. But he became interested in the labor question, publicly advocated industrial schools for the poor, and started one on his own farm to set the example, and began weaving cotton cloth. This, being his first extensive financial experiment, naturally failed, but it lasted from 1775 to 1780. His wife sacrificed the greater part of her property to save him from bankruptcy. He said concerning this disaster: "In the midst of the withering sneers of my fellow-men the mighty stream of my heart ebbed and flowed, as it ever had, to stop the sources of misery. My failure even showed me the truth of my plans. I was always deceived where nobody was; and where all were deceived, there I saw light." From 1780 to 1798 he wrote six books, of which the most popular was 'Leonard and Gertrude,' a tale in imitation of the style of Marmontel. His remuneration from the publisher for this book was to be "three dollars per sheet, with twenty dollars additional if it should reach a second edition."

One cause of Pestalozzi's poverty was his uncalculating benevolence, which the following anecdote illustrates. When in great need he once borrowed from a friend $100, and on his way home he met a poor peasant wringing his hands in distress. On being asked the reason of his grief, the peasant answered that his house had been burned and he was without shelter. This was too much for the feelings of Pestalozzi. Forgetting his own errand he put all the borrowed money into the hand of the peasant, and hurried off to his own desolate home. Arriving there without money and telling his story, his wife asked whether he knew the name of the fortunate receiver. "I do not know the man," he said, "but he looked so poor and honest that I am sure he must be good."

In 1798 he tried his second educational experiment. Napoleon had just conquered Switzerland, and had punished Unterwalden, the only canton which had made an armed resistance against him, by burning every village it contained except one. To this one village, Stanz, the destitute people flocked, and Pestalozzi made an offer to the Government to go there and collect and instruct the poorest of the children. His offer was accepted, and an empty convent was assigned him. Before it was made ready, orphan children came to it in large numbers. He had no school-furniture or apparatus, and he governed by love. His own words are too remarkable not to be quoted:

"I was among them from morning till evening. Everything tending to benefit body and soul I administered with my own hand. Every assistance, every lesson they received, came from me. My hand was joined to theirs, and my smile accompanied theirs. They seemed out of the world and away from Stanz; they were with me and I with them. We shared food and drink. I had no household, no friends, no servants around me: I had only them. I slept in their midst, and taught them in bed until they fell asleep."

His aim evidently was to make a school resemble a family. He relied less on words than on actions to enlist the sympathy of the children. At Stanz no text-books whatever were employed. Whether permanent organization could have been maintained without books remains unproved, for in 1799 a French company in retreat quartered itself in the convent and dispersed the occupants. Pestalozzi immediately demanded new employment and accepted the first vacancy, which was a subordinate position in a school at Burgdorf, in the canton of Berne. The head-master became jealous of the affection and attention of the scholars to their new teacher, and got him discharged on the ground, among other pretexts, that he did not know how to read and spell correctly. He next applied for occupation in a school, also in Burgdorf, where children from five to ten years old were taught by an old dame. It was given to him to relieve the lady, and he introduced a series of object lessons, an innovation which encountered opposition from parents. A man said to him: "Why, these exercises are so simple that my wife and I could give them at home." "The very thing you ought to do," replied Pestalozzi, delighted to have an opportunity to speak in behalf of domestic education. In 1800 he proposed to a neighboring teacher, Hermann Krüsi, the father of the author, that they should commence a private school in partnership. An old castle on a rocky eminence, which had formerly been occupied by a governor of the district, was offered them free of rent. They soon won confidence, pupils increased, and such enthusiasm was aroused in them that the school became famous all over Europe. In 1802, as a result of Napoleon's influence, the obsolete governorship was restored, the castle reoccupied, and the school turned out of doors. The institution was soon reassembled at the castle of Yverdon, at the southern end of Lake Neufchâtel, and flourished for many years. Dissensions among the teachers finally broke it up in 1825, and its founder died two years later.

Our space does not allow us to explain the methods by which Pestalozzi sought to substitute realities in place of words. But what few anecdotes are told of him remind us of the so-called 'Gospel of the Infancy,' in which it is related that Jesus refused to learn the name of the letter B until the signification of the letter A had been made clear to him, and that he remained so obstinate in this refusal, even after being flogged for it, that he had to be expelled from the school. It will at once be inferred that Pestalozzi employed the phonetic method of teaching spelling, and that one of his cardinal principles was never to teach a second step or fact until the first had been thoroughly understood in all its bearings (a truth which it would be well always to bear in mind concerning the political education of a nation). When we speak of the "principles" of Pestalozzi, it should be explained that we mean rather those of his disciples, for his own principles were felt by him rather than clearly thought out or uttered. He knew how to teach, but he could not express this knowledge in laws.

* 'Pestalozzi: His Life, Work, and Influence. By Hermann Krüsi, A.M., son of Pestalozzi's first associate.' Cincinnati and New York: Wilson, Hinkle & Co.

He was continually experimenting and changing. His associates were infected by his example, and it was thus that the reform spread. His assistants and students became disseminators of his spirit in Switzerland, Germany, France, and Spain. In the last-named country the chief minister, Godoy, founded the Pestalozzian Royal Military School in 1807. In 1808, through the influence of Queen Louisa, the Prussian Government sent twelve young men to Yverdon to become acquainted with the details of Pestalozzi's principles and methods, so that they might be introduced more rapidly into the Prussian schools. The students were selected with great care by Süvern, Minister of Education, and on their departure the latter said to them :

"The object in sending you to Pestalozzi is not merely that you may study the external or formal part of this system, or to acquire skill in teaching, but that you may warm yourselves at the sacred fire which is glowing in the bosom of that man, who is full of power and love ; that you may walk in a similar spirit in the path of truth and in the observation of the laws of nature ; that you may become simple as children, in order to obtain the key with which to open the sacred temple of childhood ; that you may never forget that a knowledge of the elementary part of each science is the most difficult to obtain, since it requires a thorough perception of the realities of things ; that the characteristic feature of the Pestalozzian method is the fact of its being equally adapted for scientific research and for popular application, since it does not spoil the desire for knowledge by light and unwholesome food, but strengthens it by vigorous nourishment."

Napoleon did what he could to destroy the new principles, and his success was lasting in Spain and France, though not in Germany. In the United States the Oswego Training School for a long time furnished a representative of Pestalozzianism as adequate as circumstances admitted, and the Oswego graduates throughout the country may be referred to as illustrations, with the qualification that our national tendency to materialism has led to a premature stiffening of methods into routine which is rendering the Oswego school yearly further off from the perennially fresh momentum of Pestalozzi. We wish that Mr. Krüsi had related more anecdotes concerning his father's friend, for he must have heard many, and he has underrated their value. We will quote another specimen of the few that are printed :

"Having undertaken a journey on foot [from Yverdon] to the town of Solothurn, he met a beggar, who asked for alms. Pestalozzi, who could never refuse any appeal of that kind, searched his pockets for money, but found that it had already taken to itself wings. In order not to disappoint the man, whom he saw anxiously watching him, he looked about his person and found that he could easily spare his silver shoe-buckles. These he accordingly gave to the beggar. Finding afterward, however, that the shoes had a tendency to slip from his feet, he fastened them with bits of straw, and thus trampled along the dusty road. On entering the gates of the city he was arrested by a policeman as a vagabond. He expostulated in vain, and could not convince his uninvited companion of his respectability. As a last resort, he asked to be taken before the Mayor, who at once recognized his esteemed friend, and embraced him."

One of his books has a political bearing, 'Figures to my Spelling Book.' It is a collection of fables. Here is one :

"The fishes of a pond complained that they were persecuted by the pikes ; whereupon an old pike, who was the judge of the pond, pronounced this sentence : 'The defendants, to make amends, shall in future permit every year two common fishes to become pikes.'"

The introductory fable is perhaps a justification of his own occupation against the labor reformers of his time. It is called "The Painter of Men" :

"He stood at the easel, and the people thronged around him and said : 'So, thou hast turned painter ! Truly, thou hadst done better to mend our shoes !' And he answered, 'I would have mended shoes for you ; I would have carried stones for you ; I would have drawn water for you ; but you would not have any of my services ; and, therefore, in the compulsory idleness of my despised existence, what else could I do but learn painting.'"

Mandalay to Momien. By John Anderson, M.D. (London and New York : Macmillan & Co. 1876.)—We fear that this book will not have in this country the wide circulation which it has had in England, and which it well deserves. To a large number of well-instructed persons here the very names of its title are barely known and but little regarded, whereas the keen eyes of the British merchant, and others interested more or less directly in British commerce, are always directed to anything which has a bearing on the routes of trade with China. In 1862 the British and Burmese Governments made a treaty of amity and commerce, and the intimacy resulting from this treaty developed the fact that in 1855 the trade between Burma and China had amounted to £500,000, but had since almost entirely ceased. This led to the despatch of an expedition in 1868 under Major Sladen, with instructions "to discover the cause of the cessation of the trade formerly existing by these routes, the exact position held by the Kakhyens, Shans, and Panthays with reference to that traffic, and their disposition, or otherwise, to resuscitate it ; also to examine the physical conditions of these routes." Dr. Anderson accompanied this expedition as medical officer and naturalist, and his account of it occupies three-fourths of the book.

The route chosen was from Mandalay, the capital of Burma, up the Irawady by steamer to Bhamô on the Burmese frontier. Here they began the overland journey on the 2d of March with a train of pack-mules, and crossed the frontier into the Chinese province of Yunnan. They had gone but a short distance beyond it, however, when, on the morning of the 7th of March, the muleteers, without complaint of any kind, deserted in a body, taking their mules with them. The result was that the expedition remained two months in camp, while a large amount of correspondence was carried on to convince the Chinese Panthays of the benefits which would result from opening the trade and of the peaceful intentions of the travellers. Dr. Anderson improved the time in visiting some silver mines, which were at that time not working, and in studying the habits of the Kakhyens, whom he describes as "a perfectly wild race of mountaineers, supplying themselves with most of the necessaries of life by rude cultivation. . . . Whether their character has been deteriorated by knavish injustice on the part of Chinese traders, or high-handed extortion and wrong on the part of Burmese, they are at the present time lazy, thievish, and untrustworthy."

The diplomatic difficulties having at length been adjusted, fresh mules were procured, and the expedition moved on about a hundred miles further to Momien, which was at that time the principal city of the Panthays or Mohammedans of Yunnan. Here they were hospitably entertained by the Governor for a period of six weeks. The Panthays have but little sympathy with their neighbors, being different in character, customs, and manners. Their origin is attributed to "a possible Arab stock to which has been added a considerable number of Turkish emigrants." In 1855 they rebelled against the oppression to which they were subjected by the mandarins, and succeeded in maintaining their own authority throughout nearly the whole of Yunnan, and in defiance of imperial Chinese troops, for seventeen years. This revolt was at its height at the time of Major Sladen's visit, when it seemed even probable that Yunnan would become an independent kingdom ; but the very kindness with which he was received by the Mohammedans made it extremely impolitic for him to venture further among the Chinese. The expedition, therefore, returned to Bhamô, varying its course somewhat so as to examine another route for trade and to study the habits of the Shans. These are the descendants of the Tai race, which was conquered by the Chinese in the fourteenth century ; and "the little nest of valleys, cradled in the parallel ranges which lie between the Salween and the Irawady, has preserved almost unmixed the relics of the ancient Shan kingdom." They are a thrifty race, though apparently somewhat deficient in spirit. "The women are constantly engaged in weaving and dyeing, for the yarn from home-grown cotton is spun, dyed, and woven by their industrious fingers. They are adepts at needlework and silken embroidery. . . . The great body of the Shan population is engaged in agriculture ; and as cultivators they may take rank even with the Belgians. Every inch of ground is utilized, the principal crops being rice, which is grown in small square fields shut in by low embankments, with passages and flood-gates for irrigation. . . . Tobacco, cotton, and opium are grown on the well-drained slopes of the hills."

The expedition reached Bhamô, on its return, in September, having fairly accomplished the objects set forth in its instructions, although without finding many conditions favorable to a revival of the trade. One of the first results of it seems to have been a determination on the part of the Chinese to put down the Mohammedan revolt in Yunnan, and it was completely subdued by the summer of 1874. Meanwhile, the relations between the British and Burmese had become more and more friendly, the native trade had considerably increased, and the British trade was beginning to flourish as the power of the Panthays declined. It was now thought that the time had come for another expedition with almost the same objects as the previous one ; and accordingly one was sent out in February, 1875, under Colonel Horace Browne of the Burmese Commission, Dr. Anderson again going as medical officer and naturalist. This expedition was preceded by much diplomatic correspondence with Burma and China, both of whom entered heartily into the project, and gave special passports and instructions to assist the expedition in every way. Hardly had it crossed the Chinese frontier, however, before rumors of opposition were brought to it. Mr. Margary—a talented young official of the British Consular Service, who had made, with only a few attendants, the journey entirely across China from Shanghai to Bhamô—was sent ahead to the next village to enquire into these reports. Here he and his secretary were murdered, and the next day the

expedition was attacked by overwhelming numbers of Chinese and Kakhyens, against which it defended itself as best it could, and made its way back to Bhamô. The whole subject of this murder and attack is still involved in considerable mystery, but there can be no doubt that this expedition was a complete failure.

Our synopsis is intended to show the thorough, painstaking, and conscientious character of Dr. Anderson's work. It seems to be without pretension, as it certainly is without brilliancy. In addition to the information contained in the body of the book concerning a country and tribes almost unknown to Europeans, there are appendices concerning their deities and superstitions and a vocabulary of two hundred words in the various dialects of the hill-tribes. The illustrations throughout the book are excellent, but we fear its excessive price will materially reduce its circulation. The question of trade, which was the determining cause of these expeditions, is one of the most important, not alone to British, but also to American, commerce. The day may not be so far distant when American prints and manufactures will undersell those of the British at the mouth of the Irawady; but, putting that aside, and considering only our present trade with China, the establishment of the caravan trade overland from China to Burma would, in connection with the Suez Canal, compete seriously with the present route *viâ* the Pacific Ocean and railway.

Ueber deutsche Volksetymologie. Von Karl Gustaf Andresen. (Heilbronn: Henninger. 1876.)—Dr. Andresen has done teachers and readers, both at home and in this country, a good service by thus putting into convenient book-shape his Bonn lectures upon the origin of the more puzzling German vernacularisms. So far as we can judge, the work answers its purpose admirably. It gives within a small compass the explanation—so far as any has yet been obtained—of those curious terms which the student has to accept on the authority of his dictionary or his teacher, but which never cease to puzzle him by their discrepancy between form and meaning. Such words as *Salamander* ("einen S. reiben"), *Pumpernickel*, *ungefähr*, *Hugestolz*, *Bockbier*, *Salbadern* may serve as examples. A curious bit of contemporaneous word-formation is the Berlin Stock-Exchange phrase for *Bismarck*—namely, *baisse-marc*, which might be rendered not inappropriately by "bear in the gold-room." It is almost as classic, in its way, as the '48 perversion of the notorious Hessian minister *Hassenpflug* into *Hessen-fluch*, or Fischart's *Jesu-wider* for *Jesuiter*. A perusal of the work is not only informing, but entertaining. We see the illiterate folk-spirit struggling with foreign or obsolete forms, and hammering them into the most fantastic shapes to suit its practical wants. Dr. Andresen's studies are in accordance with the principles of the most advanced linguistic research, and may be regarded as thoroughly trustworthy. A full alphabetical index facilitates the use of the work, which we commend especially to those who are interested in the study of the language, but are not in a position to consult the dictionaries of Grimm, Schmitthenner-Weygand, or the countless monographs cited by the author.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bancroft (G.), History of the United States. Vol. V. Revised edition.....(Little, Brown & Co.)
Batchelder (C. R.), History of the Eastern Diocese. Vol. I .....(Claremont)
Bliss (F. C.), Our Country and Government for One Hundred Years. (F. C. Bliss & Co.)
Crooks (Rev. G. R.), Life and Letters of the Rev. John McClintock..(Nelson & Phillips)
De Vinne (T. L.), Invention of Printing, 8vd. Paris I.-III.....(Francis Hart & Co.)

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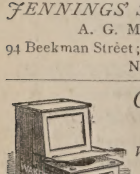

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 29, 1876.

The Week.

As we go to press, it is impossible to form any opinion as to the chances of the St. Louis nomination. Beyond the fact that Mr. Tilden has secured a larger number of delegates than all the other candidates put together, it is hardly safe to go. The Southern vote is, as it was in the Cincinnati Convention, an almost unknown quantity. The total number of delegates being 738, 492 are necessary to a choice; and while 216 votes are cast by the Southern States, three-quarters of these are votes which all the candidates hope to get. Tilden's strength comes from New England, New York, and the Northwest, but the active opposition to him comes chiefly from his own State. There is, on the other hand, no objection urged against Tilden which is not stronger against almost every other candidate. There is some doubt whether Tilden can carry New York, but there is very little doubt that Hayes will carry Ohio against either Thurman or Allen, while in New York neither of the latter would draw over any Republican votes. Tilden did undoubtedly act with a party which talked some years ago of "four years of failure to preserve the Union by war," but it now appears that he opposed the declaration on this subject in the platform of 1864, and at one stage of the proceedings got it struck out. Putting forward a candidate with Bayard's "war record" with Hayes on the other side, would make the campaign turn on the very issues the Democrats wish to avoid and the Republicans long to have made prominent. To take Davis from the Supreme Court would be ridiculous for a party which is undertaking to give the country reform; while Hendricks is objectionable as a soft-money candidate, and Hancock as being another "man on horseback." This leaves the friends of New Jersey's "favorite son," Joel Parker, against whom there seems to be nothing positive, in a fair position to play the same game that the supporters of Mr. Hayes did at Cincinnati, but with what success, if they should attempt it, remains to be seen. The lobby at St. Louis is a very numerous and powerful body, including as it does almost the entire government of this city from John Kelly down, embracing some of the most muscular statesmen of this or any country.

The Chicago *Tribune* has made up an interesting table classifying the votes cast at the Cincinnati Convention, which fully confirms what is said by a correspondent on another page as to the complete absence of anything like sectional feeling in the choice of the candidate. It shows that among the Western delegates Blaine, the Eastern candidate, got 148 votes on the first ballot and 140 on the last, while there were cast against him from the same source 110 on the first ballot and 110 on the last. On the other hand, the Eastern States only gave him, the Eastern candidate, 42 votes, while they cast 184 against him on the first ballot. On the last they only gave him 84 votes, while they gave Hayes, the Western candidate, 134. These figures, however, we think, confirm our correspondent's view in more than one point. They go to prove also the correctness of his notion that the Western delegates were less troubled than the Eastern men by the moral aspects of Mr. Blaine's case, and were more impressed by the "magnificent fight" he made. In fact, as the Chicago *Tribune* points out, if the choice had rested with the Western delegates, he would have been nominated by a large majority, in spite of his stock and bond transactions, so that we were saved by the greater scrupulousness and nicer moral sense of the East from a canvass which would have consisted so largely of an enquiry into the pecuniary affairs of the Republican candidate that there would have been little or no time left for the discussion of public questions, and which, we may add, would have ended in defeat.

The Senate has been engaged during the week in passing the resolution for the issue of $10,000,000 silver coin, the Indian and Naval Appropriation Bills, and a new Enforcement Act. The silver resolution as passed authorizes the issue of $10,000,000 in exchange for greenbacks, with an amendment providing that the trade-dollar shall not be a legal tender, and shall only be coined to an amount necessary to meet the export demand. The House appropriations in the Naval Appropriation Bill have of course been increased, and the electioneering abuses in the navy-yards have been disposed of by the addition of a clause forbidding any increase of force at any navy-yard within sixty days of a Presidential or Congressional election, except on the published certificate of the Secretary of the Navy that "the needs of the public service" make the increase necessary. The Massachusetts reformers, who have made many complaints at the extraordinary increase of activity frequently witnessed in the bright autumn days in the Charlestown Yard, will no doubt be glad to learn from Mr. Dawes's remarks on this subject that any attempt to control Massachusetts votes by putting people to work in such places is "futile," because in Massachusetts a man "must be a resident of the town in which he offers to vote at least six months." The new Enforcement Act, which the Judiciary Committee lately reported, and which the Senate has now passed, is designed merely to patch up the holes in the original act revealed by the recent decision of the Supreme Court; but it is not a matter which is likely to go further than the Senate, as the House is probably well satisfied with the present position of affairs. In the House, the last appropriation bill has gone through, and the order of the day for the next week or more will be committees of conference, disagreements, dead-locks, and compromises. In round numbers, the reductions effected are $40,000,000—$65,000,000 having been struck out of the Department estimates. In the consideration of the Sundry Civil Appropriation Bill, another step was taken in the direction of fastening the debt of the District upon the United States, by the adoption of a clause providing that in case there shall be no funds of the District to meet the 3.65 interest, the Treasury shall advance the necessary sum. The appropriation of $25,500 for the detection and prosecution of crime has been struck out. By a vote of 78 to 70, the appropriation of $50,000 for the Wheeler Survey west of the 100th meridian was also struck out. The election cases of Rainey of South Carolina, Strait of Minnesota, and Finn, the contesting delegate from Idaho, have been decided by the House in their favor. Mr. Sayler of Ohio has been made Speaker *pro tem.* in the absence of Mr. Cox, who has gone to St. Louis.

By an act of Congress, passed near the close of the last session, provision was made for the appointment of a board of experts, consisting of two army officers, two naval officers, and three civilians, to test the strength and character of American iron and steel; and appropriations, amounting in all to seventy-five thousand dollars, were made for the purchase of suitable machinery and to meet the expenses of the experiments. The civilians were appointed from a selection made by the American Society of Civil Engineers, and the only compensation paid to any member of the Board is a salary of $1,200, which the civilian who acts as secretary receives. The Board was organized in April, and quietly entered upon the performance of its duties. It was not expected that its work would be completed for several years, and the period which has now elapsed has not even sufficed for the completion of the principal testing machine. The labors of the Board, however, have already achieved very important results, prominent among which is one which has led to the adoption of a correct standard test of chain-cables, in place of a test by which the cables

were so seriously injured that when approved for use they were really on the point of breaking. The appropriation made last year has not been entirely expended, but the unexpended balance is not enough to enable the Board to prosecute its labors, and $50,000 are now asked for to cover the expenses of the coming year in the appropriation bill at this writing before Congress. A commission more totally free from political favoritism or more competent to perform its duties has never been appointed, and the value of its labors to the Government—which has used more than eight thousand tons of iron and steel in its buildings alone since the appointment of this Board—and to the industrial enterprises of the country can hardly be overestimated.

The mystery with regard to the Caldwell-Blaine despatches is not yet cleared up. Mr. Scott has appeared before the Judiciary Committee and sworn that he knows nothing about the two messages sent to Caldwell from Philadelphia, excepting that a young man named Read, who represented himself as Caldwell's private secretary, called upon him and showed him a copy of a despatch which he wanted to send to Caldwell (which would have cost about $100 in gold), and asked his (Scott's) assistance in doing so. This Scott refused, and Read then said that he would cut down the despatch and send it himself. The telegram was similar to the one received by Proctor Knott afterwards, but Scott did not think the wording was exactly the same. He said he knew nothing of Read. Robinson, the telegraph manager, to whom the despatch was brought, says that the man who brought it, on being asked to give his name, smiled, and said: "John Smith." Mr. Blaine's friends are not at all disturbed by this, and Mr. Frye wants to know what difference there is between sending out a despatch for Caldwell to repeat back, and sending a prepared affidavit to a witness for his signature and oath. The only difference, of course, is that affidavits, when prepared, are usually sent by some responsible person who has no objection to having his name known, and does not run away and hide himself immediately afterwards. It is obvious that a good many of our leading statesmen have not familiarized themselves yet with the *World's* apologue of the "Innocent Dog."

The *Tribune* has published a long letter on the relations between the Pacific Railroad and the Government which it calls a "cogent statement of the railway side of the case." It begins, as all these communications do, by pointing out, what nobody denies, that the Pacific roads form one of the "conspicuous works of internal improvement belonging to this age of civil engineering and co-operative effort"; compares the Pacific roads with the Erie and the Suez Canals; declares that "publicists are dividing" on the question whether Government ought to "relinquish all connection with branches of activity which individual or combined effort can accomplish," or ought to extend its functions "until it includes, besides carrying our mails, doing our banking, carrying, inspecting, and manufacturing also." What this has to do with the present question between the railroads and the Government we do not know, but the letter goes on to point out, what is more to the purpose, that the gist of the whole controversy, as the case stands, is, How shall the Government secure a debt which is not due now, on which no interest is payable till maturity, and to extinguish which the annual sinking-fund provided by Congress is inadequate? Now, this question is really a very simple one, and requires no such far-reaching discussion of the history and nature of internal improvements as "C. T. R." seems to think. The Government holds what is known among the children of this world as a second mortgage to secure its loan; it had a first mortgage once and gave it up; but as it is, it has a second mortgage. Everybody who has had any interest in the roads has had full notice of their second mortgage and the debt it was intended to secure, and they have acquired no rights legal, equitable, or moral against the Government. Now, if the Government wants to be paid when the debt matures, let it say to the railroads: "Make some provision for this debt, or we will take possession of your road, buy in the first mortgage, and sell the whole property for what it will bring. You may now go on and enjoy the revenue and make the property as valuable as you please for the next thirty years, and at the end of that time we will take it." The roads are now paying large dividends on their stock, and at the same time whining and groaning over their inability to make any provision for the money secured to the Government by a precedent mortgage, and making preposterous offers of establishing a sinking-fund of lands, which they say are mines of wealth, and other people maintain are worthless and unsalable, and which were, at any rate, given to the railroads, not to be returned to the Government, but sold by them for the benefit of their creditors.

The appointment of Mr. Morrill as Secretary of the Treasury has been received with general satisfaction, and it is to be hoped that he will accept the office. There is always a possibility of such queer and eccentric appointments being made by General Grant, that the satisfaction felt at any good selection is considerably increased by the reflection that the choice has not fallen upon any of the class of which Shepherd and Tom Murphy are prominent members, and Casey and Packard lesser lights. Mr. Morrill has had a great deal of experience in the practical details of financial administration at Washington from his position as chairman of the Senate Appropriations Committee, and he has the reputation of being in every respect a "safe" man. He would not be likely, if he took the office, to introduce any startling changes in the financial policy of the country, would probably allow the "machine" to work as usual, and would not feel himself called upon in any way to resent the levying of strictly voluntary contributions upon the office-holders for the approaching campaign.

We regret to find, in the address to the graduating class at Amherst composed by the late President Stearns, and read by Professor Seelye, amidst much excellent advice, one of those deliverances on a point of contemporary politics which their want of precision and boldness make, when spoken to young men, rather corrupting than improving. Speaking of the substitution of peaceful arbitration for war as a mode of settling international differences, he says: "America stands [in this matter] in the advance. Brave as the bravest, high in the prerogatives of freedom, she has been foremost in the overtures of peace. The Geneva arbitration ushered a new era into the history of nations. The international Conference which interested all the Great Powers soon followed. America has influence over the world. The country stands well on the question of high-toned manliness. We can take the lead in elevation of character and international magnanimity." Now, if any of the Amherst graduates looks into the effect of this Geneva arbitration on the national reputation, he will find, as a matter of fact, that our mode of acting under the award has damaged us and this mode of settling disputes, in the eyes of all civilized nations; that we do not stand so well with the world as we did before the Conference; that we are held guilty of sharp practice with regard to it; that the arbitrators themselves are shocked and grieved at the result of their work; and that the whole affair has deepened the suspicion as to the moral soundness of the country which has been bred by the disclosures of corruption in political circles. It is the solemn duty of any public instructor who teaches on this matter before the youth of the country to tell the whole truth about it. We mention the subject at the risk of seeming disrespectful to the memory of an eminent man, whose loss Amherst College is justly lamenting, because we feel, on reading over the commencement sermons and addresses at this season, that it is only in so far as they are sincere and thorough in their treatment of topics that they make young men feel the reality of the connection between college education and active life. If the burning questions of political or social conduct are to be taken up at all on these occasions, they ought to be handled not slightly or rhetorically, but with the vigor and completeness of a man talking to men about the most

serious problems at the most momentous period of their existence, when all shrinking or evasion or ornamental concealment is dangerous and unbecoming. In the *Alabama* matter Congress, under the lead of a rascal, has disgraced us, the Executive which accepted the award sitting silent by. This is the truth of the matter. We advise every bachelor of arts to make a note of it, not to deceive himself or others about it, and to do what in him lies that no such shame shall ever come upon us again.

Mr. Henry C. Carey has issued a letter to the workingmen of the Fourth Congressional District in Pennsylvania recommending them to re-elect Mr. W. D. Kelley, in which he gives a remarkable account of some of the effects of "British free-trade." According to him, this sinister agency, which is commonly supposed to consist in the admission by the British themselves to their own ports of foreign goods free, or at low duties, has also compelled various other nations of the world, not subject to British rule, "to confine themselves to the brutifying work of dragging out the soil and exporting it for the supply of foreign mills and workshops." Its other effects have been not less remarkable. It has "established tyranny" in the following States—"to wit, Ireland, Portugal, Italy, Turkey, and the Empires of the East," and introduced and maintained slavery in our Southern States, which, strange to say, it also caused to rise in rebellion, and produced our national debt and our system of internal revenue. If Mr. Kelley be the man to cut down this Upas-tree and get the British to raise their import duties, he certainly ought to be elected. The despairing cry of "Ireland, Portugal, Italy, Turkey, and the Empires of the East" ought to be listened to by the workingmen of the Fourth Congressional District; but, before starting Kelley on his regenerative mission, we warn them that they will have to arm him with belligerent rights, otherwise the nations above mentioned will, on finding him closing their ports, bring him before the nearest police-justice and put him in the common jail, thus crowning the free-trade infamy and shutting the gates of mercy on mankind.

The price of silver in London has fallen to 50*d.* per ounce and in New York to $1 09 per ounce, 1,000 fine, or $0.981 per ounce, 900 fine, which is the standard for silver coin. This is the lowest price ever known. It is evident that the German Government have been steadily selling in London whenever the market would permit. As the so-called premium on gold in New York has also fallen during the week, under the influence of actual and expected Treasury disbursements of July gold interest, the difference between the paper currency furnished by the Treasury and the silver currency has widened. The paper dollar has advanced to 89⅛ cents gold; the proposed silver dollar (412.8 grains) would have been worth about 84⅓ cents. The gold or bullion value of the silver tokens has fallen to 79 cents to the dollar. The $10,000,000 Silver Relief Bill has not yet become a law, but bids fair to do so before another week has passed. The scarcity of small change will then be relieved for the time at least, as under this bill large amounts of subsidiary silver coin can be obtained in exchange for United States legal-tender notes, which are to be held for the redemption of fractional notes as the latter come in. The full effect of the heavy decline in the price of silver on the value of silver coins is not yet comprehended by the people of the countries where silver currency is used; so that it is yet possible to pass silver coins worth 79 to the dollar at 96 to 97, gold; accordingly, shipments continue—last week nearly $200,000 fractional silver coin having been shipped from here, principally to the West Indies and South America. There is, moreover, still a profit in sending the coin to California, where, as fractional parts of a gold dollar, it can be used at 95 to 96 cents, gold, to the dollar. A public movement, however, has been made in California to accept the coin at not above 90 cents to the dollar.

The commercial depression continues to be very severe in England, there being again a decrease in the imports and exports for the month of May, in the former of over nine per cent. and in the latter of over six per cent., compared with the corresponding month of last year, though the showing for the five months ending May 31 is more favorable. The same story comes from Germany and, indeed, from all parts of the Continent, but particularly from Germany, where all sorts of securities are just as low as they are here, and the number of bankruptcies almost as great, and all without as yet "touching bottom" or beginning "a healthy process of recuperation." Of course, the fear of war arising out of the Eastern complications has much to do with the continuance of the depression. Curiously, however, there is no demand anywhere over there for the issue of more paper-money to "lubricate the wheels of industry." Senator Jones's great silver speech has, we regret to say, been received with derision by the "money kings" of the Old World. The *Economist* says he talks like an auctioneer who has silver to sell, and "consequently will not admit that it can ever be plentiful or that it will ever come not to be required." But, it adds, "his statements are too exaggerated, his figures too hastily compiled, and his arguments too inaccurate to have any serious effect on European opinion." This unwillingness of the "coupon clippers" of Europe to discuss schemes for replenishing the poor man's wallet at a cheap rate is, however, fully understood on this side of the water.

The condition of the Eastern Question now seems to be this: that the revolution at Constantinople, combined with the opposition of England to any active pressure on the Porte, having led to the withholding of the proposed memorandum, has led also to the open or tacit abandonment by the Three Powers of all interference whatever, including all efforts to restrain Servia or Montenegro from participation in the struggle, and to the refusal of the insurgents to listen to any further talk of accommodation. The result is that Servia appears at this writing to be on the point of crossing the frontier with a considerable portion of one hundred thousand men, and we may any day hear of a collision. There can be little doubt that if this takes place Montenegro will move simultaneously, or soon after. But the news is very conflicting, and the Servian Government, which is just now pushed on by popular feeling against its own better judgment, may find means at the last moment of staving off action, particularly as there is every reason for believing that Austria and Germany are almost as reluctant as England to see the struggle assume larger proportions. All that the Turkish Government has done in the meantime is to proclaim an armistice of six weeks to enable the insurgents to come in and make their submission, and get the benefit of the reforms which are promised for the whole Empire, but they have refused to accept it, and continue their military operations—the Turkish troops, in the meantime, remaining strictly on the defensive. The new Government has, however, withdrawn, or takes no notice of, the special offers made to Bosnia and Herzegovina by the late Sultan. There is as yet no indication at Constantinople as to what the reforms are to be, and the murder of the two principal promoters of the late revolution has probably caused more or less confusion and uncertainty. The more a National Assembly is talked of, the less likely its formation seems to be; but a formal limitation of some kind on the civil list of the reigning sovereign does seem to be among the possibilities. In "the case," as we should say, submitted to the Sheikh-ul-Islam to procure his opinion whether the deposition of Abdul-Aziz would be lawful, one of the hypotheses was "the augmentation by the Sultan through personal expenses of the burdens of the nation beyond what it could support." Another was "his causing such disorder in spiritual and temporal affairs as to threaten the ruin of the Empire and of the Mussulman community." This last expression is worth noting, as throwing light on the meaning attached by the Softas to the word "reform."

THE SHAM OF CONVENTIONS.

IF a history of parties in the United States is ever written, one of its most curious chapters will be that containing an account of the rise and growth of the nominating convention and the manner in which it has gradually supplanted every other process of selecting candidates. It was unknown fifty years ago, and it is only one of several methods which have all been in use in this country, and within the memory of the generation yet on the stage, but to-day it is so much a part of the established order of things that few people ever think of the possibility of any other method. In theory, a convention of delegates from every part of the country, representing all its diverse interests, both material and moral, is the fairest and most genuinely democratic system that could be devised. Its introduction was, however, a part of the great Democratic revolution in the management of the Government which took place forty years ago, and which resulted in making most administrative and judicial officers elective, under the idea of increased responsibility, and in giving us rotation as an instrument of increased efficiency in the public service. Like the other contemporary changes, the substitution of the convention for the caucus, by which Presidential nominations had previously been made, appeared at first to secure a decided improvement. The caucus had been a secret body, composed of men already connected with the machinery of the Government, and therefore out of sympathy with the feelings of the public. Their action was likely to be determined by personal and private considerations rather than the public good. They were likely to put up a candidate whom the public cared nothing for, in order to prevent the election of a man they themselves did not like, or *vice versa*. The caucus was a hot-bed of intrigue, which was continually interfering with the honest expression of the desire of the majority. Unfortunately, it was not foreseen, when the convention system was introduced, that the other institutions which sprang up about the same time might have an important influence on it. In order to have a genuinely popular nominating body, the one important thing was to draw a rigid barrier between it and the political class, so that the latter should be relieved of all temptation to interfere in their own interest with the functions of the former. Instead of doing this, however, the very party which introduced the convention introduced the change which is gradually sapping the life of the convention, and turning it into an empty form.

Everybody understands now so well the close connection between such bodies as nominating conventions and the civil service that it is difficult to see why it should not have been predicted at the outset. At any rate, the process by which the patronage, first seized upon as a help to popular power by the Executive, has gradually but surely and inevitably passed out of his hands into those of Congress, or rather of a small knot of men in Congress, and is now used by them to keep themselves in power, is only too familiar to us; and the result of it is, that by a curious sort of revolution the convention has brought us back to almost all the evils of the old caucus which it was devised to remedy, combined with others which are a great deal worse than any one ever dreamt of the caucus producing. A national convention, as it now exists, is a broad burlesque of popular institutions, and consists of a series of carefully regulated shams, under cover of which the real work of nomination goes on. The first sham is the selection of delegates by the primary meetings, the delegates being, in theory, men selected by the voters to deliberate on the choice of a candidate who will represent the ideas of a political party, and, in fact, office-holders chosen by other office-holders to select a candidate who will help them to more offices. The second sham consists in the now recognized custom of putting forward in every important State several candidates whom nobody intends to vote for in the end. The third sham consists in the pretence of deliberation. If a convention were really a deliberative body, or capable of deliberative proceedings, it would meet in some place where argument and debate were possible. Instead of this, it gets the largest place of meeting it can find, and, after surrounding itself with a noisy and uncontrollable audience, it proceeds to business under circumstances which render any real debate or discussion impossible, and which make all the parliamentary forms followed sheer pretences. The selection of officers, the adoption of a platform, and action on committee's reports, are not the work of the convention, but of a small number of selected men, who do its work for it in absolute secresy and seclusion between the meetings. The final sham consists in the balloting. A real ballot for President in a genuinely popular body would be an interesting thing; but the practice of having sham candidates invariably makes all the early balloting in a convention a hollow mockery. Everybody knows that a large number of votes are only waiting a preconcerted signal to desert their ranks and unite on some new combination. The growing favor in which the practice of instructing delegates to vote as a "unit" is held, tends constantly to make the voting a greater and greater sham, because under it there is no external evidence of any change in the sentiments of a State in which a fierce internal dissension may all the while be raging, until suddenly, without a warning, its whole vote is changed from one candidate to another.

Of all those shams such a convention as that lately adjourned at Cincinnati or that which met on Tuesday at St. Louis is sure to give plentiful instances. The appearance at Cincinnati of seventy delegates from the leading State in the country to urge the nomination of one of the State senators ought to have meant a great deal, but as a matter of fact everybody at Cincinnati knew that the Conkling delegates had not been elected by the party at all, but by the office-holders who owed their place to Conkling, and that the real leaders in the party recognized the sham so thoroughly that they had not made any attempt to control the primaries, but gave public notice that they would not allow Mr. Conkling to be nominated—the result being that the name of New York's "favorite son" was presented to the Convention by a delegate who, in the same speech in which he descanted on his virtues, intimated in no very round-about language that, as he could not carry his own State, it was hardly worth while to nominate him. The "favorite-son" sham has been carried so far that the usual argument among shrewd people about any candidate who appears to be "developing strength" just before a convention, is that he cannot possibly carry the convention. The deliberative sham at Cincinnati consisted in a pretended debate over the platform and the admission of the Alabama delegation—the platform being really drawn up by a committee in secret caucus and swallowed by the Convention, and the merits of the Spencer and anti-Spencer case being settled without even a presentation of both sides to the Convention. The balloting sham was admirably illustrated at Cincinnati. In the first five ballots half the votes cast were given to candidates whom their supporters had over-night agreed to desert, and on the final ballot it was a mere chance whether Blaine or Hayes or Bristow would get the nomination; and this chance was determined partly by the shouting in the galleries and partly by bargains and understandings arrived at the night before between the leaders of parties supposed to be hostile to each other. The "unit" sham has not got such a complete hold of the Republican as it has of the Democratic party, and so at Cincinnati the ludicrous mistake of deciding that a delegate in a popular convention could not vote as he pleased, but had to have his vote cast for him, by some one else, in favor of some candidate he did not desire to have nominated, was not made. But the rule is growing in favor every year, and in most of the States is generally already acted upon, for the simple reason that it gives immense opportunities for private caucusing and wire-pulling as the preliminaries to the brilliant dramatic *coups* which are the life and soul of the balloting.

To sum up the whole thing, the convention, which is ostensibly managed by open debate, by "comparison of views," and honest voting, is really managed by secret caucuses and conferences of a few leaders, while the voting and debate are either pure forms, gone through with to ratify a previous private decision, or else determined by the accidental whims and fancies of a herd of delegates under the influence of some momentary feeling. The result is arrived at in much the same way that a horse-race would be if the owners who

made the entries were to arrange with the jockeys privately in what order the horses should run the first three-quarters of the race, and leave the finish to be decided by chance, the cheers of the crowd, and the fancy of the riders. So far as this result is produced by secret cabals and intrigues, it is obvious that there is little to choose between a convention and an old-fashioned caucus as a means of nominating candidates, and it is hardly open to doubt that if the caucus system had been still in existence, and the nominations this year had come from it instead of from a convention, the leading candidates would still have been Morton, Conkling, Blaine, and Bristow, and that the nominee of the caucus would have been a compromise candidate like Hayes.

Some of these evils are undoubtedly inevitable, but not all of them. When we come to examine what it is that makes our machinery for selecting candidates such a farce, we find it agreed on all hands that the root of the trouble is in the "machine," or, in other words, in the control which the political class has acquired over the process by which the convention is produced. This, indeed, it is which gives rise to the most farcical phase of the convention system—the practice of supplementing and reinforcing its labors by the outside pressure of an enormous body of self-constituted delegates. If a convention were really what it pretends to be, all outside interests would obtain through the primaries representation in the convention; but, knowing the hopelessness of this, the outsiders now allow the machine to turn out its delegations without opposition, and then organize themselves for the purpose of capping the power thus obtained. A more preposterous result to be worked out by an institution designed to give effect solely to the popular will, it is difficult to conceive, and it is due of course to the enormous and arbitrary power which the administrative system gives the office-holders. To do away with it, a reform of the civil service is the first thing necessary. We do not by any means mean to imply that taking the civil service out of politics would rid us of political intrigue in the nomination of candidates, but it would give nominating conventions what they now so sadly want—reality. They would no longer be composed of men who themselves know that they represent nothing but their own interests, but of delegates really selected by a popular process to represent popular feeling; and this of itself would give a substance and dignity to their proceedings very different from the theatrical excitement under which they now go to work.

THE FEW NECESSARY FIRST STEPS TO CIVIL-SERVICE REFORM.

THERE was an indistinct notion on the part of some of the advocates of Mr. Bristow's candidacy that the Convention might be induced to choose him confessedly as the representative of reform in the civil service. The journey to Cincinnati no doubt cured them of that idea. Mr. Bristow was plainly very objectionable to the body of the delegates, and his nomination was only possible because he had been committed to no special programme of reform, because his attitude of opposition to their system was rather general than definite and particular. Had Mr. Bristow been plainly committed to what every friend of civil-service reform knows to be necessary—the absolute repression of all political activity on the part of the employés of the Government, his name would not have been considered by the delegates. Can we expect men—and such men as they—to vote away their own powers, to consent to the breaking-up of a system by which they not only rule but live? For legislation to be made in the interest of mice we do not go to cats. At the recent Convention, the platform and the floor were filled with postmasters, collectors, and supervisors; besides Federal office-holders, there were assessors, commissioners of charities, State and town officers in profusion. It was these people and their friends who were the secretaries and vice-presidents of the Convention and had most to do in controlling it. It could have been scarcely worth while to ask that they should willingly put an end to their own supremacy. All that the reformers could hope was that a man should be nominated who would rule for the people rather than for the Convention—who, relying upon the support of the country, would endeavor to set up a sensible and permanent civil service.

One of the first steps taken by the reforming Government must be to forbid all political activity on the part of office-holders. This reform is necessary both to improve the service and to wrest from the politicians the power of thwarting the will of the people. The office-holder will, of course, have his vote, though even that privilege is denied him in Great Britain. But beyond the simple act of voting, any connection whatever with the working of politics should be punished by dismissal. And the rule must be as rigidly enforced against those who support the reformers as it is now against those who oppose it. The outcry which may follow against "a tyrannical interference with the rights of citizens" will produce little effect. Even should the people not be able to see that no man is compelled against his will to accept an office, it is not in the nature of things that they should ever be profoundly touched with the wrongs of office-holders. The effect of this provision, if firmly carried out, will soon be felt. If the Government is in earnest, it will be hard for office-holders to evade it. To follow the business of politics secretly the office-holder will find a difficult undertaking. A little sharp dealing with a few offenders will induce him to be very wary in his style of procedure; and as he will be assured of permanence in his position during his proper performance of its duties, and assured also of immediate dismissal should he begin to tamper with caucuses and primary meetings, he will probably find it convenient and easy to become the quiet servant of society we wish to see him. If that should not be his disposition, it will not be hard to find one to take his place who will not insist upon ruling the country which feeds him. The country, no doubt, would generally support action of this sort on the part of its Government; a successful resistance or evasion of it need not be feared from the office-holder. But the resistance from the more powerful class of politicians will be passionate and formidable.

The reforming Government, in entering upon its work, will find the offices largely filled by men who have grown up under the state of things to which it desires to put an end. So long as these men acquiesce in the new order, perform properly the labor for which they are paid, and are correct in their transactions and deportment, the most of them will, no doubt, be retained. But it will be the duty of the Government to fill vacancies with men whose associations are not political. When a vacancy occurs in some remote collectorship, it will not usually be easy for the President to name some good man of the neighborhood for the office. Were our political affairs in the condition they were meant to be in by the framers of the Government, the President might go to the member of Congress for advice. But the member of Congress is now the one man to whom recourse cannot be had, because he would be sure to recommend some political friend and supporter. The necessity of ignoring Congressional advice in selecting officers will compel the establishment of some system which will do the same kind of work as is now done by the British Civil-Service Commissioners; and the construction of such a system will call for all the skill the Government may command. The system will be strange to our habits; to set it up and give it control over appointments through a vast area like our own will, no doubt, be a harder matter than in a little, compact country like England. But the work may be assisted by allying the choosing and examining power as much as possible with the ordinary conduct of the Government. A sensible Executive will not make the mistake of setting up novel concerns to attract to themselves all the rage and contempt of the Opposition, and to place the new ideas in an attitude of weakness before the country. The choosing power may be so imbedded in the Departments among the other functions of the Government as to be not separately ostensible to the public, though entirely effective.

It is fortunate that the Government will be able to go of itself a good way in the right direction, for Congress will not legislate in favor of the new order of things until compelled to do so by public sentiment. The President will no sooner enter upon the line of conduct just marked out before he will find himself face to face with

the Senate, Congress, and the power of the politicians. If he be of a peace-loving order of mind, and prefer quiet to doing his duty, then indeed there will be no more hope of obtaining civil-service reform until the next election. The Senate will oppose him with its Tenure-of-office Act. But this may be declared unconstitutional, or the Senate may not be able to enforce it, for it is scarcely possible that the Senate can lay down for itself a course of opposition and adhere to it in the face of the expressed will of the people. The inevitable danger will be the constant pressure upon the President of the friends of the older order. It will be very difficult to resist the continuous juxtaposition of senators, generals, judges, and the like. Washington society is in their hands. It is they he will meet at dinner. Their wives and daughters will be the intimates of his own family. They will surround him in flocks; their voice will fill his ears when that of the country and of the press is silent. One great use of an immediate, sharp, and determined effort on the part of the President will be to interrupt the relapse of the public into its accustomed sleep of apathy and unconcern. This apathy of the public and the numbness which besets the press are natural, indeed, reasonable enough, because, under our form of government, at times other than just before a general election it is scarcely possible that anything beyond the general instruction of the people can be accomplished. If the people and the press should feel that the reforming Government was really in earnest and needed their support, they would no doubt be able to express themselves to some purpose.

The hope is that the new President may address himself to his task while he yet has the assistance of that power which inheres in a "new broom." He must at once make haste to commit himself. Should he think to be "wise," to defer and temporize, his task will become greatly harder. He will be tempted to be good-natured and obliging; knowing how small a claim his own services have given him to the position, he will fear to magnify his office. Pleased, perhaps, with the flattery of men of greater power than he has hitherto wielded, it will be only natural that he should wish to postpone the fight. But, should he enter upon the work of reform and accomplish it (and if he resolutely sacrifices to the undertaking the inducements of comfort and ambition, he will accomplish it), his name will be remembered by the side of the greatest of our statesmen. Even in the midst of the work, he will be assisted by the pleasure which men take in contemplating purity of character, by the power of rectitude of purpose to attract to itself the attention and the confidence of the country. The spectacle of his predecessor retiring from a position which he has only used for the destruction of his own reputation should cause him to reflect that wisdom may not consist in sloth, content, the applause of favorites, and a hand-to-mouth way of living from day to day.

The few first steps to be taken in the way of reform are simple enough. Will they be taken? The platform of the Convention, of course, assures us of nothing. In the present condition of the public mind, it seems almost an impertinence that the country should ask of the candidate in what way he intends to rule it. But since, in the nature of things, nothing can be expected from the office-holding and office-seeking conventions, we must await specific promises from the candidates. Meantime, in regard to one of them, we herewith append an extract from a private letter which we have received from a friend of Mr. Hayes's in whose judgment we have great confidence:

"I have known Hayes for more than twenty years. I believe I know all about his work and his way of doing it, his opinions and how he came to them, and where they lead him. As everybody criticises his friends, I have made an estimate of his knowledge and abilities.

"In the first place, he is not a 'self-made man,' but was regularly educated, as that phrase goes in this country. He never had to get over any objection to learning, and has not picked up his notions of finance and the rest of political economy by observing the crops from the windows of a rail-car like Boutwell. He believes in history and experience, and does not, like Morton, hold that old principles are inapplicable to new countries. He believes in study, and for more than thirty years has studied public affairs about as carefully and quite as intelligently as the men who were carrying them on. In a word, he is not a new man in national politics, if people mean by 'new' to imply that a man lacks familiarity with the subject. To illustrate what I mean: he knows every bit as much about our true politics (not about running a party) as Mr. Blaine or Mr. Morton, and his opinion is worth twice as much as that of either of them. As to one of them, I think I put it very mildly. I should have supported Mr. Bristow most cordially, but, knowing both men well, I have to say that Hayes is in every respect his equal. He is certainly Bristow's equal intellectually, and has much larger knowledge and more experience.

"He is not a 'magnetic' man; he is not audacious; he is not a 'leader'; he does not impress one as a great force, and all that. But when he has a duty to perform he first proceeds to throw aside all nonsense, and, with a peculiar singleness and simplicity, sees just what the matter is. After that the devil can't scare him. I never knew a man who listened with a franker willingness to learn, and I have known very few men who were so sure to end with an opinion of their own which nothing could shake. I observe that the little people of the *Herald* and *World* speak of him as a 'colorless' candidate. Well, his color is not loud; but what they actually mean is nonsense. They had better encounter him some time when he has a duty to perform, and try to turn him aside, and then tell us whether he has color. I have seen him tried, and noticed that his color was a good deal like steel.

"Undoubtedly, he is a party man. It would take much more to drive him from the Republican party than would suffice for Schurz; for he holds that the party is something else than its leaders, and that it can learn. But my private talks with him make me feel sure that he is not, in the least degree, a *partisan*. He is loyal to the Republican party simply because he really believes it means something, not because it is *his* party.

"I need say nothing about his honesty; you've seen that mentioned in every paper that names him, though perhaps I might just as well add that he is just absolute integrity. My main purpose was to speak of his capabilities, since that must be the chief point of curiosity just now. For whatever it is worth, my clear conviction is that he is a very able man, very thoroughly informed, of a good deal of culture, of rare soundness of judgment, and of a courageous, high character."

THE INTERNATIONAL EXHIBITION.—VI.

AUSTRIAN ART.

PHILADELPHIA, June 24, 1876.

THE Austrian contribution is at once redeemed from mediocrity by the striking works of Hans Makart. The "Catarina Cornaro," the "Abundance of the Land," and "Abundance of the Sea," are works which by their essential pageantry and decorative character would do honor to any grand exhibition. One would say, too, that they do not find their true place until some vast world's palace is built for them, and an international concourse of spectators is assembled before them. Imposing in their merits and their faults, they need a festival or a commemorative occasion to shine properly; in ordinary galleries, they seem portentously out of scale. They are "tableaux," and as clear of a moral or a syllogism as any grand group among the clouds; and by their serene *aloofness* from any expression that the literary critic can comprehend they set this sort of observer securely off the track at once, never to find his home or his lodestar while he remains under their disturbance. The pair called "Abundantia" are youthful works, and full of young extravagance; but there is no poem of Keats's that shows a more secure promise. Makart, born in 1840 at Salzburg, passed his youth at the Vienna Academy of Fine Arts, and afterwards took the tinge of the Piloty school at Munich, passing some intercalary time meanwhile at Paris and in his native place.

The "Abundance" pair are long sheets of color, stretching like tapestries across the measured space they were intended to fill in a nobleman's banquet-room. Chains of colossal figures, without composition or coherence, yet submitting in a capricious way to the intended sentiment, entangle themselves from side to side of the enormous extent. In the landscape, it is Plenty seated under her dais-canopy, served by hunters who bring up their prey, vintners who dance forward with their tipsy load, and harvesters who garner the corn. In the marine subject, it is the opulence of treasure from the sea, the fishes and monsters of the deep, ocean nymphs playing at the feet of the superb Amphitrite, infants of the water wondering to find themselves upon the beach, and Tritons pouring pearls "while on land they wither and adore." These subjects are printed on a ground of gold, which represents no effect in nature, but which astonishes the eye among the heightened colors of the whole no more than some rather flagrant sunset among the trees. Here and there the artist, with audacity and skill, wipes off a desultory patrern in the paint with his fingers, and makes the gold tell as a texture in a drapery or a garland. The harmony of the pictures with the supposed design of architecture around them is secured with entire success, yet without the usual recourse to flatness or paleness. The whole key-board of color is boldly struck, and the richest chords fearlessly played, yet the work is not too solid in effect. Although dark and gorgeous, the canvases are not felt to hollow out an excavation in the walls where they are hung; rather, by a sort of decorative breadth and relievo, by a crowded continuity of forms, and by carefully-

soft transitions from the deeper tones to the higher, they are felt to rest upon the architecture as a clothing, and to warm it as velvets and tissues would do. The occasional lapses from exact drawing are obvious enough, but they somehow do not offend much. Never was a style of art that had the privilege more completely to beguile away the critical mood. A rush of teeming composition is felt, the impetuousness of a hot sketch, the confident carelessness of a good draughtsman in his royal mood; and the eye can scarcely pause to fix a defective posture where all seems to be in motion. This is the very art of Rubens, to lead the spectator off from the relish of rule-and-line analysis. Yet the painter, though resembling Rubens in his *brio*, is really very little like Rubens. Through all his hurry, he betrays an inclination to calm and laziness, like the Venetians. The silver serenity of Veronese seems to be his ideal, and it hangs always above his compositions, just out of reach, while the artist is busy with the Venetian *chercheurs*, the Palmas and Giorgiones and Tintorettos. The most serious error of Makart's, and that which shows him a nineteenth-century regeneration rather than an authentic contemporary of the colorists, is a want of consistency. The light is of a different tinge on different parts of his composition; or a foot or a hand of a particular figure will escape in shadow from the drapery, and not be of the same gilded or argentine complexion as the controlling portion of the form. These lapses show here and there that his color-dream does not steep him completely enough. The faces are what would quickliest dissever his claimed parentage with the Venetians. They are the long faces, with projecting jaws, of Kaulbach's female figures—sometimes blending with Austrian lips and high-bridged Marie-Antoinette noses; they are different from the types of any of the old masters, yet they seem sufficiently imprinted with majesty to hang an allegory upon.

Makart exhibited in 1867 at Paris with his fellow-pupils of Munich, and was then criticised as a Bavarian; and one of his three contributions found favor even with Madelène, the dire pessimist of the *Paris Guide*. "I am quite disposed to pardon M. Makart his 'Undines,' in recollecting that large, soft color-master's sketch called 'Centaurs carrying off Women.'" It is "large, *grasses* sketches of a color-master" that Makart paints still, and his "Catarina Cornaro" is but little more solid than his "Abundantia." The widowed daughter of Venice, returning to be a Venetian republican again, with the island-empire as her gift, is represented throned on a quay, and receiving the homage of the powers of sea and land. It is not very strict history. The heroine is, once more, an Austrian beauty, with lovely elongated features, telling of experience, widowhood, the fatigue of empire, and the peace of reassumed mediocrity. A statesman like a Venetian doge is at her right hand, beautiful nymphs offer tributes of flowers, musicians blare through golden trumpets, and masts and sails are printed upon the sky in fantastic designs, as they print themselves in the pageants of Gentile Bellini. Through it all we find that the political dignity of Cyprus ex-queens and Venetian senators is very little in the artist's mind, and their forms and dresses very prominently so. The intense blue of the gondola draperies, and the cloth-of-gold of Catarina's robe, are more important than any manifestation of character. Impertinent or magnified accessories are introduced at will, their apology being their shape and color. "We poor curs of painters," said Veronese before the Council which summoned him for introducing lap-dogs into his sacred subjects, "put in the prettiest works of God where we think they look best." In the "Abundantia" the most faultless piece of painting is a bunch of dried maize, where the intermixed bead-work of black and yellow grains, the twisting ropes of heavy vegetable pearls and tossing leaves of the noble plant, make an unapproachable piece of still-life. The function of this man of genius is that of a decorator: the same, primarily, was the function of Tintoretto, Veronese, and other so-called religious painters. But the modern has not the advantage of living in an atmosphere of unquestioned clerical tradition, and his works thus lose the privilege of going down to posterity enhanced by the attachment of man's deepest faith.

Other Austrians who should have exhibited, Romako, Muncacsy, Matejiko (painter of the great "Diet of 1773 at Warsaw"), must be examined in private collections or the galleries of importers. Very little is known here of the Academy of Vienna, whose professors seem as destitute of parentage as so many Melchizedeks, while the pupils turned out from their retreat frequently astonish the world by their originality and strength. Friedrich Amerling, connected with the Vienna Academy, and contributor of some fine portraits to the Paris Exposition, sends a "Jurisconsult," evidently a work of character-interpretation, and clothed in effective and finely studied official garments. Gustav Gaul, whose portrait of the tenor Roger we recollect distinctly through the lapse of nine years, contributes a not less striking study under the title of "Satanella." August Schaeffer, whose "Hungarian Forest" was deemed worthy of purchase by the technical judgment of Professor Morse, contributes a quiet work, full of grace and sentiment, "November Evening in the Prater." Adolph Obermüller, also of Vienna, but enamored of Tyrolese and mountainous subjects, sends an ambitious and theatrical, well-colored study, which represents a less hopeful phase of Austrian art, "A Storm or Föhnwind on the Lake of Constance."

E. S.

WALLON'S JOAN OF ARC.

PARIS, June 2, 1876.

M. WALLON has been sometimes called the father of the Republic; he has given his name to our present Constitution, though I fancy that M. Laboulaye had more to do with the framing of its articles than he had. The Republic has shown, with regard to M. Wallon, that it has no gratitude; it is the old story: "Sic vos non vobis." M. Wallon has vanished out of sight; he is nowhere; or, rather, he has returned to his quiet functions of perpetual secretary of the Academy of Inscriptions and Belles-lettres. He has published a book on Joan of Arc, with beautiful illustrations, and this book has been blessed by the Pope himself.

Joan of Arc is better made to tempt a poet than a historian; she is one of those figures which, so to speak, defy history; she is unaccountable—a Catholic would say, miraculous. There is an equestrian statue of Joan of Arc on the little Place de Rivoli, opposite the Tuileries. It is not generally admired, but in my opinion it has much beauty. The horse is but a poor creature, but the head of Joan has a nobility of expression, a *je ne sais quoi*, which speaks to my imagination. It was the fashion at one time to cover the pedestal of the young heroine with crowns of immortelles; the memories of the war were still alive. Now, the statue is abandoned, as well as the statue of Strasbourg on the Place de la Concorde, but I have seldom passed before it without seeing some Frenchman looking at it with a sad interest. The uses of art are great. Fancy a poor little Breton soldier coming from his *lande:* "Who is the woman on horseback?" he says to his clever comrade in the regiment who comes from the South. "Don't you know?"—and then comes a story of the heroine of Vaucouleurs which I should like to hear even better than the reasonings of M. Wallon. For, after all, facts—hard facts—are nothing when they have ceased to exist; they can only exist then in the imagination of men.

The historical sources in regard to Joan of Arc are all well known by this time; there is the 'Journal of the Siege of Orléans' and the chronicles of the fifteenth century. Most of the authentic documents have been well analyzed in Quicherat's great work, 'Procès de Condamnation et de Réhabilitation de Jeanne d'Arc.' Strange to say, Voltaire, who wrote the famous 'Pucelle,' a work which sullies his memory and the memory of a time which applauded it, did justice to Joan of Arc in his serious 'Essai sur les Mœurs.' Though he speaks lightly of her youth, of her audacious attempt, he cannot help being moved by her simplicity and her courage. "This heroine," he says, "worthy of the miracle which she feigned, was judged in Rouen by Cauchon, Bishop of Beauvais," etc. He speaks of her answers before the tribunal as "worthy of being eternally famous." The devotion to the memory of Joan of Arc is a modern phenomenon; the old historians do not speak of her as we do now. Consult the books of Robert Gaguin, of Paul Emile, of Polydore Vergil, and of many others, and you will find everywhere a tone of moderate enthusiasm. I have before me, for instance, a book which was written in 1571 by Bernard de Girard, Seigneur du Haillan, secretary of the Duke of Anjou, under the title, 'De l'Estat et Succez des Affaires de France.' He tells the story of Joan's arrival at the French court, and adds:

"The miracle of this girl, whether it was true or supposed, elevated the hearts of the King, of the nobles, and of the people; such is the force of religion and often of superstition. For it is said that this Joan was the mistress of John, Bastard of Orleans—others say, of the Sire de Baudricourt, Marshal of France; which men, being cunning and wise, seeing the King so astounded that he did not know what to do or say, and the people so discouraged by continual wars that they could no longer excite its hope, bethought themselves to employ a miracle, made of a false religion—the thing which, of all others, most excites the human mind; and the time was quite fit for the reception of such superstitions, as the people were ruined and unhappy. Therefore, these noblemen during two or three months instructed her to make answers to the questions which might be put to her by the King or by themselves in presence of the King; and in order that she should recognize the King, they showed her every day his portrait. On the fixed day when she was to see the King they were present. The first who asked her what she wished were Bastard and Baudricourt; she said that she wished to speak to the King. They presented to her another of the gentlemen who were present, saying that he was the King; but she, well instructed of what she was to do, said that he was not the King, and that the

King was concealed in the *ruelle* of the bed (where he in fact was), and, going in that direction, she found him and told him what had been agreed."

This curious passage of a very respectable historian shows that what may be called the legend of Joan of Arc was not formed in a day. There is a general belief still in existence that Joan thought her mission ended after she had forced the English to abandon the siege of Orléans and had seen the young King crowned at Reims. This is a mistake: she had a very distinct view of what she considered her divine mission. After having taken the King to Reims, she was anxious to bring him to Paris, which was in the hands of the English. She told John of Alençon in confidence that God had imposed four tasks upon her: the raising the siege of Orléans; the coronation of the King; the total expulsion of the English; the deliverance of the Duke Charles, who had been made a prisoner at Agincourt. Why was she stopped in her career after the wonderful success she had achieved before Orléans? It is difficult to explain it; all the towns of Champagne and of Picardy were already in insurrection against the English. The King, unfortunately, was of a very indifferent and lazy nature; he seems not to have had any distinct idea of his own rights; he was no patriot; the Duke of Bedford reproached him in a letter which he wrote him for making use, in order to deceive the poor people of France, of "a disorderly and ill-famed woman." The King, however, made a faint attempt to retake Paris. Joan established herself at St. Denis. She fought bravely as usual, but she was unfortunately wounded; and the sight of her wound perhaps shook the belief of the army in her supernatural power. The next day, the King ordered the retreat. The Duke of Burgundy, who had been wavering for some time, abandoned the cause of the French King and joined the English army before Compiègne. Joan now determined to save Compiègne; but the King remained quietly at Mehun; he tried to console Joan by giving her letters of nobility, with an escutcheon which bore a sword and two fleurs-de-lis. Joan left the court and succeeded in entering Compiègne. She invited the inhabitants to make a sortie; in this sortie she fought like a man, but remaining too late before the walls, till the drawbridge was lifted, she was made a prisoner.

The rest is well known: how Bedford sang a *Te Deum* in Paris, and how she was finally given over to the jurisdiction of the ex-Bishop of Beauvais, Pierre Cauchon, who had become Bishop of Rouen. The Count of Luxembourg, whose prisoner she was, hesitated to give her up. He was a needy prince, and finally sold her for ten thousand livres. From Beaurevoir, near Cambrai, she was therefore transferred to Crotoy in Normandy, and afterwards to the castle of Rouen, where she was treated with the greatest cruelty. Cauchon was the creature of the English, and it was the interest of Bedford to give as much *éclat* as possible to the trial of Joan. Six famous theologians were sent from Paris to Rouen, and became the accomplices of Bishop Cauchon. The interrogatories of Joan will always remain among the most extraordinary historical documents. The duel between craft and simplicity, between cunning and innocence, cannot find a more dramatic expression. When Cauchon, in order to try her, engages her to recite the *Pater*—"Willingly," says Joan, "if you are willing to hear me in confession." "Take care, Bishop," says she in one of her sixteen interrogatories—"take care; you declare yourself my judge, you assume a heavy task. Take heed what you do, for, in truth, I am sent by God, and I advise you of the great danger in which you are placed." Joan, in her interrogatories, confesses that she has always heard *voices*, which have dictated her actions. Once she was asked: "Are you in a state of grace?"—a most dangerous question, as, in case she said no, it was proved that she could not be in communication with the powers of heaven nor hear the saints; and if she said yes, she became guilty of the most audacious pride. Joan quietly answered: "If I am not in a state of grace, let God place me in it; if I am, let him maintain me in it."

The trial of Joan is a most pathetic succession of scenes. She remained always faithful to herself; she seems perfectly natural, sincere; there is nothing of the charlatan in her. When it was announced to her that she would be burned, she did not try to conceal her fears: "Alas! alas! must I be so treated? Must my body, which was never corrupted, be now consumed and destroyed?" M. Wallon shows very conclusively that Joan was abandoned by all those who ought to have protected her. The Court of France was shamefully ungrateful to the poor heroine. Not only was no effort made to save her, but her memory was given up, her services were forgotten. We do not like to be saved, especially when the saviour is of very humble origin. It required more moral courage than was possessed by the feminine King of the time to recognize the greatness of the shepherdess of the Vosges. The people had a keener appreciation of the truth. The extraordinary destiny of Joan could not help impressing itself on the imagination of the soldiers, the peasants; she assumed rapidly the proportions of a saint. Charles VII. was soon forced by public opinion to order an inquest on the trial of Joan; the family of Joan herself asked for a revision of it. The rehabilitation of Joan, who had been condemned as a sorceress, was pronounced on the 7th of July, 1456, by an ecclesiastical tribunal composed of the Archbishop of Reims, of the Bishop of Coutances and of Paris, and of the Great Inquisitor Bréhal. Expiatory processions took place in Rouen, in Orléans; and in the latter place a monument was erected to Joan. This monument was demolished during the French Revolution, but it has since been replaced by another, which is the object of great veneration.

Physiologists have tried to explain Joan of Arc by the phenomenon called hallucination. It seems very absurd to doubt her sincerity; she was always ready to risk, and she finally gave, her life for what she considered her mission; she did hear "voices," which ordered her to save the King and France; she had "apparitions." Who can measure the power of the imagination and the power of the senses? Hers was a simple soul, religious, ecstatic, given to contemplation, nursed in solitude. She became the instinctive and heroic exponent of a national thought, at a time when king and nobles thought more of themselves than of an ideal France. She always makes me think of the daughter of the architect of the Cathedral of Strasbourg, who was a somnambulist, and used to walk at night over the high scaffolds and inspect the progress of her father's work. The legend says that one night she was struck by lightning while she was boldly making her unconscious round; she fell to the ground, and expired without waking up. Poor Joan was not so happy; she died in the flames, her eyes fixed on an image of Christ on the cross.

Correspondence.

INJUSTICE TO COL. INGERSOLL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: You do Mr. Ingersoll a very great injustice in your letter from Cincinnati in the *Nation* of June 22. At first I thought some one must be guilty of deliberate slander; but I can see how the mistake came to be made.

Mr. Ingersoll holds no office, and never has held any except that of Attorney-General of Illinois. Although a great deal of highwine is distilled in his town—Peoria—the Government concedes that the business is honestly conducted, thanks to the integrity and efficiency of the officer in charge. There is not a man of more scrupulous honesty on earth than Robert G. Ingersoll. In private life his record is without reproach. A strong Republican, although a free-trader, and an ardent Positivist, he has the full confidence and admiration of all who know him, whatever their politics or religion.

Evidently your correspondent mistook something which he heard about a distinguished client of Mr. Ingersoll's for a remark applied to the Attorney himself. Col. D. W. Munro, *late* Supervisor of Internal Revenue for Illinois, Wisconsin, and Michigan, was indicted in three States, and it has often been said that "three penitentiaries were hungry for him." His counsel is Mr. Ingersoll. One indictment has been tried; the accused was acquitted. It is easy to see how the client and his lawyer might be confused in the mind of one unacquainted with both.

Believing that the *Nation* would do no intentional injustice, I ask room for this correction. F. G.

Chicago, Ill., June 24, 1876.

PERSONAL INJURY BY NEWSPAPER ATTACKS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Will you allow me a few remarks on your editorial allusion last week to Mr. E. P. Smith, late Indian Commissioner?

It is very natural that a journalist should think few men are permanently injured by unjust newspaper attacks. The people who are wounded or wrongfully treated have no chance to expose their wrongs in public. To have a controversy with a powerful journal is understood now to be a losing thing. A man who is abused has nothing to do but keep quiet; even a suit for libel is utterly useless. The only protection of an individual against the newspaper is in time and experience justifying his character. We believe Mr. Smith is a case in point. He was first attacked by a very narrow-minded and bigoted member of the old Indian Commission, and the case was thoroughly tried in Minnesota. The trial not only resulted in his entire acquittal, but showed that there was not even a reasonable basis for an accusation. Prof. Marsh made

another assault on the whole Indian Department, and we do not say but that it was well deserved, in which attack Mr. Smith was involved. The committee to whom the accusations were referred, after a laborious investigation, reported that there was not a shadow resting on Mr. Smith's personal integrity, but that he did not show "the astuteness, vigor, and decision" necessary in that position. Even the Red Cloud Agent, who was especially attacked, was found to be incompetent rather than corrupt, and was reported to have retired from his agency poorer than he entered it. Two cases of decided pecuniary loss to the Government, and those not of large amount, were found in an administration disbursing more than three millions of dollars, and over a very great extent of country.

Now, we are quite ready to admit that in so large an administration Mr. Smith may have appointed here and there an incompetent agent, and that the old abuses and corruption of the Indian management had not been entirely rooted out; but we maintain, from much personal study and observation of the Indian administration, that Mr. Smith had made very great reforms, and, so far as he himself is concerned, had conducted his office with the highest purity and integrity. His friends all know him now to be as poor as when he entered the office, and, from the experience of more than twenty years with him in various offices and duties, they would trust anything to his integrity. They claim that nothing is proved against him, and that it is a cruel injustice to allude to him, as you do in your columns, as a detected peculator, or as one only righteously treated by the attacks of the press. The very responsible association, the American Missionary Society, which employed him for years before he entered the Indian Bureau, shows its confidence in his character by sending him on a responsible mission to the missionary stations on the coast of Africa.

Amid these indiscriminate assaults on the Indian Bureau, the only one with means enough to reply to them in the courts was a contractor, Mr. A. H. Wilder, from Minnesota. I know nothing about the merits of his case. Mr. Wilder had business with Mr. Smith in the beef contracts for the Red Cloud Agency, and other contracts. He brought a suit for libel against Mr. Welsh, of the Indian Commission, who had led the newspaper attacks against himself and Mr. Smith. After a long litigation, the jury entirely acquitted Mr. Wilder of any charge of peculation or fraud in his dealing with the Indian agencies, but they did not sustain the charge of libel, on the ground that Mr. Welsh's motive did not appear to be personal vindictiveness. This suit is said to have cost Mr. Wilder over $5,000, and one can well understand why Mr. Smith did not try the same remedy.

D.

New York, June 12, 1876.

[The report of the Commission employed last year to investigate the affairs of the Indian Department we consider of little weight or authority, and the Commission itself as only valuable for having taken evidence which each enquirer must read and weigh for himself. We base this opinion on the exposure we have had to make in these columns (No. 548) of the conduct of Mr. Thomas C. Fletcher, the chairman of the Commission, during the investigation—conduct which showed that person to be wanting in common decency, to say nothing of sense of justice. We know of nothing against the other three members of the Commission, but we are forced to the conclusion, with the knowledge we have of the chairman's state of mind, that the enquiry was not conducted by any of them in a judicial spirit. We were still further put on our guard by the course of Mr. E. P. Smith in writing a letter of instructions to the Commission (he being one of the persons to be investigated), giving them a slighting account of Professor Marsh's charges, insinuating that he (Marsh) might refuse to present them in any definite shape, and warning the Commissioners against the misrepresentations of "partisans," and "of the difficulty of discovering truth amid conflicting statements and allegations." This was a most improper letter, and of itself justifies the conclusion that Mr. Smith is not an "upright man." Our correspondent is in error in saying that we have anywhere spoken of him as "a detected peculator." There are all sorts of want of uprightness besides peculation, although it is now the fashion to treat every man as spotless as long as he has not been indicted by the Grand Jury. This letter of Mr. Smith's was the more improper because it came close on one by his chief, Mr. Delano, in which, when calling on the Board of Indian Commissioners to name a Commission, he spoke of Mr. Marsh with consummate assurance as "a Mr. Marsh"—that is, as an obscure and presumably impudent person, of whom it was condescension in a man like Delano to take notice. Finally, let us add, the appointment by the Indian Board of the Commission to investigate their own agents, whose credit they were interested in the strongest way in maintaining before the world, Mr. Marsh being unrepresented in the choice of the tribunal, was an improper proceeding. The Commission, it is true, reports that "they have encountered no transaction which casts the least shadow upon Mr. Smith's personal or official integrity"; but we must take leave for ourselves to refuse to accept any definition of "personal or official integrity" from a paper whose chief signer is Mr. Thomas C. Fletcher, and must be allowed to put our own construction on the said Fletcher's admission that he and his associates have discovered acts of Mr. Smith's "which exhibit a want of due diligence, and liability to be deceived and imposed on by cunning and unprincipled men." We are afraid the author of the "Pi-ute Letters" is himself easily led astray by the wicked, and knows how it is. We also find Mr. Smith guilty of want of uprightness in inserting in the statement read by him to the Commission, after the evidence had been closed and the Commission had broken up, a charge of a serious character against Mr. Marsh, and in having it printed in the official report as if read in Marsh's presence. The passage is to be found on page 660 of the report. Mr. Marsh, on seeing the volume, called Mr. Fletcher's attention to this interpolation, on which this gentleman printed Mr. Marsh's letter, and an answer of a somewhat abusive and evasive character from Mr. Smith, in an appendix, without giving Mr. Marsh any opportunity for reply. That Mr. Fletcher should not have perceived the objections to this performance is not surprising, but that Mr. Smith, after his sad experience of "cunning and unprincipled men," should not have seen it, we trust will puzzle our correspondent.—Ed. Nation.]

MASSACHUSETTS ART-INSTRUCTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In discussing the above subject, it seems to me very essential that misstatements of facts should be avoided, otherwise the opinions formed on their consideration will be equally wrong. It may not be a matter of much consequence what the opinions of any art-student may be concerning a school, but it is of consequence to all those who wish to have some opinion on the subject that they should not be misled as to their data.

In the letter signed "Art-Student," and published May 25, all the statements of facts are opposed to the truth, and would, therefore, if uncontradicted, create a wrong impression. May I ask you, therefore, in justice to the School which has been attacked (the Massachusetts Normal Art-School) and to myself, its equally maligned Director, to publish this reply?

First, as to facts. Your correspondent says: "In the regular reports [of the Boston School and Drawing Committee] are published the names of teachers who fail to comply with the rules, and prepare for special examination in drawing." This is an absolute untruth. Such a list of names has never been published.

Again: "A large percentage of the first year's students [of the Normal Art School] were either teachers of drawing in Boston and vicinity or former students of drawing in the Lowell Institute." This is untrue. We keep all the records of students, and also the exercises which they work for permission to enter the School, and these records show in the student's own handwriting that only an insignificant percentage of first year's students were teachers of drawing, whilst the exercises in drawing prove that others could have received no art-instruction anywhere.

Again: "At the close of the year only thirteen out of a hundred and thirty-three students could take the diploma, and yet each successive year the system is braced by increase of work." I can hardly be held responsible for the fact that persons entering the School should be so utterly ignorant of drawing that only thirteen could take the diploma the first year (though, as a matter of fact, twenty-two passed instead of thirteen); but I assert and can demonstrate by the printed circulars that no additional work has been required from the first year's students since the School opened. The first list of studies and lectures is that now acted on in the third year of the School's existence. It may, however, qualify the statement about thirteen passing if it be known that only twenty-nine attempted to pass the whole examination.

Again: "Remonstrating against this condition of things as crushing to the spirits, a student was coolly recommended by the director to take 'mor-

phine.'" When I read this statement in the *Nation* I was ignorant of what morphine was, and only discovered the shocking wickedness of the charge on learning that morphine was a preparation of opium. The statement is shamefully false.

"The school is no longer free, there being a charge of $20 a year. A debt of $20,000 has been incurred by the managers during the past year, which is given as a reason for the change." No such debt exists, and no such reason was ever given for the fee of $10 a term for incidentals, *not* for instruction. The fee for instruction is $100 a year, and this no resident of the State is expected to pay or ever has paid.

"The Finance Committee of the last Legislature refused to consider a resolve appropriating $14,000 to the School." This is not true; and, in spite of a libellous circular issued by anonymous persons, and referred to by your correspondent, addressed to the members of the Legislature, the necessary appropriations were made without much discussion, and what discussion there was was principally on the subject of draped *versus* nude figures.

This circular was not considered by "a meeting of students called by the managers of the School to express approbation of the system," as your correspondent says, for no such meeting ever was called. When the circular was issued, an indignation meeting of the students was held, at which no manager or teacher or officer of the School was present, nor had any one of them the first thing to do with it. Disgusted with the anonymous libels directed against the School and myself, the students addressed the following letter to me, it having been unanimously passed at the meeting, and afterwards signed by every student attending the School during the week it lay for signature:

"We, the undersigned, pupils of the Massachusetts Normal Art-School, having seen an anonymous circular against you, printed for distribution, at the State House, and signed 'Artists of Boston and Students of the Normal Art-School,' take this means of assuring you that we are in no way parties to this underhand and cowardly attack, and that we utterly repudiate all connection with it. We have always had and have the fullest belief in your exceptional fitness for the position of director, and gratefully recognize the devoted care which you have taken of the School, and the zeal with which you have labored to further its best interests. With the hope that you may long continue to direct the School, which owes its existence to you, and which without you would cease to exist, for want of a competent director, we remain yours faithfully."

No one person distinguished in either the practice of art or in education has adversely criticised the work of the Normal School, and every attack made on it has been made by persons who were ashamed to sign their names, or knew that their names, if given, would answer their aspersions. It is this cowardly way of discussion that settles the rights of these critics to their opinions; men entitled to opinions on such a subject are not afraid to state their opinions or ashamed to sign their statements, as I have now. I would like to say in reply to the general charge of overwork in the School, that systematic art-study appears to be something new among the class which attends the School, and many students have informed me that previous to entering it they had never been subjected to any kind of discipline. To such, any regular work would be hard. Then, also, amongst the 700 students who have entered during the past three years, some few have been so afflicted either with age or lack of sight that they had much better never have entered. Your correspondent's phrase "nerve-force" reminds me of one student, who began at her first lesson and explained to her teacher that she was deficient in nerve-force, and never received instruction from any teacher during the few months she was in the School without actually remonstrating with them for giving it, on account of the consumption thereby of her nerve-force. Discovering that art-study meant work, like any other study, she quickly gave it up, and has engaged herself since in less onerous occupation.

But to settle the question of there being too much to do in the first year's course by students, who give their time in the Art-School as they do in all other normal schools—that is, a reasonable time for five days in the week—let me say that every year since the School has opened there have been several Boston public-school teachers who have done their work regularly in the daytime, all the year round, and yet have had time *in their leisure* to produce all the diploma-drawings, study the subjects, and pass the examinations in addition. That being so, how can the work be possibly too much for others whose sole occupation it is? With regard to students having graduated in the School and there being no employment for them, allow me to say that no student has yet graduated, and none can do so until 1877, when the School will have completed its fourth year's existence, and its first class will then graduate. But a very large number of students are already employed as teachers, on the strength of a year or two's study in it, who would be much better employed in completing their own education. That is one of the chief difficulties, viz., that students seek and find employment in teaching before they are fit to have it. Whilst a professional training in the old countries occupies from five to ten years, here a student expects to be ready to earn his living after a year's instruction.

In conclusion, I claim that the School, so far as the studies and students are concerned, is in an excellent condition, constantly increasing in numbers and steadiness of work, attracting to it the young and diligent; there are those among its students who, when they have had their four years' training, will show something new in this country—accomplished teachers of art, trained on American soil.

WALTER SMITH,
Director of the School.

BOSTON, May 30, 1876.

[We regret the delay in printing this letter, due to a miscarriage in the mails in consequence of our having mislaid "Art-Student's" address, which we still lack.—ED. NATION.]

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The discussion going on in the *Nation* on the subject of art-education interests me so much, and I have so far studied the matter practically and subjectively as well as objectively from the theoretical point of view, that I trust you will allow me to say that I regard the extirpation of the South-Kensington system, entire or modified, the most important work to be done in America. The position taken by the *Nation* in a late reply to a correspondent is quite unexceptionable from its point of view.

The study of art and that of nature (pictorially) differ as much as those of music and elocution. *Art* can only be studied in schools of art, where examples, traditions, and great works of art can be studied continually in their own atmosphere, while nature can only be studied as nature and before nature, the aid of art being simply *a help to see*. South Kensington is neither art nor nature, but a wretched conventionalism which has never helped anybody in England either to see clearly or work well, and will never help any one in America. It has about as much relation to art-education as rebuilding of cathedrals has to religion: they both enable people of a certain temperament to do what they consider a duty, to spend a certain amount of money in a way which they hope will do no harm and may do some good, and relieve their consciences.

Getting up new schools of art is much like getting up new religions—they will come of themselves sometimes, but not to order. Nature may always be studied without schools, but, as a school of drawing merely, South Kensington is the worst failure of the age of electroplate.—Yours truly,

W. J. STILLMAN.

VENTNOR, ENG., June 5.

BLAINE'S POPULARITY AT THE WEST.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: One of the most striking facts in connection with the Cincinnati Convention is the entire absence of sectional preferences. Leaving out of account the "favorite son" business, there was hardly a trace of any such influence. Except in his own State, Mr. Morton had no support in the West; except in his own State, Mr. Blaine had no strength in New England; except in his own State, Mr. Conkling had few votes from the North; besides his own State, Mr. Bristow's followers were almost confined to New England. Mr. Blaine's strength in the Northwest affords an instructive example of this fact. The Northwestern group of States—Illinois, Wisconsin, Minnesota, Iowa, Kansas, Nebraska, and the Territories—cast almost a solid vote for him; and the causes of this are worth seeking.

In the first place, this strength was largely factitious. Perhaps there was a majority of the Republicans of these States for Mr. Blaine, although the Chicago *Tribune* denies it for Illinois; but it is very certain that there was no approach to any such unanimity as the votes would indicate. Our people are so accustomed to having the minority party go entirely unrepresented that they cannot see any injustice in having the minority within the party equally overridden by the majority; and, in truth, it is no worse for "Bob" Keyes or "Bob" Ingersoll to carry the Republican delegation of Wisconsin and Illinois in their pockets, than for the Republican party as an organization to pocket the entire State of Iowa in Congress. But it is very certain that a large and the best part of the Republican party in these two States felt not only that Mr. Blaine could not carry those States, but that if he did it at all it would be without their votes—unless, that is, the Democrats should commit another of their inconceivable follies. Admitting, however, that Mr. Blaine was the clear choice of the majority of the Republican party of the States in question, what was the cause of it? Mainly, no doubt, because he represents that pluck and audacity which are certainly no marks of statesmanship, but which in a new community are as much needed

as statesmanship, and which ten years ago were the foremost qualities in the needs of the day. The Northwest has not yet outgrown the memory of the war, and is not yet freed from the requirements of the frontier. Mr. Blaine's "vindication" was, say what we will, a splendid piece of fighting; and it was as victor in a battle that his followers hailed him.

As to this vindication, it is absurd to speak of it as such. We will not say that Mr. Blaine cannot prove himself innocent, but he certainly has not done so. Nevertheless, the people of the Northwest think he has—partly that they have not read and sifted the evidence, partly that nobody is logical when loyalty or personal attachment is in question; and the attachment to Mr. Blaine took the form of personal loyalty. And if the Boston *Advertiser* refuses to see any defects in the vindication, who can blame the people of these frontier communities? By sheer effrontery on his own part, and by generous devotion on that of his adherents, Mr. Blaine has managed to place himself in the light of an innocent and persecuted man, and, like General Grant, the Western voters refuse to desert him under fire.

But, after all, neglect to read the letters and lack of logic are not the only causes of this determination to believe Mr. Blaine innocent; it is, in a very large degree, that moral obtuseness, that lowering of the standard of public morality, which has been so deplorably manifest of late, and which has found its best illustration in the case of Mr. Schenck. This moral obtuseness is not greatest in the cities, where the exigencies of commerce keep up a reasonably high standard of conduct in business intercourse; nor in the older communities generally, where there are well-established traditions and accepted standards of action, and where a tolerably homogeneous population presents the elements of a steady and somewhat organized society. But the West, with its chance confluence of incomers from all States and all nations, receiving necessarily at the same time an undue proportion of persons who have "left their country for their country's good," is peculiarly exposed to the lowering of the standard. We see it in the corruption rife in the early history of nearly every one of the new States; we see it in the Granger legislation. These States have elements of admirable promise, and are steadily outgrowing their faults, not of youth, but of want of organism. Meanwhile, there is perhaps no more conscious dishonesty than in older communities, but there is a great deal more unconscious.

Mr. Blaine represents the crude, aggressive life of the nation, and was therefore the candidate of that part of the nation whose life is still crude and aggressive. You would hear—not often, but occasionally—"What if he did defraud the Government? He showed his smartness in it, and that he is just the smart man that we want"; oftener, however—"Hadn't he a right to put his money where it would do him most good?"

A.

ILLINOIS, June 1, 1876.

["A." has omitted to notice one matter connected with what may be called the moral side of the Convention, and that is the extreme magnanimity, benignity, and general benevolence of the politicians. Along with their moral obtuseness goes an apparent incapacity of resentment which now seems, like the prodigious sonorousness of their voice of which we spoke last week, to be becoming an inherited quality. It may be laid down as a rule that a man who cherishes rancor, and cannot conceal it, cannot now succeed in political life. And it looks as if the habit of concealing it had at last produced inability to feel it, so that it begins to take the place in the politician's moral constitution of the rudimentary organs in his physical frame. But this, again, most probably has had its origin in the peculiar conditions of colonial or frontier life. The frontiersman, when once he rises above the savage condition in which, like the Indian or the tiger, he seeks the death of his enemy, becomes curiously cautious about making enemies, and is disposed to put up with almost any amount of merely moral injury sooner than treat a man as an enemy—a state of mind which is doubtless due to the deep and constant feeling of dependence on one's neighbors which is always the strongest social tie of colonial life in a sparsely settled region. The knowledge that one may any day need the help of one's neighbors produces in such a community an amount of toleration for moral aberrations and shortcomings which revolts people in older societies, in which the opposite lesson, the necessity of keeping people up sharply to the conventional standards as one of the first conditions of social safety, has been learned through bitter experience. The politician has not unnaturally borrowed the frontier code, and will probably stick to it as a matter of professional convenience long after it has disappeared in every part of the country. But its early disappearance is not probable anywhere, as it is diffused among the whole chromo-civilized community, both East and West. A chromo-civilized man will denounce you in the papers as a forger, cheat, and adulterer in the most savage terms, and the next day meet you with a smiling face and outstretched hand and ask you to dinner. If you denounce him in like fashion, and even if you prove your charges, he will meet you in the same way, and tell you that he cherishes no unkind feeling towards you whatever, and in fact cherishes no unkind feeling to anybody that lives or ever did live, and, in so far as he has any feeling towards a person who has accused him or whom he has accused, it is one of gratitude, though for what he does not well know. In older communities this is apt to be set down by philosophers as a sign of moral decay. Sainte-Beuve says, in his recently published 'Chroniques Parisiennes,' apropos of it: "This absence of rancor, and this readiness to be reconciled after the most outrageous treatment, which may be repeated the next day, is perhaps the gravest symptom of moral decadence in a people. One reads in Chinese novels that the mandarins, after playing each other some scurvy trick, laugh in each other's faces, and drink together out of their little cups, the same as if nothing had happened. There is not the shadow of a resemblance between this and Christian forgiveness." *

We have little doubt, however, that here it is rather the product of an early and rapidly disappearing simplicity than a sign of a declining civilization. As the tug of war grows harder in a society based on competition, the easy good-nature of the militia has necessarily to give place to the stern discipline of the regulars. One is set to thinking on this point by the early opportunity which the heroes of all our late scandals have taken of announcing their forgiveness of all their slanderers, and their love for the entire human family—a fact which they are apparently more anxious to spread abroad than the proofs, if they had them, of their innocence. There grows out of this, or is perhaps inseparably associated with it, the politician's or chromo-civilized man's horror of "losing his temper." There is perhaps nothing he would not sooner have leak out about him than "that he had lost his temper." If he has to communicate to you this intelligence about one of his own friends, he will, if there is anybody near, call you into a corner and whisper it to you. That there is anything about which it is lawful to lose one's temper is something which never occurs to him. He will see his own character or that of his nearest or dearest assailed with the foulest aspersions and will only smile, but if anybody says he "got mad," on any occasion whatever, he will be deeply moved.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

A SECOND volume from the pen of Prof. J. W. Powell, well known for his daring explorations of the great cañons of the Colorado River, has just appeared from the Government Printing-office. It is a thin quarto of 200 pages, accompanied by an atlas of eight maps and diagrams, giving the results of geological observations on the eastern portion of the Uinta Mountains, made in the course of his explorations, and includes a résumé of the invertebrate palæontology of that region by Dr. C. A. White, formerly State geologist of Iowa. About one-half of Prof. Powell's report is devoted to questions of structural geology whose range is not always confined to the region described. His treatment of these questions merits a more critical notice than time or space will permit us to give.——From the Ninth Annual Report of the Trustees of the Peabody Museum of American Archæology and Ethnology we learn of the accumulation of the building fund

* "C'est peut-être le plus grave symptôme de décadence morale chez un peuple que cette absence de toute rancune, et cette réconciliation banale après d'indignes procédés, sauf à recommencer demain. On voit dans les romans chinois que les mandarins, quand ils se sont fait quelque mauvais tour, se mettent à rire au nez l'un de l'autre, et boivent ensemble leurs petites tasses comme devant. Il n'y a pas ombre de ressemblance entre cela et le pardon chrétien."—*Chroniques Parisiennes*, p. 69.

beyond the amount fixed by the terms of the endowment, and that a building for the Museum will accordingly be begun as soon as Harvard College grants a site for it. The accessions to the collections during the past year have been very numerous and valuable, Mr. Alexander Agassiz, in particular, having generously contributed upwards of five hundred articles from Peru. Among these, the curator remarks, is a collection of human hair which "shows not only the peculiar modes of braiding, but also the fact that hair other than that belonging naturally to the head was worn to a great extent in the form of 'switches,' and that even these ancient people were familiar with the use of the 'rats' of the modern hairdressers." The report is embellished with a fine steel portrait of Mr. Peabody.——Delays in designing the binding of the 'Condensed Classics' lately announced by Henry Holt & Co. will prevent the publication of this series before the fall.——*Nature* for June 1, a double number celebrates the return of the *Challenger* by reviewing for each year from December 21, 1872, the vessel's course and achievements. This review is illustrated with a number of interesting woodcuts, and a fit tribute is paid to Prof. Wyville Thomson, the chief of the expedition, in a biographical notice accompanying his portrait, one of *Nature's* well-known and most artistic series.——In the *Geographical Magazine* for June there is a map illustrating a pundit's venturesome journey through Thibet in 1874, together with articles of the usual variety and interest. The *Mittheilungen* for May 6 maps the course of the explorer Giles through the interior of Australia, from May to November, 1875, and contains also a chart showing the public institutions for the higher education in Germany in 1875. Only those towns are indicated which possess a Gymnasium, a Progymnasium (Latin School or Lyceum), or a Realschule of the first or second rank. A conventional sign for each of these schools is affixed to the circle which marks the town; and the circle, again, shows the number of inhabitants.——*Appleton's Journal* hereafter abandons its weekly issues, and takes its place among the monthly magazines.

—The late expedition sent out by the Palestine Exploration Society took a large number of photographs of scenery and topography; and copies of ninety-nine of these, of liberal size, the Society proposes to present to subscribers to its fund. Having examined them, we are able to say that the negatives are exceptionally fine, and that the prints possess great interest not only for archæologists and Biblical students, but even for architects, and of course for collectors generally. Among the architectural plates we will specify No. 24, Temple at Musmeih, No. 26, Temple at Suleim, No. 28–29, "Convent of Job" at Kanawat, No. 42–43, Temple and columns at Bozrah, No. 68, Temple of the Sun at Jerash, and No. 70, Triumphal arch at the same place. Some of the panoramic views are really extraordinary—pure landscape, as in No. 20–23, Lake Phiala, so called on account of its bowl shape, which results from its occupying an extinct crater; architectural remains of prodigious extent, as in the street of columns at Jerash (No. 49–55), or the southeast section of earthquake-shattered Bozrah (No. 38–41); or landscape and ruins in striking combination, as in No. 89–92, the panorama of Amman (O. T. Rabboth-Ammon, where Uriah was slain). Lovers of the picturesque will single out the magnificent view of Mt. Hermon (No. 5), or the unusually wooded view of the fountain of the Jordan at Tell el Kadi (No. 19), or the cliffs, with cavernous stables, at Arak el Emir (No. 81–83), or the ruins at Mashita (No. 85, or still better No. 88). There are, besides, one or two views of inscriptions, and some charming ones of cedar groves; and among the entire number we have remarked very few that are unattractive. The printing of them has been entrusted to the capable hands of Mr. Geo. G. Rockwood, who, we understand, means to employ for a portion at least of the set the Lambert process of permanent photography, called the chromotype. This art, which is really a development of and improvement upon the old carbon process, has never before been practised in this country. It is hardly dearer than the silver process, and promises, in our opinion, to supersede the latter to a very large extent, especially in the field of portraiture. We ought to add that subscriptions to the Society will be received by the Rev. O. St. John, Financial Secretary, 115 Worth St., N. Y. A subscription of $200 will entitle the giver to the whole set, and so proportionately down to $10, which will entitle to five photographs.

—There is plenty of light summer reading in *Harper's* for July, but nothing of exceptional literary merit. The paper on "Nominating the President" has a timely interest, and one may learn from it that the late contest at Cincinnati was a tame affair compared with the travail of not a few of the older conventions. It may be said of all of them, however, that the number of delegates has been excessive, and that it is now at least seven times too large. It was a Democratic convention which gave us the present system of apportionment after the manner of the House of Representatives, and no better scheme could have been devised for lowering the quality of the electors and for fostering particularism and sectionalism. If in place of a delegation of fifty-eight nobodies like that from Pennsylvania, whose "sale" and "delivery" were openly speculated upon, the State had been represented by even one citizen of national reputation and unquestioned integrity and patriotism, will any one pretend that his vote, given after deliberation among his equals, would not infinitely have outweighed that of the troop actually headed by the Secretary of War? A body composed of the élite of either party, whether one, two, or three from each State, would be capable of reflection and sober discussion of candidates, would be beyond the reach of panics, and would command respect just in proportion to the character of its members. The effect of this on the constituencies would be to put against the temptation to vote with the majority a strong inducement to vote with the most honest and decent citizens; and this again would be an obvious and very precious advantage for new parties, which might easily convene eighty or a hundred notables, whose character and deliberations would not suffer by comparison with those of their long-established rivals. But the subject is too fruitful to be here pursued further. Among the illustrated articles, Mr. Lanman's account of Block Island and the paper on Samuel Adams are worth reading. The new instalment of "Daniel Deronda" is to our mind decidedly the finest yet.

—Apropos of Mr. Hudson Holly's paper on "Modern Dwellings" in this number of *Harper's*, a fellow-architect, who sends us his card, writes as follows:

"Some time ago, the author of a series of articles, entitled 'Modern Dwellings, their Construction, Decoration, and Furniture,' now appearing in *Harper's Magazine*, published a work on 'Church Architecture,' which called forth a scathing review from a leading English architectural journal, and which now finds place in some libraries as one of the curiosities of literature. It is a queer patchwork, largely adapted (to use a mild term) from 'the authorities,' and only calls for notice at this time because of the unfortunate fact, that the author does not seem to have profited by an experience which might and ought to have taught him that in these days of cheap printing it is not safe to 'adapt' too freely. The third part of the magazine article alluded to above, and which is just printed in the July number, begins, after a brief preamble, with the words: 'It is a very general impression that good taste comes naturally to gentle blood,' etc. If you will look at page 7 of J. R. Osgood & Co.'s edition (1872) of 'Eastlake's Hints on Household Taste,' at about the middle of the page, and will read on, comparing the magazine article with Eastlake, it will be found that in essentials the magazine article is, with a coolness almost refreshing at this warm season, 'adapted,' down to the dramatic point of the select on of a carpet 'that Angelina a moment before had decried to be a fright.' Here 'Angelina' and a trifling difference of time are the only new features; 'Materfamilias' having made the same discriminating criticism '*two* minutes ago'—in the original It would be tedious and useless to follow the author (?) through his remarks on furniture, except to notice that his kind mention in one place of Mr., and in another of Sir Charles, Eastlake, ought in simple fairness to have been made in nearly every paragraph. It may be said that the general drift of the ideas advocated in the article is good, if the ideas are *not* original; that we need popular discussion of the question of household taste, in which as a people we are sadly deficient; that principles are in question; and that the discussion of principles of taste, which do not change, is not calculated to admit of much originality of treatment. I reply that the large and increasing body of American architects has a right to demand that a 'Fellow of the American Institute,' in writing for the public, shall carefully guard against anything so discreditable as even an appearance of piracy; and that the correspondence of ideas, and even of words, is so marked in this case as to call for indignant rebuke."

We have compared the passage in *Harper's* with that in Eastlake, and our correspondent's statement is, we regret to say, fully borne out. Nor is this all. Throughout these papers the reader is left to suppose that the greater part of the designs by which they are illustrated are the author's own. This is so far from being the case that we understand that the publishers of the magazine have felt constrained to make the proper acknowledgments to a very prominent English firm exhibiting at the Centennial, from whose catalogue Mr. Holly has freely helped himself. As these papers in *Harper's* are in fact, however they may be intended, an advertisement of the writer, the injury thus done to the profession does indeed "call for indignant rebuke."

—The prospect of raising a sufficient sum to save the Old South Church in Boston from destruction is, we understand, good, but a considerable amount of money needs still to be raised. The preservation of an historical monument like this church is one of those things about which there ought to be no doubt, and it would certainly be discreditable in the last degree, not merely to Massachusetts, but to the whole country, if any sordid considerations were to interfere with it. Four years ago, we ventured in these columns to call the attention of the public to the fact that this building was threatened with destruction, and that a "desecration" much worse than that for which the British troops made themselves responsible had

been effected by the conversion of the building into a post-office, rented to the United States. The use of a church as a stable and cavalry riding-school by an invading army may be considered as the fate of war, which rather heightens than diminishes our attachment for the object desecrated; but the destruction of an ancient building, associated with some of the most inspiring events in the history of the country, because it stood on a valuable corner-lot, would simply be a humiliating proof that all our patriotic sentiment is mere sound and fury, signifying nothing, easily hushed into an eager silence by the clink or rustle of the almighty dollar. The reaction from the old Fourth-of-July fashion of self-glorification has been of late years so strong as to threaten to lead us to an opposite extreme quite as bad—an attitude of levity and contempt with regard to the really honorable and venerable traditions and memories of the past. Certainly, the associations connected with the Old South Church are too precious to be lost. The Boston *Herald*, we see, throws doubts upon the genuineness of the popular sentiment with regard to the preservation of the church, and hints that if there had been any real feeling about it the desecration of four years ago by the Government would never have been permitted. This is true, and we believe it to be also true that if the Hancock House had been preserved, the question of destroying the Old South would never have arisen. But this only furnishes an additional reason for straining every nerve to save what is left to us. Behind the Old South are the Old State House and Faneuil Hall, and if one goes all may go, and with them the popular susceptibility to the educational influences of monuments like these—which would be, perhaps, the greatest misfortune of all.

—A pioneer of American letters passed away on the 20th of June. Mr. John Neal, of Portland, Maine, was born there in 1793, but achieved his reputation first in Baltimore and afterwards in England, where he was for some time a member of Bentham's family. His success across the water was due to the novelty of his position as an American writer on American affairs, added to his trenchant and outspoken style in discussing his countrymen—a style characteristic of the man. His success at home as a novelist and poet was possible only in the reign of the "genial critic." Mr. Neal's career was in all respects a remarkable one, and his conceit of his own performances was kept from being repulsive by a bluff manliness and a really generous nature. His autobiography, published in 1869, entitled 'Wandering Recollections of a Somewhat Busy Life,' is probably destined to be his most enduring monument. Its value is considerable, not only for the writer's confessions about himself, but for the curious light it throws on his contemporaries in the early dawn of our literature. Mr. Neal possessed unusual physical powers, and his twin-sister, although delicate, also lived to a good old age. They were of Quaker parentage.

—Among the many good qualities of our "Anglo-Saxon" race, its sympathy with the feelings of brute animals deserves an honorable mention. We only hope that this virtue will not run to a maudlin excess in the coming passage by the British Parliament of a law regulating vivisection. All England seems just now to be in a hubbub on the subject; and one knows not what most to admire, the unintelligent zeal of the humane public which quotes such ill-chosen cases as examples of the "horrors" of science, or the facile logic of certain friends of physiology to whom the *tu quoque* argument addressed to fox-hunters, bird-shooters, and goose-liver-pie-eaters seems a perfectly satisfactory defence. The Royal Commission appointed to take evidence on the subject recommended, very properly as we now think, a license law. But the Government has decidedly outstripped the recommendations of the Commission in the bill which Lord Carnarvon introduced the other day into the House of Lords, and some of its proposed provisions seem to us as silly as they are mischievous. The bill says that all painful operations *must* be performed under anæsthetics, and Lord Shaftesbury, in supporting it, cited with horror the tying of arteries on a living dog by Sir Astley Cooper. Now, if anything is certain it is that the simple act of introducing a canula into a vessel or tying it (one of the operations most frequently called for in physiological experimentation) is immeasurably less distressing to the animal than the operation of being etherized. Humanity alone should make the physiologist refrain from ether in such cases. The bill absolutely forbids curara "as an anæsthetic." As this poison may be greatly abused, the prohibition is possibly wise. One of the great faults of the bill is that its provisions will apply to any animal, from a rotifer to an elephant, the almost insensible frog being treated with the same consideration by it as the sensitive horse; whilst, incredible to relate, the dog and cat are exempted altogether from paying tribute to science—in other words, it is made penal to operate on them at all. This is simply maudlin caprice, for the plea offered that the laboratories now encourage cat and dog stealing is too silly. The worst feature of the bill, however, is this: it only legitimates such experimental investigations as are made with the express purpose of relieving human suffering. A flatter ignorance of the motives of science, or of the conditions under which discoveries useful to man have hitherto been made, cannot be conceived. A hundred such discoveries turn up as incidents in the course of researches begun with no immediately utilitarian aim to one directly sought for. Were this provision literally enforced, its only effect would be indefinitely to retard therapeutics; whilst if allowed to be liberally interpreted, or, in other words, to become a dead letter, it simply casts over the whole bill an air of quibbling and insincerity. It is probable that as soon as Parliament has legislated on the subject a movement of the same sort will begin here. We hope, whatever it accomplishes, that it will in no way tie the hands of investigators already in the tide of discovery. That occasional experimenters, simple lecturers, students desirous of merely getting some data that may do to print in a thesis, and bunglers generally, should find themselves a little hampered, seems no great evil.

—The *Portfolio* has lately been increasingly good, the etchings repeating their originals with sympathy and spirit, and the reading-matter being of great distinction. Compared with this periodical, any other technical journal of the fine-arts in our language seems a time-serving organ and puffer of some shop. The *Portfolio*, though it sometimes seems to draw breath a little hard and maintain its life with difficulty in an unfriendly air, is really a serviceable, critical, and incorruptible thinker. There is not so impartial a judge of art as Mr. Hamerton now speaking in any nationality of Europe, and we doubt if there is a better. His article on Turner is resumed in the June number, and though we do not find him in it at his best, we know of no one who could place Turner so well in the rank of painters. We observe that he claims for Turner a visible influence on some modern French landscapists—a claim which seems rather fondly pushed in the case of the etching he gives by Brunet-Debaines. The river-side in question appears to us to be simply the effort to get novelty by imitating water-color effect in aquafortis instead of that of oil-color, and to be of the seed of Turner no more than of the seed of Harpignies. Two etchings after Claude—Mr. Chattock's of the "Cephalus and Procris," and M. Gaucherel's of a classic garden—give respectively the more solemn and the lighter aspects of his talent; it is hard to say which is the happier interpretation. The more popular illustrations of the last number are Del Sarto's portrait of himself from the National Gallery, and Decamps's "Boat-horses"—the finest piece of realism in the Louvre—by Lurat, the highly-promising young etcher who made his début in the *Portfolio* lately with the striking girl's figure called "Meditation." This running art-gallery connects itself in the *Portfolio* with a text in which, as we have said, Mr. Hamerton displays in eminent degree the grace of impartiality, and which somehow reminds us all the time of Mr. Arnold's phrase of "sweet reasonableness." The journal seems to us to exert, however unobtrusively, the happiest effect on its reader, who finds himself a person of taste without particularly meaning it.

—"M. Victor Cherbuliez," writes a correspondent from Paris, "publishes in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* for June 1 the first of a series of articles on the Salon of 1876. He executed with some brilliancy a similar work four or five years ago, and it is not brilliancy of a certain kind that is wanting in the paper before us. Its serious value, however, does not strike me as high; M. Cherbuliez seems long since to have made up his mind to be nothing if not 'smart.' His smartness has run away with him, and he cracks his whip with a vivacity that only quickens its pace. I may mention in connection with M. Cherbuliez that he has just published another novel—it has been running in the *Revue*—in what may be called his second or even third manner. 'Le Fiancé de Mlle. de St. Maur' has the aroma of culture and the delicacy of imagination which characterize everything the author writes, but the story is hard reading for his old admirers. The style is so tricked out with artifical graces, and the dialogue, especially, in which no one says good-morning without putting it in the form of an epigram or a quaint adage, is so flaming and super-subtle that twenty pages of it produce a fatal irritation of the nerves, to which the reader's curiosity to know what becomes of the fascinating young Viscount who has a love-affair with his brother's wife is not found a sufficient sedative. We like M. Cherbuliez's 'Salon,' on the whole, better than this. He treats, in the pages before us, of the landscapes, the portraits, and the small genre pictures—speaking also very happily of the large archaic cartoons by M. Puvis de Chavannes, representing, for the decoration of the Pantheon, the history of St. Genevieve. M. Cherbuliez very justly characterizes the desperate naïveté and, as it were, simplicity at any price of these compositions. He praises the fine landscape of M. Pelouse,

which has received one of the first medals of the year—'A Wood-cutting at Senlisse'; he speaks appreciatively of the two admirable Russian snow-scenes of M. Chelmonski, among the most solid and yet the most entertaining works in the exhibition; and he picks out the remarkable little specimens of street-landscape with figures in which M. de Nittis makes extreme elegance and realism go so happily hand-in-hand. He renders justice to the admirable 'Femme du Pollet' of M. Vollon, a bare-legged, bare-shouldered fishwife, with her empty basket swung over her back, stepping out with the freedom and dignity, the mingled lightness and weight, of a goddess on her cloud-pavement. He pays his respects to the extraordinary 'Marché aux Fleurs' of M. Firmin-Girard, a portrait of one of the quays of Paris, with background and figures strongly suggestive of an ill-colored photograph, but with ranged nosegays and flower-pots and over-heaped hand-carts rendered with a wonderful intensity of brightness. M. Firmin-Girard's picture is vulgar to my mind, but his flower-heaps are a triumph. M. Cherbuliez expatiates more largely than seems necessary upon the immense but vacant portrait by M. Clairin, the friend and the imitator of Henri Regnault, of Mlle. Sarah Bernhardt, the charming actress of the Théâtre Français, the vulgarization of whose personality, as the Salon contributes to it (there is another and much worse portrait of her, and a very amateurish sculptured group by the lady herself), is not delightful to those who associate a certain peculiar and altogether delicate poetry with her acting. On the other hand, M. Cherbuliez can say nothing too good of the portrait by M. Paul Dubois of his two little boys—the artist concerning whose two figures in sculpture for the monument of General Lamoricière I lately wrote you. M. Dubois has gathered two distinct laurels (his sculpture has received the medal of honor and his portrait a medal in painting), and it is hard to know on which to congratulate him most. He paints admirably, and with the same profound purity of intention with which he models. This little elder and younger brother, with their hands interlocked, their little feet near together, and their sweet-tempered, well-behaved gaze at the world, form one of the most delightful pictures in the Salon. M. Cherbuliez of course devotes a paragraph to the two remarkable works of M. Gustave Moreau, the 'Hercules and the Lernæan Hydra,' and the 'Salome dancing before Herod.' These are the two pictures of the year, in the sense that they are the two pictures that have been most talked about. If it is true of any picture that it must be seen to be appreciated, it is peculiarly true of these strange, elaborate, fantastic, and erudite compositions of M. Gustave Moreau. They are extremely difficult to describe, and at first they are difficult to enjoy; but they improve vastly on acquaintance, and they end by acquiring a singular fascination. They are open to a dozen charges which, with regard to works of a different sort, would be damning charges of want of drawing, want of knowledge, of sense of possibility, of proportion, of most things, in short, that a well-regulated picture is supposed to rest upon. The only want of which they have not been accused is, we believe, that of color. The best plan for M. Moreau's defenders, I think, is to give up defending him, and to content themselves with enjoying him. He charms, he takes possession of the imagination, and leads it away into regions untrodden and unexplored. His 'Hercules' is a beautiful but somewhat ill-drawn young man, strangely caparisoned, and standing erect in the midst of a fantastic and unearthly landscape of jagged rocks and moss-hung caves. Face to face with him rises the many-headed Hydra out of a bed of mouldering victims, bound together and strewn about in every shade of lividness and every form of agony—a great cluster of gray-green serpents, which, without being as fine as those which encircle the terrible Gorgon-mask of Leonardo da Vinci at Florence, are yet sufficiently ghastly. The coloring is capricious but exquisite, and the whole scene, if unreal enough to common sense, has a great deal of truth to the imagination. The 'Salome' perhaps has even more. The daughter of Herodias is bedizened with embroideries and jewels, and, while she holds out a great lotus-flower with her gem-encrusted arm, spins round, with her head bent and her long eyes askance, on the tips of feet that support her by the help of sandals that are stiff with precious stones. Herod sits upon his throne like some human idol that has successfully accomplished the feat of seeing himself as others see him, and a long, lean slave stands beside him with a drawn sword, casting a diabolical oblique glance at the young girl. Above and behind is an indescribably gorgeous architecture, which, like most of the rest, has been evolved from the moral consciousness of the artist—a moral consciousness, however, evidently fed by a great deal of curious culture. The picture produces the same sort of effect as Coleridge's poem of 'Kubla Khan'; it is like a strange dream made visible. The arbitrary in painting must always strongly justify itself, and one may say that with M. Moreau it does."

CONCERNING ENGLAND.*

THE present volume of Hillebrand's essays concludes the series entitled "Zeiten, Völker und Menschen," of which the first two volumes have been already discussed in our columns (Nos. 418 and 523). The author renews the intimation made in the preface to Vol. II., that with the series he bids farewell to the career of journalist and reviewer. We can only express the hope that this intimation is not to be taken too literally; that one with whom we have passed so many hours of pleasant and profitable intercourse is not going to bury himself wholly in *Gelehrsamkeit*, but will emerge from time to time and give us—in the same trenchant style—his views upon the great movements in European thought and culture. No country, least of all Germany, is so rich in men uniting knowledge with diction that it can afford to lose a writer of Prof. Hillebrand's ability.

Both in style and in substance the volume concerning England differs from its predecessors. In unity of theme, it stands between the two. In spirit, it is more sober than either. To be frank, we miss with somewhat of regret the aggressive sarcasm which marked the essay upon Gervinus and upon the historic school in Germany. This sarcasm, although barely keeping at times within the limits of the permissible, was wonderfully racy and inspiring. But in approaching England, the author seems to be impressed with the consciousness that wit and sarcasm would be out of place. His pace, without dragging, becomes slower, his judgments are more carefully weighed and qualified, and his tone in general is that of a cautious observer. Only on one occasion, so far as we remember, does he indulge in a Voltairean fling, namely, p. 27, in his application of the charming little Piedmontese anecdote to the discussions held at the London Metaphysical Club. Yet the attentive reader will discover, we judge, that the author, despite the care that he has taken to cloak his views in moderation, does not cherish any very profound reverence for his subject. We feel that he might, if he saw fit, say sharper things. In fact, not a few of his judgments and criticisms are all the more grave for the seeming hesitancy with which they are proffered. In this respect, the present volume may well serve as a counterpart to M. Laugel's essay.

In dealing with a work that covers so much ground, we cannot of course follow the author step by step. We must content ourselves with indicating the premises, consciously or unconsciously adopted, from which he has taken his start. Formally, the volume is divided into three parts: first, Letters from England; second, French Studies by English Contemporaries (a critique of Bulwer's 'Parisians,' Grenville Murray's 'Member for Paris,' Marshall's 'French Home Life,' and Morley's 'Voltaire' and 'Rousseau'); third, essays upon Fielding's 'Tom Jones' and upon Sterne. Prof. Hillebrand has but little faith in the present democratic régime in England. Lord Palmerston is for him the last real statesman of the old school, and Palmerston's successors, Gladstone, Disraeli, Lowe, and the others, are intrinsically weak, vacillating, and short-sighted. The extension of popular suffrage to the lowest classes of the great cities without coupling with it the corrective of suffrage for the land-folk, is a sheer blunder. The English aristocracy, having lost not only its actual power but even its ambition and its political traditions, is fast degenerating into a mere nobility. The Utilitarian school of Bentham and Mill meets with but little favor from this writer. Mill's overestimate of French democracy, his sacrifice of the study of facts to dialectic finish, his want of knowledge of men and character, are laid bare, calmly, it is true, but without mercy. The author does not scruple to express, on more than one occasion, his preference for the England of the eighteenth century. Its very excesses and prejudices were the overflow of robust, many-sided manhood asserting its individuality. In fact, the Englishmen of one hundred years ago, with all their insular arrogance, were more truly cosmopolitan—that is, more accessible to Continental ideas and entering more effectually into Continental affairs—than their polyglot descendants who discuss Taine and Turgenef and Schopenhauer; who chase over Europe and "knock at a hundred doors without finding the right one." The dangers which threaten the English Government are two: Ultramontanism and Materialism. These great parties are slowly summoning up their resources for the decisive encounter, while the truly liberal, the enlightened, cultured classes, the professors, men of letters, barristers, and young noblemen are withdrawing more and more from the arena. In a word—here the author gives us of the Western world a *Seitenhieb*—England is "Americanizing" herself.

We cannot refrain from raising the question: Would a collection of essays like the present have been possible ten years ago? The triumphs of Sadowa and Sedan seem to echo through the pages. Not that Hillebrand is the first of his countrymen to find fault with England. Heine, for in-

* 'Aus und über England. Von Karl Hillebrand.' Berlin: Robert Oppenheim; New York: L. W. Schmidt. 1876.

stance, vented upon the British some of his choicest diatribes. But Heine wrote in the spirit of petulance, discontent, and *médisance* habitual to him, while Hillebrand is courteous and discriminating, basing his opinions upon reasons, and ready to acknowledge the good no less than the evil. Above all, he gives us to understand—not so much by direct mention as by his confident tone—that he is the citizen of a state which now considers itself the peer of England in most respects, and superior in some. He would have us know that he is above mere fault-finding, that he can respect England and the English without disloyalty to German hegemony. The most characteristic of his utterances is one (p. 48) to the effect that the two nations have exchanged parts, that the English have taken to philosophizing and the Germans to politics. Seldom is his disapproval or condemnation expressed warmly, and but once is it tinged with positive bitterness. In the note to page 93, he virtually charges England of to-day with "cant" in its condemnation of the means employed by Germany for crushing Ultramontanism, and its exhortations to Christian tolerance:

"Thanks, gentlemen, for the good advice, that reminds us so forcibly of the equally sincere exhortations of the French, when they extolled to us Germans and Italians the superiority of confederacy over unity, but rejected every idea of a dissolution of their own *belle unité* as a sin. Thanks, ye Lucretian sages safe in port, and when Papacy is reduced in Germany to the proportions that—by the virtue of your worthy forefathers—it has in England, we will take your friendly advice into consideration—yes, and follow it. But until then we are satisfied if history lumps us (*uns in einen Topf wirft*) with the glorious barbarians of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, to whom you owe your religious freedom."

Much space in the First Part is devoted to an analysis of the literary activity of Dickens. It is interesting to note the deep impression made by the great novelist upon a critic of so different an order of mind. Hillebrand's estimate of his prodigious fertility is in the main just, but we are disposed to think that he overrates his direct influence upon letters and even upon contemporary opinion. Dickens's career is of a kind to fascinate the foreigner, and to mislead him into confounding popularity with influence. The author's estimate of Bulwer's 'Kenelm Chillingly' also seems to us a trifle too high. On the other hand, his examination of Mill's credentials to greatness is the most searching that we have met.

In Part Second—the critique of the 'Parisians,' 'The Member for Paris,' and the works of Morley and Marshall—Hillebrand is thoroughly at home, and, we may add, more at his ease. Life in France is to him evidently an easy-chair, seated in which he views the motley shapes of capital and province pass by in everyday panorama. Nothing could be more thoroughly fair than his appreciation of the efforts made by English authors to delineate French society. His recognition of their success is ungrudging, and his correction of their shortcomings is not only charitable but suggestive. So far as his conclusions can be summed up in a brief paragraph, we may represent him as holding that Bulwer and Murray are good in what they give and poor in what they have failed to give. Bulwer has depicted very skilfully the movements of French life, Murray its leading figures; but both have neglected to take into account many of the most important elements. Both are signally imperfect in their portraiture of the leading types of French women, both seem to be unaware of the silent power possessed by the professors, lyceum teachers, and other men of real culture, as distinguished from the noisy, chattering feuilletonists; and both are strangers to the lower and lower-middle classes, the *petits bourgeois* and *ruraux*, upon whose good sense and thrift the welfare of France ultimately rests. Marshall has produced an interesting and valuable work, but, with all his prolixity of details, he has failed to strike the key-note of French life, which is at bottom nothing more nor less than a perfectly organized system of rationalism. He sets too high a value upon the training of French girls, and underrates that of the boys. At least, his condemnation of its evil results does not proceed from a perfectly clear perception of the causes. Marshall finds the weak spot of this training to be the want of physical and religious development. Hillebrand finds it to be the herding of great numbers in *pensions* and in the system of degrading espionage. Morley's 'Essay on Voltaire' he regards as the most valuable of those produced in recent times. It is to be ranked even above that by Strauss, because more in accordance with the robust philosophy of the eighteenth century. In his 'Essay on Rousseau,' Mr. Morley, although perfectly just and painstaking, shows more than once that he has not penetrated to the very core of Rousseau's artistic nature. We are summoned to take note of a defect in the organism of the English mind. The Englishman, straightforward, clearly conscious of his own rectitude or painfully aware of the opposite, not over-nimble in his intuitions, is unable to understand the perpetual vacillation between right and wrong, high and mean, the easy waiving of principle for a practical and immediate end, the bluntness of the ethic and acuteness of the æsthetic sense, which are so conspicuous in the Latin races and which reached their acme in Rousseau.

Hillebrand's study of Fielding is an additional proof of his preference for England of the eighteenth century. It is the product of careful reading and warm sympathy, and withal of sound judgment. The comparison of Fielding with Goethe (in the 'Meister') and with Cervantes is carried out with great delicacy and precision. It is penned in the author's happiest vein, and leaves scarcely anything to be desired. The essay on Sterne is less satisfactory.

O'HARA AND HIS ELEGIES.*

THE editor of this little volume was, we are informed, recently a Professor in Transylvania University, and the successor of Col. Breckinridge as editor of the *Observer and Reporter* in Lexington, Ky. Professor Ranck says: "America has as yet produced but one elegiac poet of acknowledged genius, and that poet is Theodore O'Hara, author of 'The Bivouac of the Dead' and the ode to Daniel Boone." It may be an illustration of the aphorism that the world knows nothing of its greatest men that, till we read this statement, we had been ignorant of the existence of Theodore O'Hara, and we have found since that this ignorance was snared by several usually well-informed and intelligent persons. "The remarkable merit," we cite again from Professor Ranck, "of these tender, mournful, but inspiring elegies has never been disputed. They have always been most warmly admired by the scholarly and cultivated, have grown steadily in public estimation from the time they were penned, and will continue to grow in favor with the growth of years. May we not reasonably hazard the prophecy that the time will come when O'Hara will occupy the same place in our literature that is now held in the field of English letters by the celebrated author of the 'Elegy in a Country Churchyard'?" Professor Ranck tells us that O'Hara was born in Danville, Kentucky, in 1820. "He was the son of an Irish political exile, noted for his piety and learning." His father gave him instruction "until he was prepared to enter college, and then that ripe scholar had so thoroughly done his work that he was at once admitted to the senior class of St. Joseph's Academy at Bardstown. There, among the learned clergy of his Church, he soon became pre-eminent as a profound and accomplished scholar." "Study was his passion. It engrossed his entire boyhood, and added fuel to the fires of his genius." He received the compliment of being chosen Professor of the Greek language at Bardstown, but after bidding farewell to his alma mater in a speech that "enraptured those who heard it with its elegance of style, depth of thought, truthfulness of sentiment, and beauty of composition," he studied law in the office of Judge Owsley. In 1845 "he held a position" in the Treasury Department at Washington; "but his life from this time till its close was obscured by the same dark clouds of misfortune and disappointment that seem so strangely to hang round the pathway of genius—the pressure of a narrow fortune, combined with the aspiration of a noble ambition, conspired to make his life erratic."

He received a captain's commission and served through the Mexican war; after the war "he commenced the practice of law in Washington City, where he remained until the breaking-out of the Cuban fever, when, with many other gallant Kentuckians, he embarked in that ill-fated enterprise. He commanded one of the regiments in the disastrous battle of Cardenas, and was badly wounded." On his return to the United States he for a time "conducted the Mobile *Register*, was subsequently editor of the Louisville *Times*, and afterwards of the Frankfort *Yeoman*." "He was peculiarly fitted for an editor, as his knowledge was varied, deep, and comprehensive, and the glowing sentences flashed like jewels from his gifted pen." Professor Ranck states that "he was frequently called on by the Government to conduct diplomatic negotiations of importance with foreign nations," and that in 1854, when the remains of the distinguished statesman, Hon. William T. Barry, arrived from Liverpool and were reinterred in the State Cemetery at Frankfort, Col. O'Hara was the orator of the occasion, and delivered an oration "so glowing, so chaste, so appropriate, and so full of pure and lofty eloquence as to entitle it to a place among the best specimens of American oratory." "At the beginning of the late war his heart swelled with sympathy for the people he had always loved so well, and his sword was at once unsheathed in defence of the South. He was immediately honored with an important position"; but when, at the close of the war, "one of the grandest dreams of modern times dissolved and ended," he was left "without a dollar," and went "to work to retrieve his fortunes." He engaged in the cotton business at Columbus, Georgia,

* 'O'Hara and his Elegies. By George W. Ranck.' Baltimore: Turnbull Brothers. 1875. 12mo, pp. 41.

but was burnt out. He then retired to a plantation on the Chattahoochee, and there was laboring successfully when he was attacked with fever, of which he died June 6, 1867. He was buried at Columbus "in consecrated ground, where he slept until the State upon which his genius had been reflected proudly claimed his ashes." In accordance with a resolution of the Kentucky Legislature, his remains were brought to Frankfort, and on the 15th of September, 1874, were reinterred with appropriate ceremonies in the State Cemetery. "The obsequies closed with the reading of 'The Bivouac of the Dead.'" "His fame rests," says Mr. Ranck, "upon his elegies. It is as a poet that O'Hara is known and celebrated. That one great lyric, 'The Bivouac of the Dead,' would alone have made his name immortal." Mr. Ranck says that as a martial elegy it surpasses the famous stanzas on the burial of Sir John Moore; that "in perfect harmony of spirit, style, and subject it is equal to Longfellow's 'Psalm of Life,'" and superior to it "in reaching out and touching the borders of the unseen"; that "the combination of spirit-reach and spirit-prescience which this production contains is the highest, strangest, and most solemn gift a poet may possess"; that "if it had no other claim upon life than the sublimely beautiful metaphor in the first stanza, that alone would preserve it through the ages"; and that "the hold of this elegy upon the popular heart grows stronger and more enduring." And recurring again to Gray, he adds that "in death as in life O'Hara seems the twin brother of Gray, the author of that exquisite emanation, the 'Elegy in a Country Churchyard.'" Professor Ranck is undoubtedly right in regarding the intimacy of apparent relationship as being quite as close in the one condition as the other.

It may not be an impertinent assumption to suppose some of our readers to be as ignorant of this admired production as we ourselves have hitherto been, and desirous of seeing so esteemed a poem. We consequently cite it at length:

"THE BIVOUAC OF THE DEAD.

"The muffled drum's sad roll has beat
The soldier's last tattoo;
No more on life's parade shall meet
The brave and daring few.
On Fame's eternal camping-ground
Their silent tents are spread,
And glory guards with solemn round
The bivouac of the dead.

"No answer of the foe's advance
Now swells upon the wind;
No troubled thought at midnight haunts
Of loved ones left behind;
No vision of the morrow's strife
The warrior's dream alarms;
No braying horn nor screaming fife
At dawn shall call to arms.

"Their shivered swords are red with rust;
Their plumed heads are bowed;
Their haughty banner, trailed in dust,
Is now their martial shroud;
And plenteous funeral tears have washed
The red stains from each brow,
And their proud forms, in battle gashed,
Are free from anguish now.

"The neighing steed, the flashing blade,
The trumpet's stirring blast,
The charge, the dreadful cannonade,
The din and shout, are past;
No war's wild note, nor glory's peal,
Shall thrill with fierce delight
Those breasts that nevermore shall feel
The rapture of the fight.

"Like the dread northern hurricane
That sweeps his broad plateau,
Flushed with the triumph yet to gain,
Came down the serried foe.
Our heroes felt the shock and leapt
To meet them on the plain;
And long the pitying sky hath wept
Above our gallant slain.

"Sons of our consecrated ground,
Ye must not slumber there,
Where stranger steps and tongues resound
Along the heedless air.
Your own proud land's heroic soil
Shall be your fitter grave;
She claims from war his richest spoil—
The ashes of her brave.

"So 'neath their parent turf they rest,
Far from the gory field;
Borne to a Spartan mother's breast
On many a bloody shield.
The sunshine of their native sky
Smiles sadly on them here,
And kindred hearts and eyes watch by
The heroes' sepulchre.

"Rest on, embalmed and sainted dead!
Dear as the blood you gave
No impious footsteps here shall tread
The herbage of your grave.
Nor shall your glory be forgot
While fame her record keeps,
If honor points the hallowed spot
Where valor proudly sleeps.

"Yon marble minstrel's voiceless tone
In deathless songs shall tell,
When many a vanquished age hath flown,
The story how ye fell.
Nor wreck, nor change, nor winter's blight,
Nor time's remorseless doom,
Shall dim the ray of holy light
That gilds your glorious tomb."

This is the elegy that is so much admired. It forces upon us the sense of the difference in contemporaneous standards of literary excellence, and impresses us with the complexity of the problem of American culture. But we have given so much space to the poem that we have no room in which to draw out its moral.

The only other poem of Col. O'Hara printed by his enthusiastic editor is called "The Old Pioneer," and Mr. Ranck tells us that "on this field at least the bard of Newstead Abbey must lower his plume to O'Hara," and that "the sad notes of this sweet and solemn dirge will float and linger with undying cadence for generations to come around the name of Daniel Boone." It is admitted, however, to be on the whole inferior to "The Bivouac of the Dead." We can only say that even if Mr. Ranck's praise should seem somewhat indiscriminate and slightly injudicious in its tone of laudation, the poem is incapable of being lowered by it in the estimate of the cultured and fastidious reader. It will be matter of surprise, however, if Professor Ranck be right that this poem "is a prophecy of Kentucky's literary future."

The Mountains. A Collection of Poems. (Boston: Roberts Bros. 1876.)—Two years ago there appeared 'Sea and Shore,' a poetical volume of appropriate poetry for summer enjoyment by the water-side. The present collection is, we believe, by the same compiler, but it seems to us inferior to that which preceded it, or at least to our recollection of it. The want of a severe taste which we pointed out in 'Sea and Shore' is quite as visible here, and in the very forefront of the volume, the opening pieces being particularly, and one would say unexpectedly, feeble. A still better test of this lack of discrimination is afforded by verses like 'The River's Lament' and 'The Flower from the Catskills' (apparently the productions of friends or of the compiler himself), whose authorship is only indicated by initials. A large number of the selections would as fitly illustrate any theme as "mountains." The real subject is a flower, a tree, a waterfall, a bird, with barely an incidental allusion to hills, or heights, or crags, and sometimes, as in the case of Dean Trench's "Heron," without even that. This, though legitimate enough, conveys the impression that the mountains have had fewer bards than the sea. But, whether such be the fact or not, there can be no doubt they have had many more than could be represented in the compass of the volume before us; and we half cherish the suspicion that tables of contents have been called into requisition where a deeper acquaintance with the poets and a wider range of reading would have ensured both a richer and a more even harvest. After all, it may be questioned whether the everlasting hills do not call for higher powers of poetic expression than does the sea. The impression they make on us is more subtle and more complex, and such as an ordinary versifier is quite unable to deal with. It is not every comer

"Who, in large thoughts, like fair pearl-seed,
Shall string Monadnoc like a bead,"

or receive its

"Welcome, if thou bring
My secret in thy brain."

Monadnoc, by the way, is justly distinguished in this collection over all its New England rivals in beauty and grandeur by being the occasion of three poems, two by Mr. Emerson and one by Whittier; and better inspiration is hardly found between the covers of the book. Poems worthy to be placed beside these, indeed, might almost be numbered on the fingers of one hand, and there is too much rubbish to make 'The Mountains' a treasury.

*** Publishers will confer a favor by always marking the price of their books on the wrapper.*

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*
Cherbuliez (V.), Le Fiancé de Mlle. Saint-Maur, swd.	(F. W. Christern)
Diggs (D. W.), Money of all Nations Equalized	(New York)
Dodge (Mary M.), Theophilus and Others	(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.) $1 50
Farrar (C. A. J.), Richardson and Rangeley Lakes. Illustrated	(Farrar & Johnson)
Howson (H. & C.), Treatise on United States Patents	(Porter & Coates)
Klaczko (J.), The Two Chancellors	(Hurd & Houghton) 2 00
Lie (J.), The Pilot and His Wife: a Norse Love-Story	(S. C. Griggs & Co.) 1 50
Pickering (E. C.), Physical Manipulation. Part II	(Hurd & Houghton) 4 00
Powell (J. W.), Geology of the Uinta Mountains	(Washington)
" Atlas of the Uinta Mountains, swd	"
Roberts (Maj. H. M.), Rules of Order. Revised	(S. C. Griggs & Co.)
Robinson (Rev. C. S.) and Perkins (T. E.), Calvary Songs	(American S. S. Union)
Scudder (H. E.), The Dwellers in Five Sisters Court	(Hurd & Houghton) 1 50
Slaughter (Rev. W. B.), Modern Genesis	(Nelson & Phillips)
Townsend (Rev. L. T.), Chinese Problem, swd	(Lee & Shepard)
Washburn (Rev. F. T.), Sermons and Essays	(George H. Ellis)

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ERRATA.

Page 9, col. 1, line 35. For "Rin-Tel" read "Rin-Tel."
Page 27, col. 1, line 20 from bottom. Insert "Publication" before "Society."
Page 37, col. 1, line 27. For "Democratic" read "Republican."
Page 52, col. 1, line 9. For "Fannus" read "Faunus."
Page 56, col. 1, line 2. For "*Endeavor*" read "*Iesante.*"
Page 96, col. 1, line 16 from bottom. For "the dictionaries" read "Webster's Dictionary."
Page 101, col. 1, line 30. For "head" read "bed."
Page 166, col. 1, line 10 from bottom. For "cent-garde" read "garde."
Page 170, col. 1, line 31. For "'66" read "'63."
Page 348, col. 1, line 27. For "first" read "fifth."
Page 260, col. 1, line 29 from bottom. For "must" read "cannot."
Page 347, col. 1, line 22 from bottom. For "wo ked the mine up to 0 . . . so that," read "worked the mine up so . . . that."

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